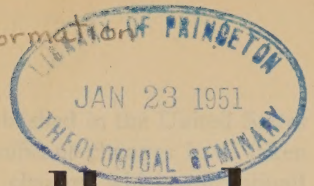


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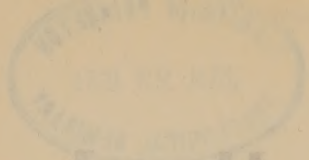
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Compiled by
The China Handbook Editorial Board

中華志

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New York, 1950



China Handbook

1950

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The China Handbook Editorial Board

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中華志

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FOREWORD

This is the first China Handbook to be published in the United States since the edition of 1946. Important and significant changes have taken place in China in the four years that elapsed, changes which are without parallel in the long history of the land and its people.

In the 1920's communism invaded Asia and in 1945 became a disruptive force in China immediately following the Japanese surrender. The young republic, which has freed itself of the Japanese menace and shaken off a century of extraterritoriality, was soon compelled, with its exhausted economy, to combat another form of imperialistic aggression. The sorely needed programs of rehabilitation were either made impossible or seriously hampered by expanding military campaigns.

In 1949 when the Iron Curtain was rapidly descending on the China mainland, members of the China Handbook Editorial Board, under the direction of Dr. Hollington K. Tong, veteran editor and publisher and former director of the Chinese Government Information Office, kept up, under wartime conditions, the compilation of information from every available authoritative source to make this edition possible.

Thoroughly documented in this reference book are the problems engendered by the Chinese Communist rebellion. An entire chapter is devoted to the issue raised by the Chinese delegates in the United Nations that the U.S.S.R. violated the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 and the Charter of the U.N. Full texts of the statements by the Chinese representatives are appended.

An up-to-date account of the province of Taiwan (Formosa) leads off the chapter on China's 35 provinces. Hitherto unpublished detailed figures of the latest nationwide postwar population census and essential data on education, public health, commerce and industry, and communications are contained in this edition. Entire chapters are devoted to the nation's academic research, water conservancy, agriculture, judicial affairs, public finance, foreign trade, banking and currency, and mineral resources.

A Who's Who section lists several hundred prominent Chinese with biographical data. A chronology of important events in the history of China since 1911 treats each year in some detail up to the end of 1949. There is a factual account of the land and the people, their culture, history, religions, and philosophies. The country is described geologically and geographically with special attention to climate and meteorology. The principal seaports are described as to shipping conditions and facilities for wharfing and warehousing. In short, every effort has been made to provide in the 1950 China Handbook an authoritative source of current China information.

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NATIONAL HOLIDAYS, ANNIVERSARIES AND MEMORIAL DAYS

National holidays are marked with asterisks

January 1*	Formal Founding of the Republic of China (1912)
February 5	Farmer's Day
February 19	New Life Movement Anniversary
March 8	International Women's Day
March 12	Arbor Day and Anniversary of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Death (1925)
March 29*	Martyr's Day and Youth Day
April 4	Children's Day
April 5	Music Day
May 1	International Labor Day
May 5	Poet's Day
June 3	Opium Suppression Day
June 6	Engineer's Day
July 1	Establishment of the National Government (1928)
July 7	"Double Seventh"—Sino-Japanese War Anniversary (1937)
August 14	Air Force Day
August 27*	Confucius' Birthday (Teacher's Day)
September 1	Journalist's Day
September 9	Physical Culture Day
September 13	"Mukden Incident"—Japanese Invasion Anniversary (1931)
October 10*	"Double Tenth"—National Day
October 24	United Nations Day
November 12*	Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Birthday Anniversary
December 25	National Renaissance Day

Chieh Chi (Chinese Farmer's Almanac), 1950

Hsiao Han	(Slight Cold)	January 6
Ta Han	(Great Cold)	January 20
Li Chun	(Spring Begins)	February 4
Yu Shui	(Spring Showers)	February 19
Ching Che	(Awakened Insects)	March 6
Chun Fen	(Vernal Equinox)	March 21
Ching Ming	(Pure Brightness)	April 5
Ku Yu	(Grain Rain)	April 21
Li Hsia	(Summer Begins)	May 6
Hsiao Man	(Grain Forms)	May 21
Mang Chung	(Grain in Ears)	June 6
Hsia Chih	(Summer Solstice)	June 22
Hsiao Shu	(Slight Heat)	July 8
Ta Shu	(Great Heat)	July 23
Li Chiu	(Autumn Begins)	August 8
Chu Shu	(Heat Ends)	August 24
Pai Lu	(White Dew)	September 8
Chiu Fen	(Autumnal Equinox)	September 23
Han Lu	(Cold Dew)	October 9
Shuang Chiang	(Frost Forms)	October 24
Li Tung	(Winter Begins)	November 8
Hsiao Hsueh	(Slight Snow)	November 23
Ta Hsueh	(Great Snow)	December 8
Tung Chih	(Winter Solstice)	December 22

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES CONVERSION TABLES

Chinese and Foreign Systems

LINEAL MEASUREMENT

CAPACITY

Meter	<i>Shih Chih</i>	English Foot
1	3	3.2808
0.3000	1	1.0936
0.3048	0.9144	1

Litre and <i>Shih Sheng</i>	English Gallon	American Gallon (liquid measure)	American Gallon (dry measure)
1	0.2200	0.2642	0.2270
4.5460	1	1.2009	1.0321
3.7853	0.8327	1	0.8594
4.4048	0.9689	1.1636	1

LINEAL MEASUREMENT

WEIGHTS

Kilometer	<i>Shih Li</i>	Mile
1	2	0.6214
0.5000	1	0.3107
1.6093	3.2187	1

Kilogram	<i>Shih Chin</i> (New Catty)	Pound
1	2	2.2046
0.5000	1	1.1023
0.4536	0.9072	1

AREA

WEIGHTS

Are	<i>Shih Mow</i>	Acre
1	0.1500	0.0247
6.6000	1	0.1647
40.4685	6.0703	1

Tonne	Picul	English Ton (long ton)	American Ton (short ton)
1	20	0.9842	1.1023
0.0500	1	0.0402	0.0551
1.0160	20.3209	1	1.1200
0.9072	18.1437	0.8929	1

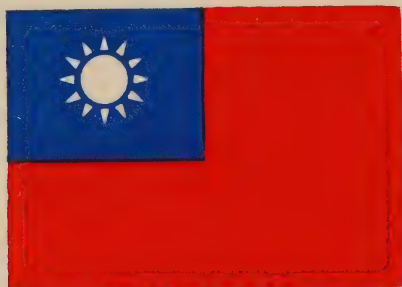
Kilogram	Pound
1	2.204622
5	11.023112
10	22.046223
15	33.069335
20	44.092447
25	55.115559
30	66.138670
35	77.161782
40	88.184894
45	99.208005
50	110.231117
55	121.254229
60	132.277340
65	143.300452
70	154.323563
75	165.346676
80	176.369787
85	187.392899
90	198.416011
95	209.439122

Pound	Kilogram
1	0.453592
5	2.267962
10	4.535924
15	6.803886
20	9.071849
25	11.339811
30	13.607778
35	15.875735
40	18.143697
45	20.411659
50	22.679621
55	24.947584
60	27.215546
65	29.483508
70	31.751470
75	34.019432
80	36.287394
85	38.555356
90	40.823318
95	43.091281

WEIGHT EQUIVALENTS

Tonne	Quintal	Kilogram	Picul New Scale	Catty New Scale	Pound Old Scale	Catty Old Style	Picul Old Scale	Long Ton
<u>1</u>	10.0	1000.0	20.0	2000.0	2204.62	1653.465	16.53465	0.9842059
0.1	<u>1</u>	100.0	2.0	200.0	220.462	165.3465	1.653465	0.09842059
0.001	0.01	<u>1</u>	0.02	2.0	2.20462	1.65365	0.01653465	0.0009842059
0.05	0.5	50.0	<u>1</u>	100.0	110.231	82.6735	0.826735	0.0492103
0.0005	0.005	0.5	0.01	<u>1</u>	1.10231	0.826735	0.00826735	0.000492103
0.00045359	0.0045359	0.45359	0.00907186	0.907186	<u>1</u>	0.75	0.0075	0.0004464285
0.00060479	0.0060479	0.60479	0.0120958	1.20958	1.33333	<u>1</u>	0.01	0.00059524
1.0160475	10.160475	1016.0475	20.321	2032.1	2240.0	1680.0	16.80	<u>1</u>
0.060479	0.60479	60.479	1.20958	120.958	133.333	100.0	<u>1</u>	0.059524

Flag of the Republic of China



Flag of the Republic

The history of the Chinese national flag—the *White-Sun-in-Blue-Sky-over-Red-Ground* dates back to 1906 when this emblem was decided upon as the Chinese national standard by Dr. Sun Yat-sen at the *Tung Meng Hui* assembly held in Tokyo. When the Republic of China was founded in 1912, however, the five-barred (red-yellow-blue-white-black) flag was adopted by the government, while the design created by Dr. Sun and his revolutionary comrades was made the naval flag of China.

Following the successful completion of the Northern Punitive Expedition the *White-Sun-in-Blue-Sky-over-Red-Ground* was officially adopted as the national flag on October 8, 1928 (the 17th year of the Republic of China).

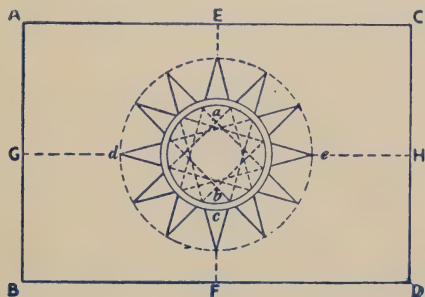
The 12 points of the *White-Sun* in the emblem represent the 12 two-hour periods of the day. They also symbolize the spirit of unceasing progress.

The colors of blue, white and red represent collectively the *Three People's Principles*. The color symbolization is as follows :

BLUE — Equality, justice, and *Min Chuan* (principle of democracy) ;

WHITE — Fraternity, frankness and *Min Sheng* (principle of people's livelihood) ;

RED — Liberty, sacrifice, and *Min Chu* (principle of nationalism).



$$AB:AC=2:3$$

$$Ab:EF=3:8 \quad bc=1/15ab$$

$$de:GH=2:4$$

$$\text{Angle of each point}=30^\circ$$

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INFORMATION

AREA

At the end of the Sino-Japanese War, the territory of the Republic of China underwent two major changes—the independence of Outer Mongolia through a plebiscite held in accordance with the provisions of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of August 15, 1945, and the retrocession of Taiwan (Formosa), a Chinese territory ceded to Japan after the first Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95.

The northernmost point of the boundaries of China is at latitude $53^{\circ} 57' N.$, the Sayan Mountains, as Tannu Tuva is still considered Chinese territory. The easternmost boundary is at longitude $135^{\circ} 4' E.$ at the confluence of the Amur and Ussuri Rivers. Both the southernmost and westernmost borders remain to be defined. The Pamirs in the west constitute a contested area among China, the U.S.S.R. and Afghanistan. The sovereignty of the Tuansha Islands (the Coral Islands) in the south is sought by China, the Republic of the Philippines and Indo-China. The northern section of the boundary between China and Burma also remains to be demarcated.

The exact size of China at present cannot be determined, since the boundary lines with Outer Mongolia are not yet defined. By adding the areas of the various administrative units as provided by the Ministry of Interior in 1947, China's domain is estimated at 9,814,247.05 sq. km. excluding the exact area measurements of Dairen and Mukden.

China is bordered by Korea, Siberia, Outer Mongolian Republic, Soviet Central Asia Republics, Afghanistan, India, Burma, Indo-China and the Pacific Ocean.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

By act of the National Government on June 5, 1947, the country is divided into 35 provinces, one territory, and 12 municipalities under the Executive Yuan. The provinces are further divided into 208

administrative districts, 2,023 *hsien*, 55 municipalities under provincial administration, 35 preparatory *hsien*, and one administrative bureau.

The 12 municipalities which come under the Executive Yuan are: Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tsingtao, Tientsin, Chungking, Dairen, Harbin, Hankow, Canton, Sian and Mukden.

GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

The framework of the land mass of China was laid in the pre-Cambrian times. Its present features remain generally within the original framework, which is constructed by a combination of three sets of tectonic lines: (1) the northeast to southwest geosynclines and geanticlines, (2) the east to west fold zones, and (3) the geotectonic shear forms.

The continuous depression of the Sungari-Liao river valley, the north China plain and the central Yangtze basin have formed a synclinorium since the late Mesozoic times. It is called the Cathaysian geosyncline bordered on the west by the Khingan-Shansi-Kweichow anticlinorium and on the east by the Liaotung-Shantung highlands and the upland of southeast China. These regional belts were folded into a series of parallel synclines and anticlines forming a complex structure on a grand scale with their general axes striking northeast. A detailed study of tectonic evidence indicates that these Cathaysian trends are a group of compressive features due to a pressure coming from the northwest and a powerful resistance on the southeast.

The Cathaysian geosynclines and anticlines are interrupted at regular intervals by another group of features which run from east to west. They are the Tannu Kentai range forming the northern margin of the Mongolia block, the Yinshan range dividing the Mongolia block from the north China block, the Tsingling zone separating the north China block from the central China block, and

TABLE 1—AREA
(December, 1947)

	Square Kilometers
<i>Provinces</i>	
Kiangsu.....	108,314
Chekiang.....	102,646
Anhwei.....	146,303
Kiangsi.....	165,258
Hupei.....	186,229
Hunan.....	204,771
Szechwan.....	303,318
Sikang.....	451,521
Fukien.....	120,114
Taiwan.....	35,961
Kwangtung.....	218,511
Kwangsi.....	218,923
Yunnan.....	420,465
Kweichow.....	170,196
Hopei.....	140,253
Shantung.....	146,736
Honan.....	165,141
Shansi.....	156,419
Shensi.....	187,691
Kansu.....	391,506
Ningsia.....	233,320
Chinghai.....	667,236
Suiyuan.....	329,397
Chahar.....	283,675
Jehol.....	179,982
Liaoning.....	68,303.43
Antung.....	62,279.23
Liaopei.....	121,624.17
Kirin.....	72,675.93
Sungkiang.....	84,559.31
Hokiang.....	135,406.27
Heilungkiang.....	257,762.75
Nunkiang.....	67,034.13
Hsingan.....	278,436.91
Sinkiang.....	1,711,931
<i>Municipalities under the Executive Yuan</i>	
Nanking.....	465.75
Shanghai.....	893.25
Peiping.....	707
Tsingtao.....	749
Tientsin.....	54.50
Chungking.....	300
Dairen.....	(Area undetermined)
Harbin.....	803.80
Hankow.....	133.71
Canton.....	253.25
Sian.....	207.66
Mukden.....	(Area undetermined)
<i>Territory</i>	
Tibet.....	1,215,780
TOTAL.....	9,814,247.05

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS (1947)

Name	Provincial Capital	Administrative District	Hsien (County)	Municipalities	Preparatory Hsien	Administrative Bureau	Mongol Banner
<i>Provinces</i>							
Kiangsu.....	Chinkiang	9	62	2	1
Chekiang.....	Hangchow	6	77	1
Anhwei.....	Hofei	10	63	1
Kiangsi.....	Nanchang	9	81	1
Hupei.....	Wuchang	8	70	1
Hunan.....	Changsha	8	77	2
Szechwan.....	Chengtu	16	139	2	3	1	..
Sikang.....	Kangting	2	48	..	4
Fukien.....	Foochow	7	67	2
Taiwan.....	Taipei	..	8	9
Kwangtung.....	Canton	9	99	2
Kwangsi.....	Kweilin	9	99	1
Yunnan.....	Kunming	13	112	1	16
Kweichow.....	Kweiyang	6	78	1	1
Hopei.....	Paoting	15	132	2	2
Shantung.....	Tsinan	16	108	3
Honan.....	Kaifeng	12	111
Shansi.....	Taiyuan	14	105	1
Shensi.....	Sian	11	92
Kansu.....	Lanchow	9	69	1	2
Ningsia.....	Yinchwan	..	13	1	3
Chinghai.....	Sining	1	19	1	1	..	29
Suiyuan.....	Kweisui	4	20	3	17
Chahar.....	Kalgan	4	19	1	19
Jehol.....	Chengteh	..	20	20
Liaoning.....	Mukden	..	22	4
Antung.....	Tunghwa	..	18	2
Liaopei.....	Liaoyuan	..	18	1	6
Kirin.....	Kirin	..	18	2	1
Sungkiang.....	Mutankiang	..	15	2
Hokiang.....	Kiamusze	..	17	1
Heilungkiang.....	Peian	..	25	1	1
Nunkiang.....	Tsitsihar	..	18	1	2
Hsingan.....	Hailar	..	7	1	11
Sinkiang.....	Tihwa	10	77	1	4	..	23
<i>Territory</i>							
Tibet.....	Lhasa
TOTAL.....		208	2,023	55	34	1	132

Source: Ministry of Interior.

the Nanling zone forming the natural divide between the central China block and the south China block. These ranges, together with the Tibetan Plateau, have forced all the rivers of China to flow in a general west-east direction. They also sharpen the climatic contrast and regional differences in other geographical features.

Of all the shear forms developed in China, the E type consisting of a group

of folds in the shape of a bow and arrow is the most important. All the E shear forms are developed at the east end of the east-west fold ranges.

The interference of the east-west fold zones with the Cathaysian geosynclines and geanticlines, and the existence of shear forms to the east of the fold zones, it was suggested by Dr. J. S. Lee, may go back to the late Paleozoic times, when the Asiatic mass sheared southward

against the Pacific floor, accompanied by a differential westward movement.

Among the most striking changes that have taken place in China during recent geological times are the regional uplifting in the mountainous southwest and subsidence in the lowland. The Tibetan plateau, which has already attained lofty heights, is probably still rising.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS

Within the boundaries of China are arrayed numerous physiographic features which include almost every known type of topographic expression. Among them, plains occupy 984,000 sq. km. or 10 percent of the national total area, basins total 1,554,000 sq. km. or 16 percent, hilly regions 882,000 sq. km. or 9 percent, plateaus 3,636,000 sq. km. or 34 percent, and mountains 3,118,000 sq. km. or 30 percent. The nation can be divided into 19 natural districts:

Tibetan Plateau.—A mass of folding mountains with an average height of 4,000-6,000 meters. In the north is the Kunlun range, in the south the Himalayas and in the east the Transverse mountains in Yunnan and Sikang.

The Zongor (Sungaria) and Tarim Basins.—The Tianshan range cuts Sinkiang into two basins, the Zongor on the north and the Tarim on the south.

The Mongolian Steppe.—The steppe connects the Sinkiang basins to the west, and is bordered by the Yinshan range on the south, the Khingan highland on the east and the Arctic on the north.

The Northeastern Plain.—South of the Kingan highland including the Sungari and Liao river valleys.

The Liaoning and Kirin Hills.—South-east of the Northeastern Plain and east of Harbin and Mukden.

The Shantung Peninsula.—South of Po Hai.

The North China Plain.—The area east of the Taihangshan range and north of the Hwaiyang mountains, the lower sections of the Yellow and Hwai rivers.

The Shansi Plateau.—West of the Taihangshan range and east of the Luliangshan range, including the Fen river basin.

The Shensi Basin.—West of the Luliangshan range and east of Kansu, including the Hotao (Yellow river bend) and the Wei river basin.

The Kansu Corridor.—West of the Liupanshan range, north of the Kilienshan range, south of the Ningsia desert and connects the Shensi basin on the east.

The Lower Yangtze.—The area between the Hwaiyang mountains and Hangchow bay.

The Southeastern Hills.—The coastal provinces of Chekiang and Fukien with the Wuyishan range as the northern extremity.

The Central Yangtze Basin.—Between the Tsinling and the Nanling ranges including Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsi and southern Anhwei.

The Szechwan Basin.—Bordered on the north by the Tapashan range and Tsinling range, the Sikang mountains on the west, Taliangshan range on the southwest and Talowshan range on the southeast.

The Kweichow Plateau.—South of the Szechwan basin, including all of Kweichow province.

The Southern Coastal Area.—South of the Nanling range including all of Kwangtung province.

The Kwangsi Tableland.—All of Kwangsi province.

The Southwestern Mountains.—In Yunnan province.

The Sikang Mountains.—In Sikang province.

COASTAL CONFIGURATION

The coastline of China consists of two parts, the continental coastline and the islandic coastline, with a total length of 20,700 km. The continental coastline, 11,100 km. long, extends from the mouth of the Yalu river in Antung to Tungting in southwestern Kwangtung, touching Antung, Liaoning, Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien, and Kwangtung. Of the total, 4,000 km. front the South China Sea, 3,000 km. the East China Sea, and 4,000 km. the Yellow Sea, including the 1,900 km. defining the Po Hai.

The islandic coastline totals 9,600 km. including the 1,476 km.-circumference of Taiwan and the Pescadores, and 1,200 km.-long shoreline of Hainan island.

Geologically, China's continental coastline is composed of two sections. The northern section which is north of the Hangchow bay is alluvial in nature, except the Liaotung and Shantung peninsulas; while the southern is mainly granitic. Along the two northern peninsulas and the southern coast are innumerable islands, harbors and inlets. Shoals fringe the northern coast and navigation depends on channels made by rivers.

A chain of volcanic islands—Kuriles, Japan, Liuchius, Taiwan, Philippines—separate the China seas from the western Pacific. The location and approximate area of the China seas are:

The South China Sea (north of latitude 4° N and south of the Taiwan strait): 2,000,000 sq. km.

The East China Sea (from the Taiwan strait to the estuary of the Yangtze river): 700,000 sq. km.

The Yellow Sea (north of the estuary of the Yangtze river and including the Po Hai, also known as Gulfs of Chihli and Liaotung): 640,000 sq. km.

The depth of the China seas varies from 20 m. in the Po Hai to 2,000 m. in the South China Sea. The average depth of the Po Hai, however, is 40 m. with the deepest part located near the southern part of the Liaotung peninsula measuring 50-200 m. The Yellow Sea has an average depth of 100 m. About two-thirds of the area of the East China Sea is 200 m. deep. In the South China Sea, only 600,000 sq. km. measures within 200 m., the rest ranging from 1,500 to 2,000 m. deep.

MOUNTAINS

China is a mountainous country. As estimated by Dr. Wong Wen-hao, regions 1,000 m. above sea level comprise more than 68% of the total area of China; hilly land between 500 and 1,000 m. in altitude, 18%; and flat land below 500

m., only 14%. Table 3, shown below, gives heights in meters of some of the better known mountain peaks in China.

RIVERS

Three large rivers drain the three natural divisions of China—the Yellow river in the north, the Yangtze river in the central, and the West (Pearl) river in the south.

THE YELLOW RIVER

The Yellow river (Huang Ho), is 4,672 km. long and drains 531,200 sq. km. of territory in Chinghai, Kansu, Ningsia, Suiyuan, Shansi, Shensi, Honan, Hopei and Shantung. Its source is the Khotun-Nor in the 5,000-meter Bayenkala mountains, part of the Kunlun range.

Below Chengchow in central Honan, the river changed its course seven times through Hopei, Shantung and Kiangsu provinces, between the 23rd century B.C. and the summer of 1937. The last prewar change of the channel was in 1854 when the river left its old course in northern Kiangsu and emptied into Po Hai through northern Shantung. In June, 1938, when a severe engagement was fought between the Chinese and Japanese armies in central Honan, the river dikes at Chungmou gave way under fire and its waters

TABLE 3—MOUNTAIN PEAKS

Name (shan = mountain)	Location	Peak Height (meters)
Kunlun.....	Sinkiang-Tibet-Chinghai	7,724
Minga Gongka.....	Sikang	7,500
Burokhoru.....	Tibet	7,200
Kailas.....	Tibet	7,073
Karakorum.....	Sinkiang-Tibet	6,500
Kilienshan.....	Kansu	5,928
Tienshan.....	Sinkiang	5,400
Tsinling.....	Shensi	4,000
Yushan.....	Taiwan	3,950
Tsekaoshan.....	Taiwan	3,931
Siukulanshan.....	Taiwan	3,797
Omeishan.....	Szechwan	3,200
Tannu Ola.....	Tannu Tuva	3,046
Wutaishan.....	Chansi	3,040
Tapashan.....	Szechwan	3,000
Changpaishan.....	Liaoning	2,741
Huangshan.....	Anhui	1,910
Taishan.....	Shantung	1,545
Tienmushan.....	Chekiang	1,520
Lushan.....	Kiangsi	1,480
Wutzeshan.....	Kwangtung	1,350
Hengshan.....	Hunan	1,340

followed the Chialu and Tasha rivers in eastern Honan and entered the Hwai river, afterwards emptying into the East

China Sea in northern Kiangsu.

Main tributaries of the Yellow river include:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)
Tao River.....	Kansu	231
Huang River.....	Chinghai-Kansu	230
Wuting River.....	Suiyuan-Shensi	230
Yen River.....	Shensi	230
Fen River.....	Shansi	692
Wei River.....	Shensi	864
Lo River.....	Honan	404
Sin River.....	Honan	288

THE YANGTZE RIVER

The Yangtze river forms the main artery of trade and communications in central China. The 5,530-km. river drains 1,726,400 sq. km. of territory in Chinghai, Sikang, Yunnan, Szechwan, Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Anhwei and Kiangsu.

The river springs from the Tagh-Ulan mountain, part of the Kunlun range, on the Chinghai-Tibet-Sinkiang border. At

Batang in Sikang, the river-bed is 3,000 m. above sea level. It drops steadily to 350 m. at Ipin. The river is only 90 m. in altitude at Ichang where the Yangtse gorges end. It is navigable for junks to the Szechwan - Sikang - Yunnan border and for steamers to Pingshan above Ipin.

The main tributaries of the Yangtze river are:

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)
Yulung River.....	Sikang	1,324
Min River.....	Szechwan	864
Tou River.....	Szechwan	346
Chialing River.....	Szechwan	1,000
Wu River.....	Szechwan-Kweichow	922
Li River.....	Hunan	404
Yuan River.....	Hunan	864
Tze River.....	Hunan	749
Siang River.....	Hunan	1,152
Han River.....	Shensi-Hupeh	1,210
Kan River.....	Kiangsi	864

THE WEST RIVER

The West river (Si Kiang), or Pearl river (Chu Kiang), is 1,958 km. long and drains 431,600 sq. km. in Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi and Kwangtung. It stems from Suanwei in northern Yunnan and empties into the South China Sea. It is known as the Hung (Red) river along the upper section.

The main part of the West river and its tributaries pass through a mountainous region, only the last 150 km. falling within the delta area. The river is navigable for steamers up to Wuchow, beyond which junks and steam launches reach Kweichow and interior Kwangsi as well as the upper reaches of the North and East rivers.

The main tributaries of the West river are:

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)
Peipang River.....	Kweichow-Kwangsi	350
Liu River.....	Kwangsi	520
Yu River.....	Kwangsi	750
Kwei River.....	Kwangsi	350
Ho River.....	Kwangtung	230
Pei (North) River.....	Kwangtung	350
Tung (East) River.....	Kwangtung	460

OTHER RIVERS

The Northeastern Group—The four northeastern provinces have four major rivers. They are:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)	Drainage (sq. km.)
Amur River.....	Heilungkiang	4,672 (3,744 in China)	903,000
Liao River.....	Jehol-Liaoning	1,440	176,000
Yalu River.....	Liaoning	806	39,800
Tumen River.....	Liaoning-Kirin	460	28,200

The Coastal Group—A number of shorter independent rivers are found in the coastal provinces, emptying into the Po Hai and the East China Sea. They include:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)	Drainage (sq. km.)
Lwan River.....	Chahar-Jehol-Hopei	804	49,800
Pai (or Hai) River.....	Shansi-Hopei	806	182,600
Hwai River.....	Honan-Anhwei-Kiangsu	1,000	200,000
Tsientang River.....	Anhwei-Chekiang	460	54,800
Min River.....	Fukien	576	73,000

The Southwestern Group—Most southwestern rivers begin in China but empty into the Pacific or the Indian Oceans through foreign countries. The principal ones are:—

Name	Location	Length in China (kilometers)	Drainage in China (sq. km.)
Red River.....	Yunnan-Indo-China	1,152	76,400
Salween River.....	Yunnan-Burma	2,016	86,300
Mekong River.....	Sikang-Yunnan-Indo-China	2,000	116,200
Tsangpo (Brahmaputra) River..	Tibet-Sikang-India	1,843	295,500

The Inland Group—Inland rivers are found in Sinkiang, Mongolia, Chinghai, Ning-sia, Tibet, Chahar and Suiyuan, the larger ones being in Sinkiang and Mongolia. Among them are:—

Name	Location	Length (kilometers)	Drainage (sq. km.)
Tarim River.....	Sinkiang	2,190	198,400
Selenga River.....	Mongolia	1,267*	325,400
Kobdo River.....	Mongolia	691	45,200
Ili River.....	Sinkiang	524*	76,400

* In China.

The Grand Canal—The Grand Canal is the oldest and longest canal in existence, extending from Peiping to Hangchow, covering a distance of 2,074 km., draining 159,400 sq. km. in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shantung and Hopei. It crosses the Yellow and Yangtze rivers.

LAKES

China has few structural lakes. Most large ones are found along the great rivers, serving as natural reservoirs. The locations and areas of the important lakes in China are given in the following table:—

TABLE 4—LEADING LAKES IN CHINA

Names of Lakes	Location	Surface Area (sq. km.)	Depth (meters)
Tungting.....	Hunan	3,750
Poyang.....	Kiangsi	2,780
Tai Hu.....	Kiangsu-Chekiang	3,600
Hungtseh.....	Kiangsu-Anhwei
Tien Chih.....	Yunnan	1,910
Erhhai.....	Yunnan	1,970
Kokonor.....	Chinghai	4,200	3,180
Lop Nor.....	Sinkiang	swamp	3,205
Tengri.....	Tibet	2,460	5,000
Tangra.....	Tibet	1,400	4,000
Zilling.....	Tibet	1,860	3,000
Kyaring.....	Chinghai	570	4,000
Ngoring.....	Chinghai	650	4,000

DESERTS AND STEPPES

In the outer provinces of China are vast regions of deserts and steppes. The regions receive scanty rainfall and for the most part lie bare and desolate. The Mongolia and Sinkiang deserts and steppes in the north consist of flat, featureless plains floored with rocks and covered with a thin veneer of sand and pebbles, known as Gobi. They are surrounded by high mountains which keep out the moist winds from the distant oceans.

The chief deserts are the Gobi, the Ordos and the Ningsia. Extending westward is the Takla Makan desert in

Sinkiang. The latter is the largest of all Chinese deserts.

On the margin of the deserts are the steppe lands largely in southern and eastern Mongolia and in the northwestern portions of the Tarim basin. There the rainfall is sufficient for a sparse growth of drought-resistant grasses, capable of supporting small herds of sheep and cattle. On the oases fed by mountain streams, agriculture is practised and permanent habitation found. Most cities and monasteries in Sinkiang are located in these oases.

Southeast of the Mongolia steppe land are the loess highlands of Kansu, Shensi and Shansi. They are formed by deposits

of aeolian dust and silt blown from the western deserts. Steppe conditions also prevail on the loess hills dissected by rivers into deep valleys where alone cultivation is fruitful.

On the southwest is the Tibetan plateau. Its barrenness and desolation are due to its rocky height and cold climate. Tibet is 4,000 to 6,000 meters above sea level. The mountain lap is devoted to drought pasturing while limited habitation and cultivation are seen only in and along the valleys.

CLIMATE

There are three major factors which control the climate of China—distribution of land and water, mountain barriers and altitude, and cyclonic storms. The proximity of the Pacific Ocean on the one hand and the Eurasian Continent on the other brought about the unique wind system of eastern Asia. In the winter, high pressure centers over Siberia create what is known as the Siberian anticyclone. In the summer, the high-pressure system shifts to the mid-Pacific. This results in monsoonal winds from land to ocean in the winter and from ocean to land in the summer. Such phenomena affects the Chinese climate in two ways. First, since the winds come from the arid interior in the winter and the damp tropical ocean in the summer, rainfall throughout China has pronounced periodicity, with a maximum in the summer and a minimum in the winter. Second, since the winter winds blow from the cold north and the summer winds from the warm south, the

seasonal temperature contrast is very pronounced.

In temperate zones the extra-tropical cyclonic storms are oftentimes the sole arbiter of weather changes, and this is true to a certain extent in China. During the period of 1921-30, there were 841 cyclones in China, averaging 84.1 a year. During 1947, a total of 58 cyclones were reported. Since summer cyclones carry more moisture, few of them yield an abundance of rainfall. The cyclones travel over China generally from west to east, but turn toward the northeast on reaching the coast. In the winter and the spring, cyclones are most numerous in the Yangtze valley whereas in July and August the number of storms in north China far exceeds that in central or south China.

Typhoons also play a prominent part in the climatology of China, especially from July to October. During 1947, 20 typhoons struck the Chinese coast. Of the total, 17 originated from the Philippines and three from the South China Sea.

China has a continental climate—extreme heat in the summer and extreme cold in the winter. The difference in temperature between the north and the south is much reduced in the summer but is greatly accentuated in the winter. The difference in temperature between western Heilungkiang and Hongkong, 2,100 miles apart, in January is 42° C., calculated at 2° C. for every 100 miles. In July, the difference is less than 10° C.

Taking the period with mean temperatures below 10° C. as winter and above 22° C. as summer, the distribution of four seasons in China can be seen from the following table:

TABLE 5—DISTRIBUTION OF FOUR SEASONS IN CHINA
(in months)

Regions	Winter	Spring	Autumn	Summer
South China.....	0-0	4.0-7.0	of Spring and Autumn	5.0-8.0
Yunnan Plateau.....	2.0-3.0	9.0-10.0	of Spring and Autumn	0-0
Upper Yangtze Valley.....	2.5-3.0	2.5-3.0	2.5-3.0	3.5-5.0
Central Yangtze.....	3.5	2.0-2.5	2.0-2.5	4.0-4.5
Lower Yangtze.....	3.5-4.5	2.0-2.5	2.0	3.5-4.0
North China.....	5.0-6.0	2.0-3.0	2.0	2.0-3.0
Northwest China.....	5.5-6.5	2.0-3.0	1.5-2.5	1.0-3.0
Sinkiang.....	5.0-6.0	2.0-3.0	2.0	2.0
Liaoning-Kirin.....	6.0-7.0	2.0-2.5	2.0	1.0-2.5
Heilungkiang.....	8.0	4.0	of Spring and Autumn	0-0

Sea-level atmospheric pressure in China is highest in December or January and

lowest in June or July. The mean annual range amounts to 12-18 mm. in south

China and the Yangtze estuary, and increases to 19-21 mm. in the central Yangtze valley and north China.

Winds in China are predominantly offshore in the winter and onshore in the summer, forming winter and summer monsoons. March, April and May, and September are transitional months. Cyclones passing over Mongolia, the Northeastern Provinces, north China, or the Yangtze valley may bring about winds from every point of the compass. The shifting of wind directions is limited to the lower strata of the atmosphere. Pilot balloon soundings in Peiping and Nanking have shown that above 3,000 meters westerly winds predominate.

Wind velocity is greatest during the months of March and April. The summer months are usually the calmest, except in the lower Yangtze valley, where the wind velocity in July is as great as that of March or April. Generally speaking, the wind velocity in China decreases from the coast inland, with places along the Fukien coast lying in the stormiest zone due to the tube effect of the winds in that territory.

As a result of monsoon winds, summer in China is usually damp, and autumn and winter dry. The mean annual relative humidity of the Northeastern Provinces and north China varies between 60-65 percent, and that of central and south China between 70-80 percent. Szechwan has a high humidity whereas Yunnan has a low humidity. In Sinkiang and Tibet, humidity is very low.

Regional variation of cloudiness in China follows closely the variation of humidity. The mean annual cloudiness decreases from seven in south China to four in north China. Sinkiang and the Northeastern Provinces have a mean cloudiness of 3.6. Omeishan in Szechwan has 8.1. In seasonal distribution, cloudiness varies greatly in different regions. In the Northeastern Provinces, north China, and west China, winter is the season of blue skies, whereas summer brings more clouds. In south China and the Yangtze valley, winter is the most gloomy period.

Both radiation and advection fogs are found in China, the former occurring over the mainland and the latter near the coast. Fogs are mostly met in winter on the mainland and spring fogs are most dominant in the Yangtze estuary. In Mongolia and Sinkiang fog is rare but the sky is covered with haze most of the time.

Frost occurs practically everywhere on the Chinese mainland. The regular yearly

visitation of frost does not begin until about latitude 28° N. along the coast. Inland the occurrence of frost depends greatly upon the altitude and topography.

If the growing season is assumed to be limited to the period between the mean date of the last frost in the spring and the mean date of the first frost in the autumn, then the season varies in length from 12 months in south China, eight to nine months in the Yangtze valley, seven in the Yellow river basin, six in Hopei and Shansi, five in the Northeastern Provinces, to four in Tibet and Chinghai.

The main characteristic of rainfall regimes over all of China consists of a maximum in summer and a minimum in winter. There are many irregularities due to cyclones, typhoons, and thunderstorms. Precipitation is either orographic or cyclonic; the latter may be due to continental depressions, typhoons, or heat thunderstorms. During the last 60 years of meteorological observation in Shanghai, the wettest summers were always the ones with the least southeasterly winds. Southerly monsoons are the moisture-bearing-winds in China but the moisture is only released by some mechanism—dynamical, thermal, or orographical—when they are lifted by a polar front, intense solar radiation, or a mountain slope.

Maximum rainfall occurs mostly in May in northern Kwantung, in June in the Yangtze valley, and in July in north China.

Precipitation due to continental depressions makes up more than 80 percent of the total in the spring and more than 50 percent in the summer. Typhoon rains decrease in profusion from south to north and from coast to inland. The proportion of thunderstorm rains is smaller than that of typhoon rains in the summer but greater in the spring. In eastern China, orographical rain assumes a place of paramount importance. Very often the same air mass which brings heat and drought to east China turns into drenching rain after climbing 2,000 or 3,000 m. upward.

Rainfall is plentiful south of the Yangtze valley (exceeding 1,000 mm.) and decreases rapidly towards the north and northwest. Besides, north China has an extreme variability in rainfall (more than 30 percent) from year to year.

Snowfall is not heavy in China as the winter months are dry. It rarely falls in the south but may occur from December to March in the Yangtze valley, November to April in north China, and October to April in the Northeastern Provinces.

TABLE 6.—MONTHLY AND ANNUAL TEMPERATURE MEANS IN CENTRIGRADE, 1947

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Liaoning													
Mukden.....	-14.4	-12.3	3.3	9.8	16.3	21.0	24.1	23.0	17.6	9.6	-3.6	-17.4	6.4
Kirin													
Kirin.....	-18.7	-16.0	-6.6	7.2	14.6	19.4	22.7	21.0	15.5	7.1	-7.4	-20.2	3.2
Changchun.....	..	-16.7	-6.7	7.7	15.0	20.1	22.3	20.7	15.7	7.4	-8.7	-21.5	..
Jehol													
Chengteh.....	-0.8	13.1	17.8	23.3	24.2	23.3	16.6	9.9	-2.4	-10.6	..
Hopei													
Peiping.....	-6.4	-4.0	2.3	15.1	20.1	24.0	26.0	24.9	18.5	11.6	0.9	-6.0	10.6
Tientsin.....	-4.4	-4.1	2.3	15.2	21.0	24.1	27.1	26.3	20.1	13.2	2.7	-5.2	11.5
Tangku.....	-4.3	-4.7	1.2	12.9	19.3	22.4	26.4	25.8	20.1	13.2	2.8	-5.2	10.8
Paoting.....	-5.7	-3.9	3.2	16.1	21.3	25.0	27.5	25.8	19.3	13.1	1.9	-5.9	11.5
Shantung													
Tsinan.....	-1.2	-0.5	-1.4	18.1	22.7	26.5	27.7	26.1	20.9	14.2	5.9	-0.1	13.2
Tsingtao.....	-1.2	2.4	3.1	11.0	15.3	19.5	23.2	24.9	20.5	14.2	6.9	-0.3	11.8
Chahar													
Kalgan.....	11.9	16.8	21.3	24.4	21.6	14.7	7.9	-3.7	-11.0	..
Shensi													
Yulin.....	-7.3	-5.3	1.7	12.9	18.9	22.3	26.0	21.5	14.5	7.9	1.1	-7.4	8.9
Hwshan.....	-6.0	-5.2	2.3	7.6	12.8	15.5	18.7	15.6	10.8	3.7	1.3	-5.9	5.9
Kansu													
Lanchow.....	-4.9	-1.8	6.4	13.4	19.3	21.3	23.5	21.4	15.9	9.0	3.0	-4.4	10.2
Wutu.....	5.2	6.5	13.9	18.3	22.5	24.2	25.9	23.9	21.6	14.5	11.6	4.6	16.1
Tunhwang.....	-6.7	-2.0	6.0	13.4	20.6	23.7	25.5	23.6	19.4	10.1	5.4	-6.9	11.0
Ansi.....	-7.7	-3.7	5.4	17.8	20.3	23.9	25.7	22.9	18.5	10.5	3.0	-9.0	10.6
Pingliang.....	-3.4	-0.9	5.4	12.1	17.3	19.9	23.2	19.1	14.7	8.2	5.3	-2.3	10.0
Ningsia													
Chungning.....	-5.5	-3.8	3.8	13.1	19.3	22.3	24.9	22.4	17.5	9.1	3.6	-5.4	..
Chungwei.....	-1.4	0.8	23.7	..	11.2	4.9	-3.8	..

TABLE 6.—Continued

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Chinghai	-6.3	-3.2	4.1	9.5	13.9	16.0	18.5	17.0	13.5	6.9	2.5	-5.1	7.3
Sining	-9.5	-5.8	-0.9	4.8	10.9	13.7	16.1	15.8	13.1	4.9	..	8.2	..
Tulan													
Szechwan													
Chungking	9.1	9.7	14.9	18.8	23.3	24.7	28.0	29.2	26.3	16.4	15.6	9.2	18.8
Neikiang	8.3	9.2	15.1	18.0	23.6	23.7	27.0	27.4	25.1	16.2	15.6	7.2	17.2
Chengtu	6.8	7.5	14.1	17.8	23.7	23.7	25.8	25.7	24.2	15.7	13.9	8.5	17.7
Loshan	8.0	8.7	15.3	18.1	23.6	23.6	25.6	25.9	23.7	15.8	15.5		
Sikang													
Kangting	-0.2	-0.5	5.0	7.9	12.8	14.0	16.6	16.7	15.3	7.0	5.0	-0.6	8.3
Yaan	7.1	7.5	14.0	17.2	22.8	23.0	25.0	25.0	23.0	15.5	14.3	7.6	16.8
Sichang	12.9	13.1	15.2	16.2	21.9	20.5	23.2	23.1	21.8	15.4	12.7	10.7	17.2
Yunnan													
Kunming	8.4	12.2	13.4	17.4	20.9	20.0	20.6	21.5	18.8	14.9	12.0		
Tali	9.9	11.5	14.2	16.4	19.7	20.2	20.6	19.8	19.0	15.7	11.3	11.9	15.8
Yuki	12.4	13.1	16.8	18.6	23.5	23.0	23.1	23.4	21.4	18.3	14.8	12.6	18.4
Kweichow													
Kweiyang	7.1	5.9	12.7	15.5	21.6	22.0	24.7	24.6	21.9	13.9	12.8	6.7	15.8
Tuhshan	7.0	5.7	11.2	15.5	21.1	21.6	23.7	24.2	22.0	14.6	13.5	6.9	15.6
Tsunyi	5.8	5.3	12.1	14.9	20.6	21.8	24.9	24.5	21.7	13.5	..	6.4	..
Hupeh													
Wuchang	4.2	5.0	11.7	17.8	22.1	25.4	28.9	28.9	24.5	16.8	11.9	4.2	16.8
Hunan													
Changsha	4.6	5.6	12.0	17.8	22.3	25.6	29.7	29.7	25.2	16.9	12.5	5.1	17.2
Chihkiang	5.6	5.8	12.1	17.3	22.0	25.4	29.2	28.5	24.5	15.8	12.8	6.6	17.1
Changteh	4.1	5.7	12.0	17.8	21.7	25.6	28.6	29.0	24.1	16.6	12.5	4.9	16.9
Chaling	6.2	6.1	13.1	17.9	23.1	24.7	28.7	28.4	25.1	17.8	15.0	7.1	17.8
Kiangsi													
Nanchang	6.2	5.7	12.5	18.4	23.6	25.9	30.8	30.3	26.8	18.4	15.1	7.0	18.4

TABLE 6.—Continued

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Kwangtung													
Canton.....	18.0	12.3	17.7	20.0	25.8	27.1	27.8	28.2	27.6	23.3	20.6	15.4	21.9
Kukong.....	11.5	9.1	15.8	19.4	25.6	26.2	28.7	28.8	27.4	21.1	18.4	11.8	20.3
Kwangsi													
Kweilin.....	9.1	8.1	14.1	18.7	25.1	25.7	27.8	28.5	26.1	19.9	17.2	10.3	19.2
Kweiping.....	14.4	12.6	17.6	20.8	26.5	27.1	28.1	28.1	27.1	23.0	20.3	14.3	21.8
Nanning.....	14.2	12.3	17.4	20.8	27.0	27.2	27.7	28.2	26.6	22.3	19.8	13.6	21.4
Sankiang.....	8.4	7.6	13.5	18.0	24.4	25.6	27.4	27.4	28.3	18.0	14.9	8.8	18.5
Fukien													
Mintsing.....	12.7	9.4	14.4	18.1	24.0	24.8	29.6	29.3	27.4	20.8	17.3	12.3	20.0
Pucheng.....	8.8	5.3	12.1	16.8	23.2	24.9	29.2	27.8	25.8	17.9	13.9	7.4	17.8
Nanping.....	10.9	7.5	13.7	17.3	23.7	24.3	28.7	27.5	26.0	19.0	15.9	10.3	18.7
Kienyang.....	9.9	6.3	12.2	16.9	23.2	24.3	28.2	27.3	25.5	18.3	14.1	7.8	17.8
Taiwan													
Taipei.....	16.6	14.1	17.1	23.4	24.1	25.3	27.8	28.6	27.4	22.2	17.1	20.5	22.0
Taichung.....	17.3	14.6	17.9	21.7	25.6	26.1	27.8	28.1	27.7	23.0	21.5	17.8	22.4
Tainan.....	14.4	16.3	19.0	23.1	26.6	26.9	27.8	28.0	28.0	24.4	21.4	18.7	12.9
Kiangsu													
Nanking.....	3.1	2.9	10.0	16.7	19.8	23.9	28.4	28.7	24.8	16.4	12.7	4.0	15.9
Shanghai.....	5.3	3.0	9.4	15.2	18.2	22.3	28.8	29.2	25.5	17.4	13.8	6.4	16.2
Chinkiang.....	3.3	2.7	9.2	16.4	18.7	23.3	27.7	28.1	24.5	16.4	12.2	4.2	15.5
Soochow.....	4.5	2.9	9.7	15.6	18.9	23.2	28.9	28.9	25.2	16.4	12.7	5.4	16.0
Chekiang													
Hangchow.....	4.9	3.9	11.1	16.4	20.3	23.9	30.0	29.2	25.2	16.4	13.0	5.5	16.6
Yutsien.....	4.5	2.9	10.0	15.2	20.1	23.7	28.8	28.2	24.2	15.4	11.7	4.7	15.8
Anhui													
Anking.....	4.3	4.1	10.6	16.8	21.4	25.0	29.4	28.9	25.0	16.7	12.4	4.8	16.6
Hofei.....	5.2	5.4	11.2	17.5	21.1	24.8	29.2	29.1	24.1	16.4	12.3	5.5	16.7

Source: Central Weather Bureau

TABLE 7.—Continued

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Chinghai													
Sining.....	1.6	0.0	3.1	38.4	43.5	39.3	59.4	80.7	41.3	29.9	1.5	3.1	341.8
Tulan.....	6.9	T	T	23.2	42.7	19.0	36.1	23.3	4.0	0.2	..	0.2	..
Szechwan													
Chungking.....	13.7	4.0	67.8	117.8	242.2	216.5	247.4	84.3	102.8	104.8	55.2	14.4	1270.9
Neikiang.....	10.0	8.7	33.7	120.5	166.4	212.1	162.7	151.8	76.5	62.1	18.4	14.6	1037.5
Chengtu.....	3.0	25.1	16.0	27.9	81.5	124.0	488.5	443.7	102.1	53.8	24.6	13.3	1403.5
Loshan.....	8.1	37.7	66.8	41.6	137.9	157.8	398.6	507.7	189.6	143.7	46.3	34.8	1770.6
Sikang													
Kangting.....	3.1	3.5	61.6	72.4	98.8	131.5	144.2	136.8	93.2	39.1	10.1	5.4	799.7
Yaan.....	14.1	25.1	67.9	64.9	112.5	207.2	592.5	745.2	458.0	102.4	76.8	43.7	2510.3
Sichang.....	0.0	5.4	32.4	58.3	70.0	170.6	317.5	100.6	106.4	110.9	17.3	0.3	989.7
Yunnan													
Kunming.....	3.0	8.3	47.3	28.4	67.7	133.5	250.3	113.3	129.2	72.6	4.2	15.7	1283.5
Tali.....	5.6	16.1	28.6	7.3	71.1	287.6	317.0	160.1	204.1	170.3	T	13.6	908.8
Yuki.....	2.8	0.3	23.6	98.1	84.4	222.6	204.8	60.9	157.9	36.1	3.7
Kweichow													
Kweiyang.....	8.1	21.3	49.5	143.6	187.0	157.4	245.8	201.5	194.6	75.1	17.7	18.3	1319.9
Tuhsan.....	24.9	28.0	112.7	213.9	402.0	251.3	111.3	101.9	187.1	81.6	14.3	22.4	1551.4
Tsunyi.....	7.8	11.1	17.9	79.0	133.0	71.1	284.2	133.2	98.1	54.9	..	11.0	..
Hupeh													
Wuchang.....	59.0	11.9	107.4	60.3	216.4	133.2	229.2	180.7	35.9	28.1	32.8	22.6	1117.5
Hunan													
Changsha.....	76.1	58.9	101.7	110.2	252.1	139.1	60.9	127.6	52.2	27.0	25.2	61.6	1088.6
Chihkiang.....	31.6	52.7	98.7	126.6	187.8	110.1	21.1	140.3	69.9	41.7	25.1	24.6	930.2
Changteh.....	50.3	36.3	65.9	85.4	123.7	211.1	98.6	103.6	99.7	37.2	26.1	30.4	968.3
Chaling.....	92.0	69.0	104.7	147.7	157.7	311.3	67.3	63.2	94.0	22.0	6.8	17.3	1153.0
Kiangsi													
Nanchang.....	163.1	106.1	173.0	154.3	144.1	275.9	120.9	29.5	24.7	34.3	25.5	57.4	1308.8

TABLE 7.—Continued

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Average
Kwantung													
Canton.....	147.2	30.7	88.9	210.3	259.2	480.0	223.6	259.1	99.7	28.9	26.4	9.7	1863.7
Kukong.....	158.2	74.6	99.7	231.4	359.0	499.9	83.4	192.0	102.0	25.2	13.1	25.8	1864.3
Kwangsi													
Kweilin.....	105.3	60.6	131.2	265.4	304.3	351.8	233.1	140.3	306.7	31.1	16.7	11.4	1957.9
Kweiping.....	178.3	76.4	113.3	207.2	265.6	714.6	264.1	227.3	154.0	7.8	9.7	31.0	2249.3
Nanning.....	166.2	47.0	63.8	164.9	120.2	537.0	325.6	180.3	221.0	13.5	6.6	36.7	1882.8
Sankiang.....	22.4	61.4	100.7	136.6	283.0	314.1	260.4	313.7	263.9	56.2	7.5	11.0	1830.9
Fukien													
Mintsing.....	101.6	93.2	125.5	275.8	343.5	532.5	83.3	149.8	200.4	48.5	39.0	38.9	2032.0
Pucheng.....	167.9	193.6	136.4	244.4	386.2	608.4	189.2	222.8	101.3	119.0	32.3	62.8	2464.3
Nanping.....	138.3	126.2	124.6	316.2	444.7	458.2	45.5	162.3	188.4	35.8	13.3	25.3	2078.8
Kienyang.....	112.6	98.1	100.6	179.6	278.4	312.9	75.8	118.7	168.5	57.1	14.8	40.1	1557.2
Taiwan													
Taipei.....	109.8	133.3	163.8	311.8	268.4	711.6	353.6	182.8	202.6	420.3	187.8	127.5	3173.3
Taichung.....	41.8	60.3	139.0	161.1	419.8	1245.4	287.8	33.7	62.2	25.4	18.0	37.7	2532.2
Tainan.....	37.0	3.3	38.4	47.4	510.0	491.4	562.1	283.0	85.9	57.5	61.6	111.1	2288.7
Kiangsu													
Nanking.....	124.1	8.9	34.2	11.7	108.8	96.8	194.0	53.9	16.3	18.8	26.6	56.5	750.6
Shanghai.....	78.9	22.1	42.6	11.3	125.1	142.6	266.2	102.7	86.1	87.1	74.2	98.3	1137.2
Chinkiang.....	92.4	12.8	28.3	5.9	91.9	105.2	269.6	52.0	21.3	20.1	17.7	54.9	772.1
Soochow.....	117.1	29.2	41.5	19.6	141.4	170.4	188.3	70.6	27.5	49.0	7.9	82.8	945.6
Chekiang													
Hangchow.....	138.8	48.2	55.6	55.2	238.9	211.1	154.1	90.2	51.6	111.2	9.8	95.8	1260.5
Yutsien.....	126.7	40.5	54.5	65.7	277.7	254.5	184.9	165.3	59.0	51.0	2.8	76.3	1358.9
Anhui													
Anking.....	87.7	11.9	133.4	108.8	273.9	72.6	221.7	100.0	46.4	62.7	28.9	39.5	1187.5
Hofei.....	93.9	4.9	65.1	32.4	104.3	140.2	153.3	154.8	42.4	18.7	32.9	31.9	874.5

Source: Central Weather Bureau

Remark: "T" stands for "Trace," indicating precipitation less than 1 mm.

POPULATION

STATISTICAL BACKGROUND

Reliable population figures were unobtainable in ancient China. Historical

records show that the first census of China was taken in 1742 during the reign of Emperor Chieng-lung. The total population at that time was roughly estimated at 143,411,559. By 1761, an-

TABLE 8—CHINA'S POPULATION, JUNE, 1948

Administrative District	No. of Households	Population	Male	Female
Kiangsu.....	7,585,646	36,080,123	18,601,481	17,478,642
Chekiang.....	4,622,857	19,958,715	10,541,213	9,417,502
Anhwei.....	3,595,732	22,462,217	11,869,001	10,593,216
Kiangsi.....	2,517,095	12,506,912	6,490,636	6,016,276
Hupei.....	3,751,924	20,975,559	10,946,783	10,028,776
Hunan.....	4,621,038	25,557,926	13,476,892	12,081,034
Szechwan.....	8,413,380	47,437,387	24,266,746	23,170,641
Sikang.....	328,470	1,696,600	851,144	845,456
Hopei.....	5,160,858	28,719,057	15,438,888	13,280,169
Shantung.....	7,340,166	38,865,254	19,334,890	19,530,364
Shansi.....	3,032,232	15,247,059	8,348,598	6,898,461
Honan.....	5,238,350	29,654,095	15,097,753	14,556,342
Shensi.....	2,094,660	10,011,201	5,245,452	4,765,749
Kansu.....	1,278,270	7,090,517	3,696,201	3,394,316
Chinghai.....	200,539	1,307,719	658,815	648,904
Fukien.....	2,447,970	11,143,083	5,771,334	5,371,749
Taiwan.....	1,090,436	6,384,019	3,211,822	3,172,197
Kwangtung.....	5,551,401	27,209,968	14,409,238	12,800,730
Kwangsi.....	2,820,388	14,636,337	7,636,084	7,000,253
Yunnan.....	1,715,333	9,065,921	4,552,461	4,513,460
Kweichow.....	1,838,780	10,173,750	5,100,983	5,072,767
Liaoning.....	1,675,832	10,007,204	5,143,519	4,863,685
Antung.....	546,308	2,992,305	1,650,083	1,342,222
Liaopei.....	830,962	4,627,841	2,424,180	2,203,661
Kirin.....	1,189,683	6,465,449	3,473,239	2,992,210
Sungkiang.....	456,316	2,570,806	1,506,060	1,064,746
Hokiang.....	332,874	1,841,000	959,500	881,500
Heilungkiang.....	301,550	2,844,211	1,605,977	1,238,234
Nunkiang.....	499,082	3,333,409	1,839,547	1,493,862
Hsingan.....	65,509	327,563	184,026	143,537
Jehol.....	1,067,182	6,196,974	3,287,177	2,909,797
Chahar.....	461,680	2,185,774	1,199,999	985,775
Suiyuan.....	395,586	2,233,226	1,243,767	989,459
Ningsia.....	125,789	759,002	414,331	344,671
Sinkiang.....	978,951	4,047,452	2,152,597	1,894,855
Tibet*.....	1,000,000	650,000	350,000
Nanking.....	215,564	1,113,972	636,595	477,377
Shanghai.....	899,955	4,630,385	2,561,236	2,069,149
Peiping.....	347,879	1,721,546	958,638	762,908
Tientsin.....	353,950	1,772,840	1,013,359	759,481
Tsingtao.....	148,307	850,508	466,138	384,370
Chungking.....	220,399	985,673	558,002	427,671
Canton.....	202,984	1,128,065	607,932	520,133
Hankow.....	136,697	721,598	399,617	321,981
Sian.....	122,297	628,449	384,624	243,825
Mukden.....	216,007	1,021,057	566,682	454,375
Dairen*.....	93,419	543,690	358,736	184,954
Harbin*.....	153,226	760,000	481,917	278,083
TOTAL.....	87,283,513	463,493,418	242,273,893	221,219,525

SOURCE: Ministry of Interior

other census was taken, placing the total at 200-million. Later in 1790, another attempt was made which fixed the total of China's population at 300-million. In 1835, however, the figure was raised to 400-million.

In 1912, after the founding of the Republic of China, a census was taken of the entire nation, excepting three provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Anhwei where a census was taken in 1908. The count was placed at 357,430,879 which, plus the population figures of the three provinces obtained from the 1908 census, made the national total of 404,736,191. In 1928, following the establishment of the National Government in Nanking, the Ministry of Interior conducted an all-China census, which was completed two years later. The maximum was then established at 474,787,386. The last prewar census was taken in 1936 when preparations for the convocation of the National Assembly called for complete statistics of China's population. The total was placed at that time at 461,363,646.

After V-J Day, the government felt the urgent need of again ascertaining the number of people as a basis for reconstruction plans. The Ministry of Interior asked various cities and provinces to file population figures every six months on the basis of house-to-house registration by different local administrative units of *hsiang*, *pao* and *chai*. For those localities where census figures were unobtainable, the former statistics were adopted. For the first half of 1947, the total set by the Ministry was 461,006,285 and for the second half, 462,798,093, indicating an increase of 1,791,808. The following shows the population of various administrative districts in June, 1948.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

China has one-fifth of the world's population. But because of the vastness of her territory, the density of her population is low. According to statistics compiled by the Ministry of Interior for the first half of 1947, the density is 47.35 persons per sq. km.

As in many other countries, the geographical distribution of her people is determined by the topographical features of the land, the climate, and the nature of the soil. Generally speaking, her most densely populated areas, where agriculture is highly developed, lie below 1,500 feet above sea level. Such areas include the north China plain, the Yangtze and

Hwai rivers plain, the Two Lakes basin, the Pearl river estuary, and the Sungari and Liao rivers plain.

Next in population density are the tableland regions, ranging in altitude from 1,500 to 3,000 feet above sea level, where the cultivation of agricultural products is easy. Included in this group are the Kweisui plain, the Yellow river bend plain, the Ningsia plain, the corroded highlands on the southeastern coast and in the northwest, and the mountainous areas in both Yunnan and Kweichow provinces.

Third come those highlands which are from 3,000 to 6,000 feet above sea level, such as the Mongolian plateau, the Ordos plateau, the Sinkiang plateau, where the soil is not fertile and rainfall is scarce. Such regions are more suitable for raising animals than agricultural cultivation.

The most thinly populated places in China are the mountainous terrains above 6,000 feet above sea level. They are found in Sikang, Tibet, and many parts of Chinghai where the topography is rough and the cold is severe. These regions are too remote for migration and cannot support a big population. Such areas must first be developed to a certain extent before any increase of population is possible.

The table on page 19 shows the density of population in various administrative districts in China.

I. DISTRIBUTION BY SEX

Males preponderate in the sex ratio of the Chinese population. The traditional premium in China on male offsprings as a source of manpower in a land of agricultural economy tends to offer a partial explanation of this phenomenon, as in case of national calamities the males have more chances to survive than the females. In addition, physical superiority is another explanation for such a preponderance. Usually, the ratio can be greatly upset by the incidences of war, famine, and migration.

The sex ratio of the Chinese population in the first half of 1947 was 110.10 percent to every 100 females, and 109.52 percent in the second half of the same year. The sex ratios of the population of Shanghai, Nanking, Peiping, Hankow and Canton in the first half of 1947 were, respectively, 127.83%, 142.29%, 136.67%, 113.01% and 110.88% to every 100 females, and in the second half of 1947 were, respectively, 126.49%, 136.14%, 132.04%, 113.01% and 109.35%.

TABLE 9.—POPULATION DENSITY

Administrative District	Population per sq. km.
Kiangsu.....	332.84
Chekiang.....	194.28
Anhwei.....	154.28
Kiangsi.....	73.55
Hupei.....	112.95
Hunan.....	127.81
Szechwan.....	155.31
Sikang.....	3.66
Hopei.....	202.41
Shantung.....	263.55
Shansi.....	96.06
Honan.....	172.42
Shensi.....	50.57
Kansu.....	17.62
Chinghai.....	2.02
Fukien.....	94.09
Taiwan.....	170.54
Kwangtung.....	127.34
Kwangsi.....	66.70
Yunnan.....	21.81
Kweichow.....	61.48
Liaoning.....	148.89
Antung.....	49.89
Liaopei.....	30.80
Kirin.....	78.98
Sungkiang.....	56.13
Hokiang.....	15.66
Heilungkiang.....	12.93
Nunkiang.....	35.95
Hsingan.....	1.27
Jehol.....	33.94
Chahar.....	7.44
Suiyuan.....	6.57
Ningsia.....	3.31
Sinkiang.....	2.34
Tibet.....	0.82
Nanking.....	1,331.95
Shanghai.....	4,314.03
Peiping.....	2,266.37
Tientsin.....	9,064.07
Tsingtao.....	1,005.07
Chungking.....	3,344.82
Hankow.....	5,608.79
Canton.....	5,040.19
Sian.....	2,519.42
Mukden.....	5,133.71
Dairen.....	3,654.81
Harbin.....	817.64
TOTAL.....	47.35

Source: Ministry of Interior.

In the interior provinces of Shansi, Honan and Kansu the sex ratios for the first half of 1947 were, respectively, 120.80%, 105.72% and 107.88% to every 100 females, while in the second half of

1947 the ratios were, respectively, 120.63%, 103.84% and 108.61%.

The ratio of Shantung's population for first and second half of 1947 were 98.58% and 98.70%, respectively, for every 100 females.

2. DISTRIBUTION BY AGE

Distribution of population by age is determined by the fluctuations of birth-rate and death-rate. When the birth-rate and the death-rate are both high, the young comprise a higher percentage of the population than the old. On the other hand, if the birth-rate and death-rate are both low, the old comprise a higher percentage.

Both immigration and emigration affect the distribution by age. If there are more emigrants, a decrease of middle-aged people in the population will follow. By the same principle, an increase in the number of immigrants means an increase of the middle-aged population. Since China is an agricultural country, and her rural inhabitants constitute 72 percent of her total population, the fluctuation of migration does not affect her distribution of population by age to any noticeable extent. However, both China's birth-rate and death-rate are high. For that reason, the young comprise a higher percentage of the population than the old.

But the age figures in Chinese population statistics are often inaccurate. The most common difficulty results from the method of calculating birthdays. According to the obsolete Lunar system of age calculation, a child is one year old on the day of its birth. It is two years old on its first New Year's day, even if it has been born only the day before. Since the adoption of the Solar calendar, most people began to deduct one year from their age.

3. REGISTRATION OF MARRIAGES

The percentage of married people in China's population is higher than in most western countries. There are several reasons for this. First, marriageable age groups in China occupy a high percentage of the population total. Second, the patriarchal family system still observed in the country stresses the importance of marriage and the rearing of offspring. In the eyes of old-fashioned people, the working power of a family is strengthened by the marriage of male members, as Chinese women are virtually head administrators of their families. Third, in the rural areas, women are economically dependent on men. It is therefore seldom that they remain unmarried. Fourth, due to

ethical teaching and traditional practices, divorces are infrequent in China.

In the metropolitan city of Shanghai, which had a population of 3,766,111 according to the December, 1947 census, 1,826,939 out of 2,699,665 persons who were over 15 years of age were married. Altogether 651,221 remained single, 220,034 were widowed, and 1,474 were divorced. In the interior province of Shansi, which had a population of 15,025,259 in the same period, 8,101,747 out of 10,334,811 persons above 15 years of age were married, while 2,102,091 were single, 130,317 widowed, and 656 divorced.

4. EDUCATIONAL STANDARD

There was no accurate estimate of China's illiteracy in the past. A recent survey made by the Ministry of Interior in the larger cities placed it at more than 30 percent.

In Shanghai, 1,614,533 out of a total population of 3,766,111 (Dec., 1947) were illiterate, and those who had received education from private tutors, primary, secondary or higher educational institutions totalled 1,661,715. In Peiping, 646,152 out of a population of 1,682,206 were illiterate, while 890,635 had received varying degrees of education. In Nanking, 324,104 out of 1,103,538 persons were illiterate, while 644,161 were literate. Of Hankow's 749,952 population, 247,751 were illiterate and 412,974 were literate.

In the interior province of Shansi, 9,531,440 out of a total population of 15,025,259 were illiterate, while 3,533,432 were literate. In Hupeh, 13,103,190 out of 20,580,608 were illiterate, while 3,533,432 were literate.

5. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

In a 1947 study of the vocations pursued by people over 12 years of age in 12 typical provinces and cities, the Ministry of Interior found that while in the provinces the majority worked on farms, in the cities more people were engaged in commercial and industrial enterprises than in agricultural undertakings.

In Hupeh province (population: 20,580,608, Dec., 1947), 8,779,653 out of 15,246,532 persons over 12 years of age worked on farms, while 1,192,584 persons engaged in industries; 918,951 in commerce; 128,992 in communications enterprises; 1,495,594 in social service; 13,306 in mining; 707,413 in other professions, and 2,010,039 were unemployed.

In Shanghai (population: 3,766,111, Dec., 1947), out of a total of 2,925,247 persons over 12 years of age, only 121,017 were engaged in agricultural enterprises

as against 578,160 in commerce; 546,730 in industries; 176,217 in communications and transportation undertakings; 61,024 in civil service; 151,350 in social service, and 132,424 in other professions. The unemployed numbered 1,158,325.

6. VITAL STATISTICS

Despite the lack of complete vital statistics of the Chinese population in the past, efforts made by health authorities in various provinces and cities in recent years in gathering such data have brought substantial results. The vital statistics of 22 districts for the second quarter of 1947 are shown on page 21.

OVERSEAS CHINESE

Chinese migration into the South Seas began some 2,000 years ago when Chin Shih Huang Ti made present Indo-China a part of the Chinese Empire. Chinese emigrants went in large numbers to the South Sea countries after the Sung dynasty. The Ching dynasty banned migration to overseas countries. Nevertheless, groups, mostly from Kwangtung and Fukien, moved surreptitiously to foreign countries. Though they have contributed unflinchingly to economic developments in their places of residence, they were subject to wholesale massacre and exploitation in a number of countries and colonies.

Overseas Chinese have maintained contact with their mother country. Dr. Sun Yat-sen, in recognition of the important part they played in the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty, called them the "Mother of the Revolution." During the war with Japan, those residing abroad shared in the nation's struggle against aggression. The Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission of the Executive Yuan was set up for the promotion of their welfare.

According to a report prepared by the commission on June 2, 1948, there were 9,450,143 Chinese residing in various foreign countries as shown in Table 11 on pages 22 and 23.

POSTWAR RELIEF

As a part of its postwar relief and rehabilitation program, the government repatriated 31,012 Chinese by the end of March, 1948. About 18,000 others were benefited by the plan. In addition, 118,424 overseas Chinese registered during 1947 with the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission for repatriation to their homes in different countries at their own expense. Overseas Chinese mechanics from the South Seas who rendered invaluable serv-

**TABLE 10.—BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN 22 DISTRICTS
SECOND QUARTER, 1947**

District	Population	Births	Deaths
Taiwan.....	6,384,091	56,806	29,664
Nanking.....	1,084,995	2,163	2,402
Shanghai.....	4,300,630	22,954	8,083
Peiping.....	1,603,324	5,530	4,938
Tsingtao.....	787,722	2,568	1,732
Chungking.....	1,000,101	1,258	1,035
Mukden.....	1,120,918	1,215	885
Sian.....	590,685	932	470
Hankow.....	437,522	1,103	938
Nanchang.....	258,692	733	377
Kanting.....	25,934	122	79
Tsinan.....	574,781	1,684	1,039
Taiyuan.....	304,550	1,354	702
Lanchow.....	203,722	258	251
Foochow.....	328,434	138	93
Amoy.....	138,032	47	61
Kunming.....	293,961	335	181
Anshan.....	165,988	301	246
Yinkow.....	158,587	159	219
Chinchow.....	148,006	184	163
Paotow.....	62,727	250	229
Kweisui.....	101,306	585	444

Source: Ministry of Interior

ice in wartime transportation received an award of US\$200 each from the government. Up to the end of March, 1948, 1,491 such mechanics had been sent back.

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

By the end of 1947, the overseas Chinese had 3,462 schools for the education of their children, including 2 institutions of higher learning, 156 middle schools, 8 normal schools, 7 vocational schools, 2,696 primary schools, 94 night schools, and 499 other schools. In addition, there were more than 300 cultural organizations engaged in the publication of magazines and newspapers.

To relieve the shortage of teachers in their schools, the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission maintained a program for the encouragement of teachers serving abroad. By the end of 1947, a total of 372 teachers had accepted government offers to teach abroad. The commission also set up a correspondence school for overseas students, who numbered 1,004 in the first term of 1947, and 993 in the second.

As many overseas Chinese send their children back to China to finish their education, the commission works as a

guiding agency and arranges for admission of such youths to different schools. The scholarships jointly offered to these students by the Ministry of Education and the commission have encouraged many to study in their mother country.

News on China has been broadcast regularly to overseas Chinese in both the national spoken language and in the Cantonese and Amoy dialects. Three magazines dealing with overseas affairs and their problems also serve as links with the Chinese living outside the country.

ECONOMIC ADVANCEMENT

Overseas Chinese financial enterprises suffered a great setback during World War II. For their recovery, the government, besides encouraging investments in China by those abroad, has loaned them US\$50-million at a low interest rate. Many Chinese residing in the Philippine Islands, British Malaya, Dutch East Indies, Burma, Siam, and Indo-China, have been enabled to start their businesses again through these loans.

Remittances from overseas Chinese play an important part in making up for China's foreign exchange deficiency. The

fluctuations in the amount of overseas remittances received in China are generally determined by political and economic situations in China and abroad.

Between 1938 and June, 1947, the fol-

lowing remittances were received: £12,-264,526.00 from London; HK\$5,259,740.72 from Hongkong; 56,711,029.57 Malayan dollars from British Malaya; 7,078,548.72 Burmese rupees from Burma; 7,836,881.27

**TABLE 11.—DISTRIBUTION OF OVERSEAS CHINESE
(UP TO JUNE, 1948)**

Locality	No. of Overseas Chinese	Year
Asia		
Indo-China.....	538,531	1940
Burma.....	193,594	1937
Siam.....	3,000,000	1948
British Malaya.....	2,608,975	1947
Sarawak.....	86,000	1936
British North Borneo.....	68,034	1938
Dutch East Indies.....	1,344,809	1937
Philippine Islands.....	117,463	1941
Portuguese Timor.....	3,500	1938
Hongkong.....	923,584	1937
Macao.....	157,175
India.....	17,314	1944
Ceylon.....	1,000	1937
Afghanistan.....	24	1947
Turkey.....	7,000	1930
Mecca.....	6,100	1938
Japan.....	29,461	1947
Korea.....	12,793	1947
TOTAL.....	9,115,357	
Americas		
U. S. A.....	80,613	1943
Canada.....	46,000	1937
Mexico.....	12,500	1943
Guatemala.....	745	1945
Salvador.....	167	1944
Nicaragua.....	1,500	1945
Costa Rica.....	600	1945
Honduras.....	400	1944
Panama.....	2,000	1945
Cuba.....	32,000	1942
Dominican Republic.....	362	1945
Haiti.....	40	1945
British Trinidad.....	5,000	1938
British Jamaica.....	8,000	1945
Dutch Curacao.....	700	1945
Peru.....	10,915	1940
Chile.....	1,500	1945
Argentina.....	200	1945
Brazil.....	592	1940
Uruguay.....	55	1945
Colombia.....	550	1943
Venezuela.....	1,500	1941
Ecuador.....	800	1939
Guiana.....	2,300	1930
TOTAL.....	209,039	

TABLE 11.—*Continued*

Locality	No. of Overseas Chinese	Year
Europe		
Great Britain.....	2,546	1941
U. S. S. R.....	29,620	1940
Denmark.....	900	1940
Switzerland.....	41	1940
Spain.....	44	1940
Germany.....	300	1944
Italy.....	350	1948
Rumania.....	16	1940
France.....	17,000	1948
Portugal.....	73	1948
Luxemburg.....	52	1920
Czechoslovakia.....	250	1932
Belgium.....	95	1947
Netherlands.....	2,017	1937
Poland.....	88	1947
Hungary.....	49	1929
Yugoslavia.....	37	1929
Greece.....	2	1948
Austria.....	98	1930
Finland.....	11	1918
Norway.....	3	1947
Bulgaria.....	7	1932
Sweden.....	10	1948
Turkey.....	13	1948
TOTAL.....	53,622	
Oceania		
Australia.....	10,439	1947
New Zealand.....	3,400	1944
Hawaiian Islands.....	29,237	1941
Fiji Islands.....	2,000	1940
Samoa Islands.....	2,198	1940
Nauru Islands.....	5,000	1940
Tahiti Islands.....	5,000	1930
TOTAL.....	57,274	
Africa		
Egypt.....	22	1948
South Africa.....	4,000	1937
East Africa.....	500	1944
Islands in Indian Ocean.....	10,329	1939
TOTAL.....	14,851	
GRAND TOTAL.....	9,450,143	

Source: Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission

pesos from the Philippines; 7,765,147.74 guilders from the Netherlands East Indies; 3,879,078.00 piasters from Indo-China; 5,146,826.00 bahts from Siam, and US\$70,-459,483.88 from New York.

PARTICIPATION IN THE CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

The Overseas Chinese took part in the election of delegates to the National Assembly and of members to the Legislative

Yuan and the Control Yuan. However, because, of difficulties and restrictions imposed by some of the countries in which they reside, these overseas elections were only partially successful. The following shows the election results:

(1) Election of delegates to the National Assembly—The Constitution provides 65 seats in the National Assembly for overseas delegates to be elected from 41 electoral districts. However, only 22 delegates were successfully elected from 17 electoral districts in the United States, Canada, Hawaiian Islands, Central and South America, West Indies, Tahiti, Macao, Korea, India, Europe and Africa. The 23 electoral districts in the Philippines, Hongkong, Japan, Indo-China, Burma, Siam, Malaya, Borneo, and Dutch East Indies sent no delegates because of local difficulties. Ballots had been cast for the election of one delegate from the district of Australia but unforeseen difficulties arose and as a result no delegate was sent.

(2) Election of Legislative Yuan members—A total of 19 Legislative Yuan members were to be elected from 15 electoral districts abroad. Of the number, three were duly elected from the three districts of Canada, Central and South America, and Europe. The remaining districts were unable to produce the allocated number of delegates on account of political differences or local difficulties.

(3) Election of Control Yuan members—A total of eight members were to be elected from districts abroad. One Control Yuan member was duly elected from the district of the United States. The election in other districts were either postponed or called off because of local difficulties.

RELIGION

ANCESTOR-WORSHIP

The spiritual life of the ancient Chinese, like that of all other ancient peoples, started with deification and worship of all the important phenomena of nature. There were the Gods of Rain, Wind, and Rivers; Lord of Thunder; God or Goddess of Marriage; Spirit of Wayside; God of Kitchen; Divine Archer; and a host of other divinities. Above them was a supreme god, Shang Ti or Tien, who was the Lord of All Gods and Men. Hou Tu, the Lord of Earth, was the counterpart of Shang Ti. This practice of worshipping all phenomena of nature prevailed before the era of Chou.

The divine and the human were not clearly differentiated. All of the dead be-

came deities and were duly worshipped by their descendants. Many take this ancestor-worship as a religion. But there has been no code or ethical dogma in ancestor-worship. Even the ritual is limited to sacrifices made periodically during festivals and death and birth anniversaries. Enthusiastic worshippers may pay homage at the beginning and in the middle of the month.

The practice started, in the opinion of many sociologists, as an extension of filial piety, but gradually it degenerated into a superstitious routine, based on the belief that such worship would bring goodwill and protection from the dead.

CONFUCIANISM

Confucianism is a western name, but the Chinese speak of *Kung Chiao*, Confucian Teaching, or *Ju Chiao*, the Teaching of the Learned, which is based on teachings of Confucius or Kung Chiu (551-479 B.C.). Strictly speaking, Confucianism is not a religion as it has no ritual that characterizes a religion. It is not possible to derive any spiritual comfort from the Teaching of the Learned as from other religious beliefs. It is a philosophy, a system of ethics that directs the human mode of living. The seasonal sacrifices to Confucius are customs obtained from the ancestor-worship since the erection of temples and the holding of ceremonies in honor of ancestors antedated Confucius.

Confucianism, however, has been and is still influencing the Chinese way of life. The teachings and philosophy of Confucius and his followers are embodied in the Four Books and Five Classics. The Four Books are the Analects, sayings of Confucius collected by his disciples; the *Great Learning*, a treatise written by his disciple Tseng Tze; the *Doctrine of the Mean*, by his grandson, Tze Ssu; and the works of Mencius, disciple of Tze Ssu. The Five Classics are the *Yi Ching* or Book of Changes, the *Shu Ching* or Book of History, the *Shih Ching* or the Collection of Poetry, the *Li Chi* or Book of Rites, and the *Chun Chiu* or Spring and Autumn.

On May 31, 1934, the Standing Committee of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang designated August 27, the birthday of Confucius, as a national holiday, and later the day was also designated as Teacher's Day commemorating the greatest teacher in Chinese history. Respect paid to Confucius is not that paid to a prophet or living god but to a great sage whose teachings pro-

mote peace and good order in society and encourage moral living by the individual.

TAOISM

Taoism began as a philosophy, but later developed into a religion. As a philosophy it is traced to Lao Tze, born in 604 B.C. near the modern city of Kweichow in eastern Honan. He was a profound thinker, a political philosopher of keen insight and a great ethical teacher. His doctrine of the right way and "Do Nothing" ruled out the idea of forming a religion and establishing himself as a saint, for this would be contrary to his teachings. Yet, seven centuries after his death, his teachings degenerated into a ritual embodying a polytheistic hodgepodge of witchcraft and demonology. And his treatise, the *Tao Te Ching*, the Book of Way and Virtue, became the bible of Taoists.

Chang Liang, who played a leading part in the establishment of the Han dynasty, is credited with being one of the first patriarchs of the Taoists and his descendant in the eighth generation (A.D. 34), Chang Tao-ling, was made the first Taoist pope. Since then his descendants have been the heads of the sect. In A.D. 423, the emperor conferred upon the Taoist pope of that day and his successors the title of Tien Shih or Heavenly Preceptor. In A.D. 1016 the pope was granted a large domain in Kiangsi. The White Deer Grotto on the Dragon-Tiger mountain, where Chang Tao-ling discovered the elixir of immortality and ascended to Heaven after living to be 123 years of age, still serves as the papal seat.

Priests of Taoism are known as Tao Shih. They have their own temples, rituals and bible. They are allowed to marry. Some are anchorites who through meditation and ascetic practices seek immortality. Others live as priests.

BUDDHISM

Buddhism in China, introduced from India during the first century, bears little resemblance to the religion in its purer forms. A number of native legends, traditions, rites and deities have been added to Buddhism to give it a strong Chinese flavor.

Buddhism first came to China in A.D. 61, when Han Ming Ti dispatched 18 ambassadors to the Siyu (Western Territory) to seek instruction in Buddhism. After six years, they returned from Khotan with two Buddhist monks, a number of Hinayana Sutras and Buddha statues. The emperor built for them the

first Buddhist temple, the Pai-ma-ssu (White Horse Temple, as the texts were brought to China on a white horse) in Loyang. The temple, after repeated repairs, still stands. Seventy years later, two other monks brought Mahayana Buddhism to China.

The work of translating the sutras into Chinese was in its prime in the 700 years after the Han dynasty. The most famous ones include Kumarajiva of the fourth century and Hsuan-chuang and I-ching of the tenth century. By the end of the fifth century the carving of Buddha statues on rocks became very popular and prevalent in China and influenced to a considerable extent the future development of Chinese fine arts.

Altogether ten schools of Buddhism were established between the 4th and 7th centuries in China, each with its own way of training disciples in its principal sutras. They included the Tse-en or Dharmalakšana school, the Prajnaparamita or Three Sutras school, the Tien-tai school, the Hsien-shou school, the Pure Land school, the Zen school, the Mantra school, the Satyasiddhi school, the Chushesh school and the Nan-shan school. Of these the most influential was the Zen school. While it is difficult to estimate how many are believers, Buddhist followers who were members of the Chinese Buddhist Society numbered 4,620,000 in 1947.

Chinese Buddhist scholars generally go to Tibet and Ceylon for advanced studies. The Tibetan school's philosophy and training and the Ceylon school's strict discipline are sought by Chinese Buddhists to reinforce their movement. In 1936, the Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission of the Executive Yuan decided to grant scholarships to monks from various provinces to study in Tibet and for Tibetan lamas to study in other parts of China. In 1937 the Tibetan scholar Hsi-jao-chia-tso was invited by the National Government to deliver a series of lectures at five national universities. In November, 1939, a Chinese Buddhist Goodwill Mission headed by Abbot Tai Hsu was sent to the South Seas. After visiting centers of Buddhist interest and worship in Burma, Malaya, Ceylon, and India, and exchanging views with local Buddhists for the promotion of a closer fellowship between the followers in China and in those lands, the party returned to Chungking in May, 1940.

During the war years, Chinese Buddhists were remarkably active in war relief. Free schools, clinics and orphanages were organized in many temples. During

the Battle of Shanghai and the bombings of Chungking monks served as stretcher-bearers and took part in first aid and relief work.

As a means to promote the Chinese Buddhist movement, the national convention of the Chinese Buddhist Society, held in Nanking on May 28, 1947, and attended by more than 70 delegates including those from Taiwan, the Northeast, Tibet, and Sinkiang, decided on the following:

(1) The education of Chinese Buddhists and the spread of Buddhist doctrine; (2) the improvement of the Buddhist ecclesiastical system and strict enforcement of the Buddhist religious code; (3) the introduction of self-supporting projects for Buddhist farmers and laborers, and (4) the realization of public welfare and social relief programs.

LAMAISM

Lamaism is a form of Buddhism believed chiefly by peoples of Tibet and Mongolia and is a mixture of Buddhism and Shamanistic practices. Up to the seventh century the people of Tibet had a primitive religion consisting chiefly of witchcraft, a form of Shamanism. About the year A.D. 630 Buddhism was introduced by a man named Shrong-tsan-sgam-po. Its mixture with the native Shamanism resulted in the present-day Lamaism. The lamas have 108 sacred scriptures and numerous tracts of lesser importance. These include historical and philosophical treatises and biographies of Buddhist sages.

Lamaism was formerly dominated by the Dukupas or Red Caps. In the Ming dynasty, a saint born in Sining named Tsongkapa was dissatisfied with the magic and pagan practices carried out by the lamas, so he effected a reform forbidding necromancy and marriage among lamas. A schism followed. The result was the formation of the Celupas or Yellow Caps, now predominating. Tsongkapa died in 1478 and his body was preserved in the monastery of Gandin not far from Lhasa.

Lamaism has a paradise, but it is not this place that the Tibetan and Mongol believers so earnestly seek. Their chief hope is to be reincarnated in a higher state. This reincarnation is the most important feature of Lamaism. After the death of a Hutukhtu, the Living Buddha, his spirit is said to reappear in the person of some boy born at that time and thus come forth re-embodied. A number of candidates are chosen and are confronted with an array of articles among which one or two were used by the deceased. The one who picks them out with-

out difficulty is his reincarnation and becomes the new Living Buddha. It is by this means that the trinity of the lama saints—the Dalai and Panchan Lamas and the Djebtsung Damba Hutukhtu—are chosen. The last Djebtsung Damba, who revolted against Chinese rule at the beginning of the Republic, died in 1924, and no reincarnation took place.

The Dalai Lama is the spiritual head of Tibet, and next to him is the Panchan Lama, although Panchan is usually considered worthy of more veneration than the other, as his office is less contaminated by worldly cares. Directly under the Dalai Lama are three great monasteries in and around Lhasa—the Djer-pung Monastery with four abbots and 7,700 lamas, the Sera Monastery with three abbots and 5,500 lamas and the Gandin Monastery with two abbots and 3,300 lamas. Among the three the Djer-pung is the largest, but the Gandin is most influential as the chief abbot residing there is next to the Dalai and Panchan Lamas in rank. The present Dalai Lama, the 14th in the line, was found in Chinghai and enthroned in February, 1940. The 9th Panchan Lama died in November, 1937. Three candidates have been found but it has not yet been possible to decide which one is the reincarnation of the Panchan Lama.

In Mongolia, Lamaism began to flourish at the time of Kublai Khan who for political reasons took this religion under his protection. Likewise the Ming and Ching dynasties utilized it to achieve similar ends and exalted its system of worship.

Of the Living Buddhas, the most important are the Changchia Hutukhtu with his headquarters in Peiping, Galdan Siretu Hutukhtu, Minchur Hutukhtu at Kumbun, Chilung Hutukhtu in Tibet, Namuka Hutukhtu at Sining, Achia Hutukhtu at Sining, Lakuo Hutukhtu in Suiyuan, and Tsahantarkhan Hutukhtu in Jehol. Under the Hutuktus are Jassak Da Lamas and Jassak Lamas (Grand Princes and Princes of the Church), Kan Pu (Abbots), Da Lamas (Priors), Fu Da Lamas (Vice-Priors), Hsien-san Lamas (Higher Grade Clergy), Tu Mu Chi (Stewards of Lamaseries), Ke Sze Kuei (Preceptors who conduct the choral services) Ke Lung (Priests of the First Order), Pan Ti (Priests of the Second Order), and Sha Pi (Novices).

MOHAMMEDANISM

According to a 1938 estimate, followers of Islam in China numbered 48,104,240. A recent estimate, however, placed the

figure at 50-million, approximately one-ninth of the total Chinese population. The Chinese Muslims are mainly distributed in Yunnan, Honan, Hopei, Shantung and the provinces in the northwest.

The Islamic history records that Mohammedanism made its advent in China in A.D. 651, when the governments of the Muslim nations began to pay tribute to the Tang Emperor. Saad Abu Wakkas first came to China from the south by sea and founded the Huai Sheng Mosque in Canton, the first one in China. Later Muslims came by the overland route through Persia and Afghanistan into Sinkiang and other parts of China. In A.D. 755, the Caliph Abu Grafar sent an expedition of 4,000 Arabian soldiers to China at the request of the Chinese government to help subdue a rebellion and rendered meritorious service. These men settled in China and many present-day Chinese Muslims are their descendants.

The Chinese Islamic Association, known as the Chinese Islamic National Salvation Federation before 1943, is an overall Muslim organization devoted to the dual tasks of advancing Islamic education and national reconstruction. In February, 1939, upon the petition of the association, the National Government decided to make the study of Islamic culture a regular feature in the curricula of Chinese universities. Mohammed Ma Kin, Abudorahaman Na Chung and Badroden Hai Wei-liang served as the first lecturers. There are always a number of Chinese students in Azhar University in Egypt with scholarships granted by King Farouk and subsidies given by the Chinese Ministry of Education. In addition, the association has set up 20 middle schools and more than 200 primary schools in different parts of the country.

In January, 1938, the association dispatched a Chinese Muslim Goodwill Mission to visit the Near and Middle East nations. They reached Mecca in time for the Hadj in February during which they met one million representatives from the Muslim world. They also visited Egypt, Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Iran, Turkey, and India, furthering Chinese relations with all the Muslim nations and peoples. Another mission went to the South Seas in December, 1939, and visited Malaya, India, Arabia, and Iran.

In 1947, 40 Chinese Muslims attended the Hadj. According to the report of the Chinese Islamic Association, more than 2,000 people applied for permission to join the pilgrimage. Of this number, half of the applications came from Sinkiang province alone. In the beginning of

August, 1948, 200 Chinese Muslims, mostly from the northwestern provinces of Sinkiang, Kansu and Sikang, were scheduled to leave for Mecca for the annual Hadj.

Showing their staunch support of constitutionalism in China, the Chinese Muslim set up in October, 1946, an Association for the Promotion and Realization of Constitutionalism.

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH

During the Sino-Japanese war, Catholic missionaries rendered invaluable service in the relief of refugees and in carrying on other welfare activities. The end of the war found the work of many Catholic parishes and institutions disrupted, their members dispersed and key buildings destroyed.

Despite war difficulties, the Catholic Church in China showed remarkable endurance and growth during the ten-year period from June 30, 1936 to June 30, 1946. The Catholic population in China totalled 2,934,175 in 1936 as against 3,279,813 in 1946. In 1936 there were 4,552 priests, 1,263 brothers, and 5,746 sisters. In 1946, there were 5,442 priests; 1,304 brothers, and 6,456 sisters. In addition, there were 983 senior seminarians (Chinese youths preparing for the priesthood) in 1936, as against 1,214 in 1946, and 5,992 junior seminarians in 1936, as against 4,143 in 1946.

At Christmas, 1945, Pope Pius XII announced that the Most Rev. Thomas Tien, S.V.D., Chinese bishop and native of Shantung, would be among the prelates elevated to the Sacred College of Cardinals, the 70-member "senate" of the Catholic Church. This is the body that elects the Pope, usually chosen from among its members.

His Eminence Cardinal Tien was consecrated in St. Peter's, Rome, on February 18, 1946. He thus became not only the first Chinese Cardinal but the first of that rank in the Far East. He traveled to Rome through the United States, flying from New York with His Eminence Cardinal Spellman. Journeying through Europe and America on his way back, China's first Cardinal was hailed with enthusiasm by leaders and multitudes of many nations. On May 10, 1946, he was named Archbishop of Peiping, the oldest and largest Catholic diocese in China.

On April 11, 1946, an official announcement was made that the Pope was establishing the hierarchy in China, marking another great event in history of Catholicism. Until then, the 138 ecclesiastical divisions in China had been headed by

vicars and apostolic prefects acting as delegates. This is the system universally followed where the Church has not yet reached an advanced state of development. The change to hierarchy signified that the Church in China had reached its maturity.

In 1946, by the establishment of an Internunciature Apostolic in Nanking, diplomatic relations between the Government of China and the Holy See were placed on a reciprocal and permanent basis. The Chinese Government established a legation at the Vatican in 1943 with Dr. Cheoukang Sié as minister. In 1946, Dr. John C. H. Wu, member of the Legislative Yuan and a Catholic convert since 1937, was appointed Chinese minister to the Holy See to succeed Dr. Sié, while Archbishop Anthony Riberi was named Papal Internuncio to China. Dr. Sié again became Chinese Minister to the Vatican in 1949.

COMMUNIST PERSECUTION

After the cessation of World War II, the Catholic Church in China faced new persecutions, this time from the communists. The hostility to religion shown by the communists in the late twenties and early thirties was renewed after a brief interval during the war. Early in 1946, with quickening tempo, the Chinese Communists waged an anti-religious offensive, imprisoning, torturing or executing priests and confiscating churches, school buildings and hospitals on absurd charges and fantastic prettexts. The offensive, which began in north China, had spread into central China by 1948, showing a ruthless move planned by the central command of the Chinese Communists.

The list of known Catholic missionaries killed by the communists between V-J Day and March, 1948, totalled 60, of whom 45 were Chinese. Thirty other missionaries, of whom 21 were Chinese, died in prison or after their release. The chain of death stretched as far as Kiamusse in the northeast to Kiangsu in the south. The two most horrible massacres were committed in Siwantze (Chungli), Chahar province, in December, 1946, and in the Trappist monastery of Yangkiaping, 160 kms. west of Peiping, in the summer and fall of 1947. The slaughter in Siwantze, which was 90 percent Catholic, earned the tragic name of "Little Lidice." At Yangkiaping, 31 of 75 Trappist monks were killed by the communists.

WELFARE WORK

The Chinese Catholic Medical Service, formed in Chungking at the suggestion

of Archbishop Paul Yu-pin during the war, continued to function until early 1946. Funds contributed by the Catholic organization in the U. S. known as the War Relief Services were distributed to orphanages and dispensaries in Free China. In July, 1946, the Catholic Welfare Committee was established in Shanghai as a central agency to serve the 288 hospitals, 866 dispensaries and 320 orphanages conducted by the Catholic Church in China. It worked in coordination with other relief agencies through its eight regional directors stationed from Peiping to Canton.

Its other welfare work includes the training of child welfare personnel through cooperation with the Aurora College for Women in Shanghai and the operating of a mobile clinic for children also in Shanghai.

There are eight leper hospitals in China conducted by Catholic missions. One of these is the leprosarium of Chaotung, Yunnan, which the provincial authorities asked the Catholic Church to take over at the beginning of 1948.

EDUCATIONAL WORK

With many dioceses either occupied by the communists or located in war zones, complete statistics of Catholic educational activities are not available. Returns from 65 percent of China's dioceses show that 776 primary schools and 155 middle schools were under Catholic auspices in 1948. The total number of students of these schools was 220,000. About 76 percent of the primary school students and 85 percent of the middle school students were non-Christians.

With the approval of the government, the three Catholic institutions of university standing, all located in occupied China, remained open throughout the war. The faculty members of Aurora University, Shanghai, won commendation from the government for their efforts in hiding and preserving valuable scientific equipment for the Academia Sinica during the war. Fu Jen, the Catholic University of Peiping, once was the largest private university in China, with an enrollment of 3,500.

OTHER CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

Despite postwar disturbances, Catholic activities in the field of writing, publishing and broadcasting were resumed with new vigor. The heaviest blow to their religious and educational publication work, however, was the loss to the Chinese Communists of the Catholic printing press in Sienhsien, Hopei, in 1946.

The *Yi Shih Pao*, the Catholic daily, which moved to Hankow and Chungking during the war, resumed publication after V-J Day. In 1946, it set up five separate editions in Nanking, Peiping, Shanghai, Sian and Chungking.

In the beginning of 1948, the Catholic Central Bureau was established in Shanghai as a service agency. It published *The China Missionary*, a review of Catholic missions in China and also issued news through its *Hua Ming News Service*.

THE PROTESTANT CHURCH

For over a century, the Protestant Church has steadily expanded its work in China. After 1927, the leadership previously held by foreign missionaries largely passed over to Chinese Christians. From 1927 to 1937 there was a remarkable progress throughout the country. During the Sino-Japanese war, the Chinese Christians made considerable contributions to the nation's war effort and civilian relief. Since the end of the war the Protestant Church has been engaged in the unprecedented task of reconstruction and rehabilitation.

THE FORWARD MOVEMENT

The National Christian Council launched a nationwide "All for Christ" Forward Movement in December, 1946. It has the following seven lines of advance:

1. *Evangelism*—Based upon mobilization of an enlarged church membership; promoted among denominations, and with the use of modern means of mass communication.

2. *Christianizing the Home*—Recognised as an integral part of the work of the Church, and led by men as well as women.

3. *Integration of Christian Programs*—More adequate cooperation between Church, Christian schools, and Christian hospitals.

4. *Winning Educated Youth to the Service of the Church*—Tackling the problem of the loss of personnel occasioned by the departure of active Christian leaders from colleges and training schools to new localities to join non-Christian organizations.

5. *Prayer*—Every Church member a praying Christian.

6. *Christian Witness*—Promoting group study and active implementation of the Christian Witness in professional life and daily conduct.

7. *Christian Stewardship*—Of money, time and opportunities.

An encouraging start was made in 1947 through inter-church cooperation and through the efforts of evangelistic teams at various centers. The movement will continue through December, 1950.

EDUCATION

There are 13 Christian colleges in China which are private institutions largely supported by American, British and Canadian funds. Eleven of them are accredited as universities by the Chinese Government, having three or more colleges. The 13 Christian institutions are Cheeloo University (Tsinan), Fukien Union College (Foochow), Ginling College (Nanking), Hangchow Christian College, Hua Chung College (Wuchang), Hwa Nan College (Foochow), Lingnan University (Canton), University of Nanking, St. John's University (Shanghai), University of Shanghai, Soochow University, West China Union University (Chengtu), and Yenching University (Peiping), with an aggregate enrollment of 11,688 for 1947-48. All told, these institutions comprise 41 colleges of liberal arts, science, medicine, agriculture, commerce, engineering, public affairs, education, law and theology.

There are 2,301 Christian middle schools in 103 cities in China. Except for 25 whose enrollment statistics are not available, these middle schools had a total registration of 74,320 boys and girls in 1948.

The China Christian Education Association held a national conference at Shanghai in October, 1947, to celebrate its 70th anniversary.

The National Committee for Christian Religious Education in China is engaged in the production of religious education materials and in the promotion of a Lay Training Movement. The Religious Education Fellowship of the committee has 536 members including 350 Chinese and 186 Westerners, who work with the churches and schools.

MEDICAL WORK

In 1946 and 1947 the mission hospitals were faced with great rehabilitation difficulties. Medical equipment was costly and there was a shortage of medical supplies and trained personnel.

In 1948, there were 216 Christian hospitals and 23 leprosaria in operation, in addition to 39 dispensaries or clinics. These units treated 5-million out-patients and 600,000 in-patients annually. There were about 1,400 lepers receiving treatment from Protestant institutions. Besides the Institute of Hospital Technology in

Hankow, five medical schools were maintained by the missionaries in Mukden, Chengtu, Shanghai, Tsinan, and Canton. In addition to the 40 Protestant Mission nursing schools now in operation, a mid-wifery school has been established in central China. The Peking Union Medical College at Peiping was reopened in October, 1947.

The Ministry of Health has expressed the hope that the mission hospitals would assume an increasing share in China's public health program. Efforts at recruiting more medical personnel for this important work were made by the mission hospitals. (For further details, see chapter on Medicine and Public Health.)

CHRISTIAN LITERATURE

During the war, a number of Christian publishing agencies in Chengtu pooled their resources to form the United Christian Publishers. It moved its headquarters to Shanghai in May, 1946. In November, 1947, it was reorganized and the United Christian Publishers merged with the Christian Publishers Association to form the Council of Christian Publishers. This cooperative body is composed of the Christian Literature Society; Association Press; Religious Tract Society; Canadian Mission Press; Christian Farmer; Christian Youth; National Council for Christian Religious Education; Literature Production Program (Nanking) and the Magazine Board of *Tien-feng, Truth and Life*, and *Omnibook*.

The Christian Literature Society put out 37 new Publications and 147 reprints in 1947. The *Happy Childhood*, one of the magazines published by the society, had a circulation of 13,000 copies that year.

The China Bible House sold in 1947 a total of 88,898 Bibles, 104,674 Testaments, and 583,830 portions of the Scriptures. In Shanghai alone, sales amounted to 30,468 Bibles, 25,596 New Testaments, and 44,839 portions of the Scriptures.

WORK OF THE YMCA AND YWCA

The National Committee of the YMCA convened its first postwar biennial meeting in Shanghai in April, 1947. With most of the YMCA branches suffering war damages, the committee was confronted with serious rehabilitation problems. It launched a successful finance campaign in May to raise funds for its reconstruction work.

In October, the first postwar meeting of secretaries was held in Hangchow. It was attended by 104 secretaries from 29 associations and five student centers in government universities. Emphasis was

placed on community work, vocational education, religious education, boy's work, education for international understanding and student relief.

The outstanding 1947 event for the YWCA was the Council Meeting of World's YWCA's, attended by 23 countries October 15-27, in Hangchow. This was the first international YMCA Council Meeting ever held in the Far East. Following its adjournment, the China National Committee convened a two-day conference with about 50 World Council members and 70 Chinese YWCA leaders in attendance.

The YWCA conducts work in 15 city organizations. It maintains 55 Hwa Kuang girl's clubs, 58 college fellowships and 10 student centers. A mass education demonstration center has been in operation in Nanking. In addition to running various rural service centers, it conducts professional and business women's hostels in the principal cities. The response to the association's program has been most encouraging. When the Shanghai YWCA called its first meeting after V-J Day, 2,000 women attended whereas only 200 were expected. The attendance at the association's workers gatherings in Shanghai alone totaled over 100,000 in the first year after the war ended.

RELIEF

The National Christian Council had a relief committee at work in 1946 and 1947. From March 1, 1946, to March 18, 1947, a total of CNC\$1,153-million was administered for general relief and the aid of primary school teachers, church workers, Japanese and Korean Christians in China. The aid to church workers includes the tuition for pastors' children and subsidies to students in theological studies.

The foreign donations for relief came mainly from the Church World Service, New York, U. S. A., channelled through the American Advisory Committee in Shanghai, and the British United Aid to China.

On September 30, 1947, the relief committee of the Council terminated its work. The relief program was taken over by the Protestant Service Department of the American Advisory Committee.

LANGUAGE

In China there is only one written language, which is universally used throughout the country. The spoken language, however, consists of various dialects. In recent years the National Spoken Language Movement has made consider-

able progress in eliminating some of these dialectal differences.

By academic classification, the Chinese spoken language may be grouped into three main parent families: the Indo-Chinese Family, the Austro-Asiatic Family, and the Altai Family.

INDO-CHINESE FAMILY

The Language of this family is spoken throughout China within the Great Wall and Tibet, and extends into the North-eastern Provinces and Sinkiang as well as to places outside of China such as French Indo-China, Burma and Siam. It is characterized by the tendency towards monosyllabism, that is, taking a single syllable for a phonologic unit; the tendency to develop a system of tones and the muting of the original voiced initial consonants. Four main branches sprang from this family; namely, Chinese, Kam-Tai, Miao-Yao, and Tibeto-Burman.

A. *Chinese*—Chinese is the most important member of the family. It is estimated that more than 400-million of the people in China speak Chinese. The Chinese dialects are divided into the following groups:

1. *The Northern Mandarin group* occupies a large area in north China, in the provinces of Hopei, Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Honan, and Shantung, and extends into Sinkiang, Ningsia, Suiyuan, Chahar, Jehol and the Northeastern Provinces in the north and into Hupeh, Anhwei, and Kiangsu in the south.

2. *The Eastern Mandarin group* is spoken along the lower Yangtze in the provinces of Anhwei and Kiangsu.

3. *The Southwestern Mandarin group* is a fairly uniform type of speech spoken in Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, and in parts of Hupeh and Kwangsi.

4. *The Wu group* of dialects is spoken south of the Yangtze in Kiangsu, Chekiang, and in a few districts in the eastern part of Kiangsi.

5. *The Kan-Hakka group* is spoken principally in the provinces of Kiangsi and Kwangtung. Settlements of Hakka people can also be found in Indo-China, Siam, Malay peninsula, and the South Seas.

6. *The Min group* can be further divided into two sub-groups. The northern dialect is spoken in the northern part of Fukien, the southern tongue in the southern part of Fukien, the eastern part of Kwangtung, Hainan island and parts of the Liuchow peninsula. Settlements of those using the southern dialect are found in large numbers in Taiwan, Indo-China,

Burma, Siam, Malay Peninsula, and the South Seas.

7. *The Cantonese group* is spoken in Kwangtung and Kwangsi.

8. *The Hsiang group* is spoken principally in Hunan.

9. Certain isolated groups, such as the dialects spoken in the southern part of Anhwei, in Hunan and in the northeastern part of Kwangsi may be mentioned here.

B. *Kam-Tai*—The Kam-Tai branch includes the Tai languages on the one hand and the Kam-sui languages on the other. This branch is closely related to the Chinese.

1. *The Kam Sui group* is spoken in Southeastern Kweichow and in a few districts in Northern Kwangsi, and may be divided into four sub-groups, Kam, Sui, Mak, and T'en.

2. *The Tai group* may be divided into two sub-groups: (a) The Chuang group consists of many dialects spoken in a great part of Kwangsi and in the southern part of Kweichow, and also in the southeastern part of Yunnan. (b) The southwestern group consists of some of the best known of the Tai languages, mostly used outside of China. Those spoken in China include Kamti and Shan, spoken in western Yunnan; Lu, spoken in southern Yunnan; and Tai Blanc, Nung and Tho spoken in southwestern Kwangsi and southern Yunnan.

C. *Miao-Yao*—This branch is spoken by fairly primitive groups of mountaineers throughout the southwest.

1. *The Miao group* is used under various tribal names in the western mountain regions of Hunan, main part of Kweichow, and various scattered sections in northern Kwangsi, southern Szechwan and Yunnan.

2. *The Yao group* is also spoken under various tribal names in the northwestern mountain regions of Kwangtung, southern Kweichow, and different scattered mountain regions of Kwangsi and Yunnan.

There are certain common features among the Chinese, the Kam-Tai, and the Miao-Yao groups. As all the Kam-Tai and Miao-Yao languages show profound relations to and close contacts with China historically, geographically, and culturally, it seems possible to classify these three groups under one branch.

D. *Tibeto-Burman*—This branch of the Indo-Chinese family has four divisions:

1. *The Tibetan group* is found principally in Tibet and Sikang and extends into Chinghai and western Szechwan.

2. *Katchin* of the Bodo-Naga-Katchin

group is spoken in the northwestern border of Yunnan.

3. *The Burmese group*, which includes the various languages of the Burmese, Kuki, Chin and "Old Kuki" is now found mostly in Burma and Assam.

4. *The Lolo group* is spoken in a large portion of Yunnan, northwestern Kweichow, southern Szechwan and Sikang.

AUSTRO-ASIATIC FAMILY

Of this large family to which the Munda, the Mon-Khmer, and, according to some scholars, the Annamite belong, only the Mon-Khmer group may be mentioned, of which there are specimens in China. Dialects of this group spoken in China include the Palaung, the Wa, and a few others found along the Yunnan-Burmese border. The Palaung shows close relationships with the Tai languages.

ALTAI FAMILY

All along the northern territory of China from Sinkiang through Mongolia to the Northeastern Provinces may be

found traces of this family. It extends further southwest to Asia Minor and northeast to Siberia all the way up to the Arctic coast. There are three members in this family, namely, the Turkish, the Mongolian, and the Tungus.

A. *Turkish*—This branch of the Altai family in China is found in Sinkiang, the northwest corner of Mongolia, and certain parts of Kansu. The Turkish dialects are divided into several groups but their differences are slight.

B. *Mongolian*—Mongolian dialects spoken in China are found in some parts of Hingan, Sinkiang, Chahar, Suiyuan, Jehol, Ningsia, Chinghai and Kansu.

C. *Tungus*—The Tungus branch is spoken in Northeast China. It is generally known to consist of two groups: the northern group and the southern group. The southern group is found in Heilungkiang and Kirin. Some dialects of the northern group are found in Heilungkiang, too. The northern group is spoken in Siberia. Some of the southern group speakers are also found in the Ili valley in Sinkiang.

CHAPTER 2

THE PROVINCES

China has 35 provinces with 2,023 *hsien* (counties), 36 preparatory *hsien*, one administrative bureau, and 55 municipalities, in addition to one special territory (Tibet) and 12 municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. The *hsien* are grouped into 208 administrative districts under the various provincial governments.

Before the war, China had 27 provinces. In 1939, the province of Sikang was created. After the war, the three North-eastern provinces were divided into nine provinces. After 50 years of Japanese occupation, Formosa was returned to China and renamed Taiwan.

China originally had two special territories—namely, Outer Mongolia and Tibet. Outer Mongolia was given independence in 1945 after a plebiscite conducted in accordance with the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

The 35 provinces and one territory are:

Anhwei	Kwangsi
Antung	Kwangtung
Chahar	Kweichow
Chekiang	Liaoning
Chinghai	Liaopei
Fukien	Ningsia
Heilungkiang	Nunkiang
Hokiang	Shansi
Honan	Shantung
Hopei	Shensi
Hsingan	Sikang
Hunan	Sinkiang
Hupeh	Suiyuan
Jehol	Sungkiang
Kansu	Szechwan
Kiangsi	Taiwan
Kiangsu	Yunnan
Kirin	Tibet (special territory)

The 12 municipalities under direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan are:

Canton	Peiping
Chungking	Shanghai
Dairen	Shenyang (Mukden)
Hankow	Sian
Harbin	Tientsin
Nanking	Tsingtao

The following is a general review of the 35 provinces, with additional sections on Mongolia and Tibet.

TAIWAN*

Area: 35,961 sq. km.

Population: 7,026,883 (May, 1949)

No. of *hsien*: 8

Municipalities: 9

Capital: Taipeh (Taipei)

(1) *History*. In November, 1943, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill met and conferred at Cairo. They announced, in the Cairo Declaration dated December 1, 1943 that "... all the territories Japan has stolen from the Chinese, such as Manchuria, Formosa [Taiwan], and the Pescadores [Penghu], shall be restored to the Republic of China. . . ." Taiwan and the Penghu islands were ceded to Japan after the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95.

On July 26, 1945, the terms of the Cairo declaration were declared at the Potsdam conference. Subsequently the Soviet Union announced its acceptance of the Potsdam terms. They were included in the instrument of surrender accepted by Japan on September 2, 1945. General Douglas MacArthur, Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in the Pacific, designated the Chinese to receive the Japanese capitulation at Taiwan.

Taiwan officially became the 35th province of China on October 25, 1945. The importance of the island province was further enhanced when Taipeh, provincial capital, was made the provisional capital of China on December 8, 1949.

Taiwan became a part of China during the Yuan dynasty (A.D. 1206-1368) when an administrative office was established at Penghu to rule over the Penghu Islands

* In view of the current importance of Taiwan, the section on this province is treated in some detail and out of the alphabetical arrangement for the other provinces.—*The Publisher*.

and Taiwan. Although the office ceased to function temporarily after the downfall of the Yuan dynasty, it was re-established in 1405, when the Ming eunuch, Cheng Ho, began his adventures in the South Seas. Large numbers of Chinese from Fukien and Kwangtung provinces began to migrate to Taiwan in the 17th century, although as early as the Sui dynasty (A.D. 581-618) some Chinese had already moved to the island.

Portuguese sailors first went to Taiwan in 1383. The first Portuguese navigator who sighted the island from his ship, impressed by its beauty, the drama of its tropical coloring and its contours, reportedly exclaimed "*Iha Formosa!*" which means "Isle Beautiful" in Portuguese. Formosa thus became known to the Western world as the name of the rich and strategic island off the China coast. The Chinese, however, named the island Taiwan—"Terraced Bay."

At the beginning of the 17th century, the Dutch and Spaniards took the island. In 1661-62, Cheng Cheng-kung, known to the Occidentals as Koxinga, recaptured Taiwan from the Dutch and used it as a base against the Manchus in his attempt to restore the Ming dynasty. The Manchus conquered the island in 1683. Administratively it was at first a part of Fukien province, but it was made a province in 1885.

Upon the conclusion of the first Sino-Japanese War in 1895, Taiwan was ceded to Japan. The Chinese and the aborigines, who refused to submit to Japanese rule, declared independence and established the first republic in Asia in 1895. The Japanese landed an army in Taiwan and in a few months quelled the organized resistance there. During the half-century of Japanese occupation, there were repeated uprisings. The revolutionary movement continued until its return to China in 1945, when it again became a Chinese province.

(2) *Topography.* Besides the island proper, Taiwan comprises 13 islands in the Taiwan group and 64 islands in the Penghu group. Taiwan lies off the Fukien coast, between the Philippines on the south and Japan on the north. On the west of the island province is the China Sea, and on the east the Pacific Ocean. It is 150 km. from the mainland. The three main mountain chains are the Taiwan, Taitung and Fanchiehling ranges. There are more than 30 mountain peaks of over 3,000 m. Mountain area covers approximately two-thirds of the island.

Taiwan is located between 21° 45' and 25° 38' North latitude and 120° 2' and

122° 6' East longitude. Slightly larger than Massachusetts and Connecticut combined, the island is halved laterally by the Tropic of Cancer, so generally it is tropical in climate and vegetation. Its length is bisected by a towering mountain range. The west, between mountain and sea, is a plain covering about one-third of the island.

All rivers in Taiwan originate in the mountains in the central part of the island. The longest, more than 600 km., is the Choshuichi. The swift currents of most of the rivers make them good sources of hydroelectric power and irrigation supply but unsuitable for navigation.

Along Taiwan's lengthy coast are only two good harbors—Keelung in the north and Kaohsiung in the south; but the Penghu group of islands provides important naval bases.

Both harbors are capable of accommodating large ships and naval vessels of sizes up to 20,000 tons. Keelung harbor, with a depth of nine meters, has an abundant local coal supply. Shipping tonnage handled was increased in 1948 to 5,091,145 tons from the 1947 total of 3,618,499 tons. In the first ten months of 1949, the aggregate shipping tonnage reached 6,568,530. Import and export goods that passed through the port in the first ten months of 1949 totalled 929,019 metric tons.

With a warm climate and little rainfall, Kaohsiung harbor, from five to nine meters in depth, is especially suitable for the loading and unloading of sugar, salt and industrial chemicals. Imports and exports through Kaohsiung harbor totalled 925,169 tons in 1948, which doubled the 1947 total of 455,321 tons. In the first ten months of 1949 alone, no less than 1,144,252 tons of commodities were handled through this port. Imports accounted for 553,531 tons while exports amounted to 590,721 tons.

Important cities of Taiwan include Taipei (Taipei), provincial capital and since December, 1949 also provisional capital of the National Government; Keelung; Tainan; Kaohsiung; Hsinchu and Hualien.

Taipei, with a population of 439,793 (May, 1949), is the center of the northern Taiwan basin and the largest city in Taiwan. It is also the political, economic and cultural center of the island province. Tea produced in northern Taiwan is largely concentrated there for export. Keelung, in northern Taiwan, built by the Japanese as a naval base, is now a commercial port. Tea and marine products are produced in large quantities, and the neighboring areas are rich in coal and

gold deposits. An important point for trade with the South Seas, Kaohsiung, in the southern part of the island, is the center for the cement, sugar, iron and steel, and ship-building industries.

(3) *Climate*. Taiwan is in the tropical zone but the temperature, owing to oceanic winds, is even lower than that of the mainland. Rainfall is plentiful. The summer is unusually long, and the island is subject to frequent typhoon attacks.

(4) *People*. Of the total population of 7,026,883 (May, 1949), about 150,000 are aborigines of seven major tribes. The majority of the Chinese originated from Fukien, Kwangtung and other coastal provinces. Most of the island's population occupy the fertile plain which runs the entire length of the western seaboard.

(5) *Agriculture*. Principally an agricultural area, Taiwan has three main farm products—cane sugar in the south, rice in central Taiwan, and tea in the north. Other important crops are potatoes, tobacco and peanuts. Taiwan's climate is particularly suitable for growing rice, which yields two crops a year.

The increase of food production, with emphasis on irrigation and fertilizers, has been one of the most important measures adopted by the provincial authorities. At the time Taiwan was restored to China, the total population was 6,896,451 (1945), requiring an annual total of 857,000 metric tons of rice. The 1945 production was only 638,828 tons. The food shortage was then acute. In 1949, the Taiwan provincial government bought 58,000 tons of fertilizers and received an additional 40,000 tons allocated by the U. S. Economic Cooperation Administration. It also purchased locally produced fertilizers such as soybean cakes. The provincial government sold the fertilizers at low prices. As a result, subsidies to the farmers amounted to 300 billion in old Taiwan dollars in 1949.

Other measures taken to increase food production included the supply of low-price daily necessities to needy farmers. For example, during the period of the second crop in 1949, the provincial government sold 135,000 bolts of cotton cloth to the farmers at less than 20 percent of the market price. Also surplus foodstuffs were bought from landowners at equitable prices, thereby ensuring the government a steady supply of food. Technical guidance was provided, including improvement of seeds, farming methods, and insect and disease control.

Total acreage of rice land was 717,744 hectares in 1948, five percent more than the highest record under Japanese rule

(1936: 681,548 hectares). Rice production reached 1,068,421 tons, representing a 67 percent increase as compared with 1945.

Rice production in 1949 totalled 1,200,000 metric tons. With the use of more fertilizers, a goal of 1,400,000 metric tons is set for 1950. The *per capita* consumption of rice in Taiwan is 143.44 kilograms per annum. Increased food production therefore will be more than sufficient for local consumption.

(6) *Land Reform*. Reduction of land rental, enforced by the Taiwan provincial government early in 1949, has proven to be a successful and important land reform measure. According to the regulations promulgated to enforce land rental reduction, land rental is limited to the maximum rate of 375/1,000, or 37.5 percent, of the total harvest of regular main crops. Under the old traditional tenancy system, tenant farmers, by individual leases and contracts, paid more than 50 percent of their total harvest of crops to their landlords. In some cases the rental was as high as 70 percent. Furthermore, the tenant farmers did not enjoy security as the landowners could repossess land any time on demand. Security deposits demanded by the landlords were sometimes twice the yearly rental. These and other malpractices made the tenant farmers' livelihood extremely difficult.

In enforcing the "37.5 percent maximum" rental system, it was specifically provided that land rent is not to exceed the prescribed maximum percentage of regular crop yields. Original rentals exceeding the limit were to be reduced to the specified ceiling; rates lower than the maximum were frozen at their level. The amount of regular crops harvested in every crop period is to be decided by the local committee for the promotion of the new land rental reduction measure. In addition, the lease of land is to be fixed for a period of from three to six years, so that the tenants can enjoy security. All leases were to be re-contracted in accordance with the new regulations.

Personnel for the promotion of the program, numbered more than 4,000, consisting of local officials and leaders, school teachers and farmers themselves, trained in April and May, 1949. Nearly 10,000 persons were mobilized to launch a publicity campaign. From May 20 to June 20, 368,322 new leases were made, affecting 299,070 farm households. Inspection in all districts was made immediately following the signing of new leases.

The table on page 36 shows old rental rates and reductions in the nine municipal and eight *hsien* districts.

OLD LAND RENTAL RATES BEFORE REDUCTION
Average percentage of rental as compared with total main crops

Locality	Old Percentage	Reduction (%)
Taipeh <i>hsien</i>	55.0	17.5
Taipeh municipality.....	55.0	17.5
Keelung municipality.....	50.0	12.5
Hsinchu <i>hsien</i>	58.0	20.5
Hsinchu municipality.....	55.8	18.3
Taichung <i>hsien</i>	56.5	19.0
Taichung municipality.....	62.5	25.0
Changhua municipality.....	62.0	24.5
Tainan <i>hsien</i>	51.0	13.5
Tainan municipality.....	50.4	12.9
Chiayi municipality.....	51.0	13.5
Kaohsiung <i>hsien</i>	53.0	15.5
Kaohsiung municipality.....	54.7	17.2
Pingtung municipality.....	53.6	16.1
Taitung <i>hsien</i>	50.0	12.5
Hualien <i>hsien</i>	51.0	13.5
Penghu <i>hsien</i>	46.0	8.5

Besides reducing the high rentals, security deposits to be paid by the tenant to the landowner are restricted to the maximum rate of one-fourth of the total annual rental, with a yearly interest of 20 percent. "Iron rental" (whereby the tenant had to pay the rent no matter what happened—including famine and other calamities), by-product rental, and pre-payment of rental have all been abolished.

An extensive survey established that the livelihood of the tenant farmers has been substantially improved by an average of 25.4 percent throughout the province through enforcement of these measures. The highest ratio of improvement, 36 percent, was found in Taipeh municipality; and the lowest ratio, 18 percent, in Chiayi municipal district.

(7) *Currency*. The Taiwan provincial currency, circulated only in the province, has survived both the *fapi* and the Gold Yuan notes of the mainland. The Gold Yuan note was adjusted from time to time according to prevailing financial market conditions. Exchange was finally suspended in June, 1949, after rapid depreciation of value of the Gold Yuan. Exchange was resumed July 11 after the Silver Yuan replaced the Gold Yuan.

On June 15, 1949, the Taiwan provincial currency also underwent a local reform. The new currency is directly pegged with the U. S. dollar at exchange rate of five New Taiwan Dollars for one U. S. dollar. The old Taiwan currency was permitted to remain in circulation

until December 31, 1949, and could be exchanged at the Bank of Taiwan at the rate of 400,000 old dollars for one new dollar.

Maximum issuance of the New Taiwan Dollar, known as the *Hsin Taipei*, is fixed by the provincial financial authorities at 200-million, which is backed by 800,000 ounces of gold as reserve. The new currency may be used to purchase foreign exchange according to the provisions of the *Regulations Governing Imports and Exports, Remittances, Gold and Silver* in Taiwan.

The new *Taipei* [Taiwan currency] Reserve Supervisory Commission publishes periodically the total amount to date of notes issued and the reserves delivered to the custody of the issue department of the Bank of Taiwan.

As of July 31, 1949, total issuance of new Taiwan dollar notes was NT\$68,772,070. In addition, there were NT\$9,662,079 old Taiwan dollar notes and bank orders still in circulation. Thus there was a total of NT\$78,434,149.80 in notes and orders circulating in the province. This was equivalent to 280,121 ounces of gold.

New Taiwan Dollar notes issued up to December 31, 1949 totalled NT\$197,923,782.50.*

(8) *Industry and Mining*. The provincial government reported that at the

* Note issue as of January 31, 1950 totalled NT\$177,923,782.50, NT\$20,000,000 less than the 1949 total. The decrease resulted from a policy restricting note issuance by the Taiwan provincial government.

end of November, 1949, factories in Taiwan totalled 9,923. More than half, or 5,026 factories, were food processors. Other industrial categories included chemicals—1,259 factories; ceramics—1,074 factories; and metals—928 factories. Lumber and woodwork, spinning and weaving, and machine tools are other important factory categories. Sugar production in 1949 amounted to 630,000 metric tons, 21 times that of 1945 when China took over Taiwan from the Japanese. The peak production of Taiwan sugar under Japanese rule was 1,400,000 metric tons.

There are considerable deposits of gold, silver, copper and coal, and also oil fields, most of them requiring development.

Much of Taiwan's industrial and mining establishments were destroyed by war-time bombing. When China regained Taiwan in 1945, 40 to 80% war damage to these establishments was found. Rehabilitation of industry and mining enterprises has continued since then.

(9) *Trade*. Chief among Taiwan's export goods are cane sugar, rice, tea, natural camphor and menthol, and fruits, while the main imports are cotton piece-goods, flour, fertilizers and kerosene.

Foreign trade figures for the first 11 months of 1949, released by the Bank of Taiwan, are: total exports, US\$28,506,069.08, of which sugar exports equalled US\$12,936,366.65; and total imports, US\$20,284,619.68.

(10) *Administration*. When China regained Taiwan after the end of World War II the administration of Taiwan was placed under a Chief Administrator. General Chen Yi was appointed to the post in October, 1945. The administration was reorganized in accordance with the regular provincial organization system in April, 1947. Wei Tao-ming, former Ambassador to the U. S., was appointed governor of the province. General Chen Cheng took over the governorship in January, 1949 and remained at the post until he resigned on December 15, 1949. K. C. Wu, formerly mayor of Shanghai and Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, became governor of Taiwan on December 21, 1949.

The Taiwan provincial government organization was as follows: governor, K. C. Wu; secretary-general, Dison Poe; civil affairs commissioner, Chiang Wei-chuan; finance commissioner, Jen Hsien-chun; education commissioner, Chen Hsueh-ping; reconstruction commissioner, Peng Teh; agriculture commissioner, Hsu Ching-chung; and members of the provincial commission, Peng Meng-chi, Li Yu-pang, Yang Chao-chia, Li Yi-chung,

Yu Mi-chien, Chu Wen-po, Liu Chien-shan, Tu Tsung-ming, Chen Chi-ching, Li Lien-chun, Hua Ching-chi, Lin Jih-kao, Chen Shang-wen, Chen Tien-shun, Chen Ching-fen, Yen Chin-hsien, and Tsou Ching-chih. Among the members of the provincial commission 17 are native Taiwanese.*

To increase administrative efficiency and to reduce expenses, readjustment of the Taiwan administrative structure was undertaken during 1949 under the direction of Governor Chen Cheng. Among the various organs under the provincial government, 16 which were considered non-essential were abolished, six units were amalgamated, two units were reorganized, 32 units were readjusted and placed under a new system to increase efficiency, and five units were reduced to smaller organs. During the same period, only four new organs were established.

(11) *Education*. Abolition of the educational system enforced by the Japanese was the first step taken to rehabilitate Taiwan's schools when Chinese administration was re-established in 1945. Japanese-prescribed curricula for all grades of educational institutions were abolished, and in their stead new curricula in conformity with standards of the mainland were adopted. Enrollment in all classes of educational institutions has registered a sharp increase in four years.

The table on page 38 gives comparative data for the 1945 and 1949 academic years.

Taiwan has a high ratio of school attendance among all school-age children. In December, 1949, 78.77 percent of 1,067,647 school-age children were actually receiving school education.

(12) *Communications*. Taiwan has about 3,600 km. of railways which skirt the island. Highways total about 3,700 km. Steamship lines connect the province with the mainland (service now suspended), the South Seas, Japan and other parts of the world. Airlines link Taiwan with Shanghai, Canton and other cities on the mainland (service now suspended). Air service is maintained with Hongkong. In December, 1949, Taipei, the provincial capital, became a stopover point on the Manila-Tokyo airline.

The first railroad ever built on the island was constructed in 1891 by the Chinese. Running from Keelung to Taipei, it was 28.6 km. long. Although the Japanese had completed extensive rail-

* The provincial government underwent another reorganization in January, 1950. Chiang Wei-chuan and Peng Teh were replaced by Yang Chao-chia (as civil affairs commissioner) and Chen Shang-wen (as reconstruction commissioner).

SCHOOLS AND THEIR ENROLLMENT IN TAIWAN

Type of Schools	1945 Academic Year		1st Term, 1949 Academic Year (figures of December, 1949)	
	Number	Enrollment	Number	Enrollment
Elementary.....	1,053	850,097	1,191	901,950
Intermediary (middle, normal, and vocational schools).....	221	68,568	206	117,721
Higher (university and independent colleges).....	5	2,022	6	5,949

SOURCE: Education Department, Taiwan Provincial Government

way construction in Taiwan, the rails, ties, bridges as well as locomotives and rolling stock were in poor condition when the Chinese took over in 1945. Railway rehabilitation, coupled with new installations and extended services, improved both passenger and freight transportation operations. During the first ten months of 1949, a daily average of 437 trains traveling 27,572 km. over the 927.7 km. of railways in operation was registered. Passenger and freight haulage increased sharply during the second half of 1949. In July, 1949, 3,771,499 passengers were carried; increasing to 6,110,271 in October.

At the end of 1949, there were 259 locomotives, 471 passenger coaches, and 5,685 freight cars. November, 1945, rolling stock included 244 locomotives (of which 110 were damaged or unserviceable), 498 passenger coaches (173 damaged), and 5,880 freight cars (807 damaged).

Before the Chinese took over Taiwan, there was a total of 3,797.5 km. of trunks and branch highways plus 13,718.1 km. of rural roads. There was an average of 48 km. of roads of all grades for every square kilometer of the island's area, a ratio higher than that of any mainland province.

The maximum monthly total of 39,717 highway bus runs was registered during 1949, with the peak record of 1,469,128 passengers transported during the month. In freight transportation, from the latter part of April to the end of October, 1949, 21,747.5 tons of freight were carried. The performance record was 369,093.2 ton-km. Compared with operations during the first month under Chinese management in 1945, transport capacity has increased no less than 35 times.

In April, 1949, the Taiwan Navigation

Corporation was reorganized. Reinforced by seven ships leased from the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company, the corporation had 16 ships in service in 1949. Ships of the company participated in the government evacuation of Shanghai, Tsingtao, Foochow, Amoy and Swatow during 1949. During the January-October period, 1949, Taiwan Navigation Corporation's ships carried a monthly average of 1,117 passengers and 12,790 tons of cargo. Service to Singapore, Siam, Bangkok, Manila, Korea and Japan has been maintained.

Beginning April, 1949, postal and telecommunications services were separated upon the establishment of the Taiwan Postal Administration. A monthly average of 2,530,268 pieces of mail, including parcel post, was carried and handled, as compared with an average of 2,235,536 pieces per month in 1948; and 2,341,881 pieces in 1947.

Shortly after Taiwan was regained in 1945, there were only 8,786 subscribers of city telephones. In 1949 there were 16,567 subscribers. For long-distance telephone, bare wire totalled 12,643 pair-km. and underground cables totalled 17,649 pair-km. in 1949. A total of 4,418 km. of telegraph lines was in service in 1949. Radiotelephone service is maintained with Hongkong, Macao, Tokyo and the United States.

(13) *Program for 1950.* At the 121st meeting of the Taiwan provincial council on November 4, 1949, the provincial government adopted a draft resolution entitled "Guiding Principles for the Administration of Taiwan in 1950." This resolution has been adopted by both the provincial government and the Taiwan Administrative Conference for enforcement.

Covering aspects of political, economic and cultural affairs, the program emphasizes the defense of Taiwan and improvements for both the province and the people. Politically, the main tasks include promotion of local self-government, continuation of the land reform measures, organization for self-defense, strengthening of government structure, and furthering cooperation between the people and the armed forces. The resolution requires: "All measures must be aimed at improving the standard of living of the people, adjusting to the people's needs, overcoming their difficulties, and guaranteeing their security, so that the government and the people may make a joint effort in utilizing the province's manpower, material and financial resources to coordinate with military operations and to win the final victory in the anti-communist war."

Economically, efforts will be made toward the increase of production, stabilization of finances, development of foreign trade, control of commodities for equitable distribution, and improvement in communications facilities. In 1950, the objective is to produce commodities worth US\$50,000,000 and to increase rice production by another 20 percent (to 1,400,000 tons). In taking measures for food production increase, attention will be centered on irrigation, production of fertilizers, improvement of seeds and farm implements, and reclamation. Development of private industries will be intensified along with improvement in government operated enterprises.

In Taiwan, primary education is tuition-free and the pupils receive free textbooks from the government. Taiwan provincial authorities hope that it will be possible to issue, in full or at least in part, all necessary school supplies. More scholarships will be made available in middle schools and universities, and employment training and guidance will be given to school graduates.

ANHWEI

Area: 146,303 km.

Population: 22,462,217 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 63

Municipality: 1

Capital: Hofei

(1) *Topography*. Anhwei may be divided into three parts. The northern section, which covers mainly the Hwai river valley, constitutes part of the North China Plain. Central Anhwei, which embraces the Yangtze valley, is the richest and the most densely populated region of the

province. Southern Anhwei is rather mountainous. The population in the small basins is dense and agriculture flourishes.

The two main mountain ranges are the Wanshan, which extends into northern Anhwei and is known as the Tapih mountains; and the Huangshan, which is part of the Hsienhsia range extending into Chekiang and Kiangsi. Huangshan, or the "Yellow Mountain," is a famous scenic spot in the triangular area bordering Sih sien, Ihsien and Taiping in southern Anhwei.

The Yangtze and Hwai rivers are the two most important rivers in this province. Before it was returned to its pre-war course, the Yellow river poured into the Hwai river. As a result, flood was a serious problem in northern Anhwei, northern Kiangsu and eastern Honan.

(2) *Climate*. The climate in Anhwei is generally mild, but varies slightly in the northern, central and southern parts. There is sufficient rainfall.

(3) *Agriculture*. The main crops are rice and tea. Anhwei produces 60 percent of China's tea. Other products such as beans, kaoliang, corn, tobacco, peanuts and silk are also abundant.

(4) *Industry and Mining*. Coal is found in Fanchang, Suhsien, Hwaiyuan, and Kweichih; iron in Tangtu and Wanshan; and copper in Tungling. Factories are concentrated in Wuhu above Nanking along the Yangtze and Pengpu, along the Tientsin-Pukow railway. Most of them are flour mills and small chemical works. Important industries include the manufacture of paper and Chinese ink.

(5) *Communications*. Anhwei railways are the Tientsin-Pukow, the Nanking-Wuhu, and the Hwainan lines. The Tientsin-Pukow line passes through the northeastern corner of the province, while the Nanking-Wuhu line runs through the southeastern part. The Hwainan railway begins from Tienchiaan on the south bank of the Hwai river, crosses Hofei and Tsaohsien and joins the Nanking-Wuhu railway at Yuki, opposite Wuhu.

There are 5,500 km. of highways in Anhwei, Hofei, Wuhu, Pengpu, Hwaining (Anking) and Chiehshou are junctions.

River ports along the Yangtze include Wuhu, Hwaining, Tatung and Tikang. Steamboats can negotiate most of the smaller rivers.

(6) *Important Cities*. (a) **HOFEI**, the provincial capital, is geographic center of the province and is a rice and cotton market center. It is linked with Wuhu by rail and Hwaining by road.

(b) **HWAINING** (Anking), located on the northern bank of the Yangtze river in western Anhwei, was the provincial capital before the war.

(c) **TUNGCHENG**, north of Hwaining, is the birthplace of many famous men of letters during the Manchu dynasty.

(d) **WUHU**, on the Yangtze, is one of the largest rice markets in China.

(e) **PENGPU**, in northern Anhwei, has been made a municipality under the provincial government. It is on the Tientsin-Pukow railway and is the converging point of several important highways.

(f) **CHIEHSHOU**, in northern Anhwei, has become an important commercial town since the war. It is on the upper reaches of the Ying river and is connected with Honan and Hupeh by highways.

(g) **CHIMEN**, in southern Anhwei, is a tea center. The Chimen (Keemun) black tea is now world-famous. Chimen also produces porcelain clay.

(h) **SIHSIEN** (Hweichow) in southern Anhwei is famous for Chinese ink-sticks, writing brushes and ink slabs. Hweichow merchants can be found scattered throughout the lower Yangtze provinces.

ANTUNG

Area: 62,279 sq. km.

Population: 2,992,305 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 18

Municipalities: 2

Capital: Tunghwa.

(1) *Topography*. The Changpai mountains, stretching northeastward across the province, are the principal mountain ranges of the northeast, and form the watershed of the Yalu, Tumen and Sungari rivers. The highest peak, Paitoushan (Whitehead Mountain), rises 3,000 m. above sea level. The Yalu river, which empties into the Yellow Sea, forms a natural boundary between Antung province and Korea. It is 806 km. in length, and waters an area of 38,000 sq. km. The Sungari river, originating on the northern slope of the Changpai mountains, flows past Fusung into Kirin.

(2) *Climate*. The mean temperature for the province, exclusive of the Changpai mountains, is 42 degrees F., similar to that of Liaoning province. The Yalu river is frozen over from November through February. Rainfall is more abundant than in Liaoning province, ranging from about 975 mm. per year at Antung to about 675 mm. for the region around Tunghwa and Hailung.

(3) *Forests and Agriculture*. Thick

forests, those in the Yalu river basin being especially rich in virgin growths, cover approximately 2-million acres.

Principal agricultural products are soy bean, from Hailung, Tungfeng and Chingyuan; paddy rice from Antung, Tatungkou, and Liuho; kaoliang from the Tung-hwa area; corn and tobacco from Fengcheng and Antung; and ginseng from the Fusung area.

(4) *Industry and Mining*. Coal is plentiful, though mostly undeveloped. Principal coal beds are found at Yantungkou (estimated at 30-million tons), Suitungkou, Sungshu, Fusung, Wankou, Chian, Shansungkan and at Wutaokiang and Pataokiang in the Tunghwa district.

Iron deposits are known to be at Chitakou (estimated at 10-million tons, 53 percent iron content) and Santaokou, both in Chian; Talitzekou (estimated at 70-million tons, 63 percent iron content), Laoling, and Antzeho in Lingkiang.

Rich gold deposits have been found in Huinan and Paomachwan. Other gold mines have been worked at Koujientientze, north of Chingyou; Wanpaokaite in Kwantien; and Tamiakou in the Tung-hwa district.

Among other mineral products are lead from Kwantien and Fengcheng; copper from Huinan; and alum from Fengcheng.

Seven hydro-electric plants, with a total capacity of 1,645,000 kws., had been planned for the Yalu river valley by the Japanese as early as 1937, but only one of them, the Suifeng plant, was completed.

Tunghwa was developed as an iron industrial center, producing light machine products; while Antung, another center of light industries, was noted for its chemical plants.

(5) *Communications*. About 600 km. of railway lines crisscross the province. They are:

Antung-Shenyang Line: from Shenyang in Liaoning to Antung, via Lienshankwan and Fengcheng, connecting with the railroads of northern Korea;

Meihokow-Chian Line: from Meihokow through Liuho and Tunghwa to Chian, roughly parallel to the Shenyang-Antung line;

Yungchi-Hailung Line: from Yungchi in Kirin province;

Shenyang-Hailung Line: from Shenyang in Liaoning province via Fusung, Chingyuan and Meihokow; and

A small section of the Szepingkai-Shahokow branch line in Liaopei province runs between Tungfeng and Shahokow.

Highways connect Antung with Kwantien and Fengcheng; Hailung with Tunghwa and Fusung; Huanjen and Tunghwa

with Shenyang in Liaoning province; Fengcheng with Chuangho in Liaoning province; and Tungfeng with Sifeng in Liaopei province.

The Yalu river is navigable for about 600 km., the many rapids in the upper reaches are maneuverable only to wooden rafts. Tatung harbor, at the mouth of the Yalu outside of Antung, is the only available sea port, but its commercial importance is limited by the great variation in its water-marks between high and low tides.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) TUNG-HWA, the provincial capital, is Antung's communication center. Here the building of junks prospers.

(b) ANTUNG, the largest city in the province, is on the west shore of the Yalu river. It is a marketing center for soy bean, timber, cotton, wheat flour and kerosene.

CHAHAR

Area: 283,675 sq. km.

Population: 2,185,774 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 19

No. of Mongolian Banners: 19

Municipality: 1

Capital: Kalgan

(1) *Topography.* Chahar derives its name from the Chahar Banner of Mongolia, meaning "Near Border." Its northern region belongs to the Mongolian plateau, while the southern portion is a steppe, excellent for grazing.

The Yinshan range, extending from Suiyuan, forms a number of slopes and small basins in Chahar. The Hsiaowutai-shan range is in the southern part of the province. Its highest peak is about 3,500 m.

The Yungting river, which originates in Shansi, runs through Chahar before it turns into Hopei. The Pai river which originates in Tushihkow runs southward into Jehol and Hopei.

(2) *Climate.* Chahar has a continental climate with strong winds and scanty rainfall. Summer is hot, while winter is bitterly cold.

(3) *People.* The inhabitants are mainly Chinese and Mongols. There are also some Manchus and Tibetans. (For further details, see section on Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture.* Agricultural products such as wheat, barley, kaoliang and beans are produced in areas south of the Great Wall. Chahar produces large quantities of mushrooms and rhubarb.

Animal husbandry is the province's main form of revenue. Chahar is the home of the well-known Mongolian ponies. Cat-

tle, sheep and camels are also numerous. Furs and wool are the chief items of export.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Chahar is rich in iron, its production being next only to Liaoning and Hupeh. The main iron-producing areas are Lungkwan and Hsuanhwa. Coal is also abundant.

Industry is still in the infancy stage in this province.

(6) *Communications.* The Peiping-Suiyuan railway passes through Chahar at Hwailai, Hsuanhwa and Kalgan. Highways total 2,500 km. Trade routes connect the province with Outer Mongolia and the northeastern provinces.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KALGAN (Wanchuan), the provincial capital, is a strategic pass on the Great Wall and the largest trading town in the Inner Mongolian provinces.

(b) TOULUN, eastern Chahar, is the communication and commercial link between Inner Mongolia and Outer Mongolia. Goods concentrated here include furs, wool, animals, rugs and carpets, and timber.

(c) HSUANHWA, on the Peiping-Suiyuan railway, is an iron and coal town. The Lungyen Iron Mining Company is located here.

CHEKIANG

Area: 102,646 sq. km.

Population: 19,958,715 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 77

Municipality: 1

Capital: Hangchow

(1) *Topography.* Chekiang, south of Kiangsu, is also largely a plain, but its southwestern part is rather mountainous. The Hsienhsia, Yentang and Tienmu ranges all extend northeastward from the Fukien, Kiangsi and Anhwei borders. Among the mountains the most famous is the Buddhist Tientaishan in eastern Chekiang.

Important rivers in the province include the Chientang, Tsaongo, Yung, and Ou rivers. The West Lake in Hangchow is known for its scenic beauty. The Grand Canal flows past Kiashing and reaches Hangchow.

(2) *Climate.* The climate is generally mild except in areas south of the Hienhsia range where it is semi-tropical.

(3) *Agriculture and Fishery.* Chekiang is one of China's richest provinces. Important agricultural products are rice, cotton, silk, wheat, and tea. It is China's largest silk producer.

The Chushan archipelago is the largest fishing area along the East China Sea

coast, with over 1-million active fishermen.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Chekiang is not rich in minerals. Among its better-known mines are the coal collieries in Changhing. Salt and alum are abundant.

The most important industry in Chekiang is silk, with Hangchow and Wuhing as the two main producing centers. Other important products include Shaohsing wine, Kinhwa ham, and Ningpo furniture.

(5) *Communications.* There are two railways in Chekiang: the Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo and the Chekiang-Kiangsi lines.

Highways total more than 3,200 km. Important highway centers are Hangchow, Ningpo, Lishui, Kiangshan, and Wenchow.

Navigation along Chekiang's rivers is limited to small steamboats. The only exception is the lower reaches of the Chientang river, which was found navigable to coastal ships in 1948.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) HANGCHOW (Pop. 606,136—June, 1948), the provincial capital located on the north shore of the Chientang river, is both an industrial and educational center. The National Chekiang University and the Hangchow Christian College are located there. The West Lake draws tourists by hundreds of thousands yearly.

(b) HAINING, at the mouth of the Chientang river, is noted for its bore which occurs every fall.

(c) CHAPU, north of the Hangchow bay, was selected by Dr. Sun Yat-sen as the site for the construction of a large harbor.

(d) MOKANSHAN, famous summer resort in Wukang, northwest of Hangchow.

(e) KINHWA, railway town in central Chekiang, is famous for its ham and dates.

(f) NINGPO is the marketing center for eastern Chekiang. Fenghwa, near Ningpo, is Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's birthplace.

(g) The CHUSHAN ARCHIPELAGO, a group of more than 200 islands off the Chekiang coast, forms important fishing grounds. Chushan Island is the largest; on it is located the Pootoo mountain, one of China's Buddhist sacred mountains.

(h) SHAOHSING, railway town southeast of Hangchow, is an ancient city with many spots of historical interest. Shaohsing's yellow wine is famous throughout China.

(i) WENCHOW (Yungkia) is a small port in southern Chekiang. Im-

portant commodities concentrated here include timber, bamboo, tea, and leather.

CHINGHAI

Area: 667,236 sq. km.

Population: 1,307,719 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 19

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 1

No. of Mongolian Banners: 29

Municipality: 1

Capital: Sining

(1) *Topography.* Chinghai (Kokonor) derives its name from the 4,200 sq. km. Chinghai (lake). The province is part of the Tibetan plateau, where the headwaters of the Yangtze and Yellow rivers are found. The Bayenkara (mountain) is the divide of the two longest rivers in China. In the Tsaidam basin in the mid-northwestern part of the province is the Tsaidam river.

The Bayenkara and Chilien are Chinghai's main ranges, both being branches of the Kunlun range.

(2) *Climate.* Chinghai has a continental climate with a severe winter. Temperature varies greatly between day and night. The Tsaidam basin has a hot summer and little rainfall. In the southeastern part, rainfall is comparatively frequent.

(3) *People.* There are more Tibetans and Mongols in Chinghai than Chinese and Mohammedans. The Mongols and Tibetans are organized in banners and groups. (For further details, see sections on Mongolia and Tibet.)

(4) *Agriculture.* The agricultural areas are in the eastern part of the province. The principal crops are wheat and barley, which are barely enough for the province's own consumption. Chinghai produces large quantities of medicinal herbs.

The Mongols are nomads. Cattle is their main form of wealth. Sheep's wool produced in Chinghai is considered the best in China.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Chinghai produces gold, coal and salt, and is rich in iron, silver, tin, aluminum, and other mineral deposits. There is practically no modern industry, but woolen goods, hide and oil are produced.

(6) *Communications.* There is no railway in Chinghai. Old trade roads have been made into highways which now connect Chinghai with Sikang and Kansu. Its rivers are only navigable by rafts.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) SINING (Pop. 55,564—June, 1948), the provincial capital, was an ancient town for trade and contact between the interior provinces and the border peoples. It is now a mar-

keting center of sheep's wool, timber, salt, tea and daily necessities.

(b) TAERHSSU, southwest of Sining, has a famous lamasery with more than 3,000 lamas.

(c) HWANGYUAN, northwest of Sining on the Hwang river, is the largest trading town among the Chinese, Mongols, Tibetans and Mohammedans, and is known as the "Little Peking" of Chinghai.

(d) YUSHU, in southern Chinghai, is the starting point of a highway to Sikang.

FUKIEN

Area: 120,114 sq. km.

Population: 11,143,083 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 67

Municipalities: 2

Capital: Foochow

(1) *Topography*. Fukien is mountainous in the northwestern and western parts and levels off as it approaches the sea. The mountain ranges are Wuyishan, Fenglingshan, Taiyunshan, and Liangshan. The leading river is the Min.

Fukien is located almost directly west of Taiwan. Between them in the Formosa Straits are the Pescadores (Penghu).

(2) *Climate*. Its climate is mild and seasonal changes are regular in the southeastern part of the province. The northwestern regions enjoy almost continental climate. Rainfall is heavy, especially in June, July and August. Typhoons often sweep the Fukien coast after July.

(3) *Agriculture*. Although Fukien grows rice, corn and wheat, it is not self-sufficient in food. It produces large quantities of sugar, fruits, tea and timber.

(4) *Industry and Mining*. There are considerable coal and iron deposits, but mining is not yet developed.

Fukien's ship-building industry has a long history. Mamoi once served as a base of the Chinese Navy. Other industries include paper, sugar, tea and textiles. Fukien's lacquerware is famous throughout the country.

(5) *Communications*. A survey for a railway linking Foochow with the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway in Kiangsi was completed in 1948. Fukien has about 4,500 km. of highways, which connect it with its neighboring provinces.

Steamships from all parts of the country call at Foochow and Amoy, but river navigation is limited to small steamboats and wooden junks.

Both Foochow and Amoy are communication stations for the national airlines.

(6) *Important Cities*. (a) **FOOCHOW** (Pop. 300,337—June 1948), the provincial capital, is both a political and commercial

center. Tea is the most important commodity; next come timber, paper, lacquerware and tobacco.

(b) **MAMOI** (Mawei), 25 km. east of Foochow, is a naval base, where the Naval Academy was formerly located.

(c) **AMOY** (Pop. 124,075—June 1948), serves as a port city for southern Fukien and eastern Kiangsi. Tea is the principal export item.

(d) **LUNGKI**, on the north bank of the Lung river, is a commercial center for southeastern Fukien. Important commodities include silk and sugar.

HEILUNGKIANG

Area: 257,763 sq. km.

Population: 2,844,211 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 25

No. of Mongolian Banner: 1

Municipality: 1

Capital: Peian

(1) *Topography*. The Ilihuli mountains run along the Hsingan-Heilungkiang border, being part of the Great Hsingan range. Further south it becomes known as the Little Hsingan range. The waters on the southern slope feed into the Nonni river; on the northern slope, the Amur. The Little Hsingan runs southward from the Ilihuli mountains as far as the border of Hokiang province, forming the watershed for the Amur, the Nonni and the Sungari rivers. The highest peak in the Ilihulis reaches 1,833 m.

The Amur is the largest river and forms a boundary between China and the Soviet Union. The Nonni river flows along the Hsingan-Heilungkiang border down to Nunkiang province.

(2) *Climate*. The climate is extremely cold, especially in its northern and western parts. The ground is frozen and covered with snow from October through April. The highest temperature reached during the year is about 95 degrees F.; the lowest, about 40 degrees F. below zero; with the mean temperature at about 28 degrees F. Annual rainfall is about 375 mm.

(3) *People*. Besides the Chinese, Manchus and Mongol elements, there is a small number of Orochons, expert horsemen and hunters.

(4) *Agriculture*. The agricultural section of the province is centered around Peian, the provincial capital, and the towns in the south. Chief products are soybean, wheat, rice, tobacco and hemp, the first two occupying an important position among the northeastern provinces. The largest forest reserve, practically all virgin timber, is in the Little Hsingan

region and consists of various species of pine, poplar and birch. The estimated area of the reserve is 24-million acres; the amount, 34-billion cubic feet.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Gold is the most important mineral produced in this province, accounting for about 85 percent of the entire reserve in the northeast. Principal mines are located at Moho, Huma, Oupu, Nuncheng, Heiho and Aigun, of which the placer mines at Moho rank first in the entire nation, having a gold content of 60 to 70 percent.

Industries are practically non-existent, aside from small establishments of flour mills, distilleries and vegetable oil plants.

(6) *Communications.* The following railways are centered at Peian, totalling about 984 km.:

Tsitsihar-Peian Line: linking Peian with Tsitsihar in Nunkiang province;

Hulun-Peian Line: from Hulun in Nunkiang province to Peian through Suihua, Hailun and Tungpei, being the chief carrier line for agricultural products from this province;

Peian-Heiho Line: an important strategic line, extending to Aigun and Heiho, on the international boundary, over the Little Hsingan mountains;

Suihua-Kiamusze Line: principal inlet for coal from Hokiang province; and

Ningnien-Holungmen Line: from Ningnien in Nunkiang province to Holungmen, by way of Naho and Nuncheng, passing through farm and forest areas.

Chief artery for water transportation is the Amur river, navigable by steamers all the way below Moho. Highways exist in the southern part of the province, linking the various *hsien* cities.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) PEIAN, the provincial capital, is a railway junction and trading center for agricultural and animal products.

(b) AIGUN, railway terminus, is a strategic town on the Chinese-Soviet border.

(c) MOHO, on Chinese-Soviet border, produces gold.

HOKIANG

Area: 134,406 sq. km.

Population: 1,841,000 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 17

Municipality: 1

Capital: Kiamusze

(1) *Topography.* The Little Hsingan mountains, running along the border of Hokiang and Heilungkiang provinces, form a wooded plateau on the banks of the Sungari. The Wanta mountains run in a northeasterly direction from Muling

in Sungkiang province to the junction of the Sungari and Ussuri rivers, and form a watershed for the Muling and Jaoli rivers. Hsiaoppaishan is on the Hokiang-Sungkiang provincial border.

The Sungari river, entering from the border of Sungkiang and Nunkiang provinces, receives the waters of the Mutankiang from the south and a couple of tributaries from the north, before it joins the Amur river at Tungkiang. Below Kiamusze the Sungari's low banks often are responsible for overflows in flood. The Amur river on the Chinese-Soviet border is joined first by the Sungari and then by the Ussuri, and eventually empties into the sea through Soviet territory. The Ussuri river originates in Soviet territory, runs northward along the Chinese-Soviet boundary, receiving the waters of the Muling and Jaoli rivers, and finally joins the Amur. The Muling and Jaoli rivers, tributaries to the Ussuri, are utilized partly for navigation and partly for irrigation.

(2) *Climate.* The temperature varies over a wide range, from about 35 degrees F. below zero in the winter to over 100 degrees F. in the summer, with the yearly mean at about 35 degrees F. Freezing sets in after October and lasts through April. Rainfall is most abundant in May and June, amounting to about 575 mm. for the year.

(3) *People.* Besides Chinese and Manchurians, there are large numbers of Mongols, as well as Japanese and Korean immigrants in recent years. Among the local tribes people are the Warkas, inhabiting the region of the Hsingkan (Khanka) lake, and the Orochons in the Little Hsingan mountain region, the former noted for their skill in fishing and the latter in hunting.

(4) *Agriculture.* Agriculture is not yet well developed, except for some soybean produced near Ilan in the Sungari valley, and rice in the vicinity of Mishan. The forest area in the lower reaches of the Sungari covers about 12-million acres, with a timber reserve estimated at 25-billion cubic feet.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Coal is produced in three mines at Mishan, with a total deposit estimated at 1,385-million tons; at Sanhsing, estimated at 334-million tons; and at Hokang, estimated at 350-million tons. These mines have a combined production of over 500,000 tons yearly, most of which is shipped to Harbin.

The only industry worth mentioning is a munitions works at Kiamusze. The rest consists mostly of small handicrafts.

(6) *Communications*. There are four railway lines serving this province with a total length of about 675 kms.:

Tumenkiang-Kiamusze Line: from Tumenkiang in Sungkiang province, on the Korean border, to Kiamusze;

Linkou-Hulin Line;

Kiamusze-Suihua Line: from Lienkiangkou, on the northern bank of the Sungari opposite Kiamusze, to Suihua in Heilungkiang province; and

Hokang Line: a coal-carrying line from Lienkiangkou to the Hsingshan mines.

Water transportation is of major importance, the Sungari river being navigable beyond Harbin, and the Ussuri accessible to small steamboats as far as Hulin. The Mutankiang is also navigable during the flood seasons.

A highway network, centering at Kiamusze and radiating toward Tungkiang, Mishan, Ilan and Poli, has been developed.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) KIA-MUSZE, the provincial capital, is on the south bank of the Sungari river, and the terminus of the Tumenkiang-Kiamusze railway. It is mainly an agricultural town.

(b) ILAN, a railway town, is a commercial center in the Mutankiang valley.

HONAN

Area: 165,141 sq. kms.

Population: 29,654,095 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 111

Capital: Kaifeng

(1) *Topography*. Honan is in the central valley of the Yellow river. While the western region is mountainous, the central and eastern parts are generally flat.

There are five mountain ranges in Honan: the Taihang, Hsiaoshan, Funiushan, Sungshan and Tapihshan. Sungshan is one of China's five sacred mountains.

The tributaries include the Yellow and Hwai rivers and the Grand Canal. The Yellow river is known as "China's Sorrow," because of frequent floods it causes. Below Chengchow in central Honan, the river has changed its course eight times from the 23rd century B.C. to 1938. The last change occurred in 1938 when the dikes at Chungmou gave way during a severe engagement between Chinese and Japanese forces. The water cut a new course across eastern Honan, northern Anhwei and northern Kiangsu, and entered the Hwai river. After the war, the river was forced back into its old course.

(2) *Climate*. Honan has a continental climate with a sharp contrast in temperature between summer and winter. There

is plenty of rainfall in late summer and early autumn.

(3) *Agriculture*. Wheat is the chief crop. Next come soybeans, cotton, kaoliang, peanuts and tobacco. The province also produces large quantities of fruits.

(4) *Industry and Mining*. Honan produces a large amount of coal. The two major coal-producing areas are Tsiaotso and Liuhokow. There are also large iron, copper, tin, lead, and silver deposits.

Cotton and flour mills and chemical works are mostly in Kaifeng, Chengchow, Anyang and Hsuehchang.

(5) *Communications*. The three railways already completed are the Peiping-Hankow, Lunghai and Taoching lines. About 7,000 km. of highways link all parts of the province.

The Hwai river serves as the main waterway between Honan and Anhwei. There is little navigation on the Yellow river as it contains too much silt.

(6) *Important Cities*. (a) KAIFENG, the provincial capital, is situated on the Lunghai railway in the eastern part of the province south of the Yellow river. It was the capital of the Five Dynasties and the North Sung dynasty.

(b) CHENGCHOW (Chenghsien), junction of the Peiping-Hankow and Lunghai railways, is the province's communication and economic center. Cotton and hide from Shensi, Kansu and western Honan are concentrated here before they are shipped to Tientsin, Tsingtao and Hankow. The Peiping-Hankow railway bridge across the Yellow river is located north of the city, and is the longest one of its kind in China.

(c) ANYANG, railway town in northern Honan, is an historic and mining center. Before the war large-scale excavation was conducted for the discovery of historical objects of the Shang (Yin) dynasty (1766-1122 B.C.). The artifacts are among the most primitive archaeological specimens of Chinese history. Liuhokow, the coal center, is to the northwest of Anyang.

(d) LOYANG, railway city in western Honan, was China's capital during the Eastern Han dynasty. The National Government chose Loyang as the nation's provisional capital during the 1932 Sino-Japanese war in Shanghai. The White Horse Temple (Pai Ma Ssu) was the first Buddhist temple built in the time of Emperor Ming Ti (A.D. 58-75). On the Lungmen mountain outside the city were carved thousands of Buddhas and other Buddhist images.

(e) HSINYANG, railway city in southern Honan, is a strategic point. In

areas south of the city there are several mountain passes where many battles were fought.

(f) **NANYANG**, southwestern Honan, is a marketing center. Highways connect the city with Shensi and Hupeh.

HOPEI

Area: 140,253 sq. km.

Population: 28,719,057 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 132

Preparatory *hsien*: 2

Special Municipalities: Peiping and Tientsin

Municipalities: 2

Capital: Paoting

(1) *Topography*. Hopei lies in the North China Plain, but its northwestern part is rather mountainous. The mountains—the Sungling, Yenshan, Wutai, and Taihang, all belong to the Yinshan system.

There are five main rivers, namely, the Pai, Yungting, Taching, and Huto and the Grand Canal, which all meet at Tientsin as Kuho or Haiho and pour into the Pohai (Gulf of Chihli) at Takukou.

(2) *Climate*. Hopei has a continental climate, a hot summer and a cold winter, but it is comparatively mild along the coast.

(3) *Agriculture*. Hopei produces large quantities of wheat, kaoliang, corn, millet, cotton and fruits. Like other north China provinces, it produces little rice.

(4) *Industry and Mining*. It is rich in minerals. The Kailan, Mentoukou and Tsingsing coal mines are important sources of fuel not only to north China but to cities like Shanghai and Nanking as well. The Kailan mines alone used to yield over 5-million tons of coal a year. Salt is also abundant.

Tientsin is a seaport and an industrial city, where cotton and flour mills and small chemical industries can be found. Handicrafts include carpets, rugs and porcelain.

(5) *Communications*. Railways include the Peiping - Hankow, Peiping - Liaoning, Peiping - Wuiyuan, Tientsin-Pukow, Chengting - Taiyuan, Peiping - Jehol, and Shihchiachwang-Tehsien lines. There are about 2,500 km. of highways. Ocean liners call at Tientsin, and steamship navigation is well developed along all the inland rivers. Peiping and Tientsin are the two important airline stations in north China.

(6) *Important Cities*. (a) **PEIPING** (formerly known as Peking) is China's cultural center and the most important political center in north China. It was the capital of the Yuan, Ming and Ching (Manchu) dynasties and the site of the

Chinese Government before the National Government chose Nanking as the capital. Peiping is known for its historical monuments and spots such as the Imperial Palaces and the Temple of Heaven. It is the junction of the Peiping - Hankow, Peiping-Mukden, Peiping-Chengteh, and the Peiping-Suiyuan railways.

(b) **TIENTSIN**, the largest port in north China, is situated at the confluence of five rivers in Hopei. Being the junction of the Peiping - Mukden and the Tientsin-Pukow railways, the city is the marketing center for all north China provinces and Mongolia and Sinkiang.

(c) **PAOTING**, the provincial capital, is 175 km. south of Peiping and 200 km. west of Tientsin. The three cities form a triangular area, which is both militarily and economically important. Flour mills and egg processing factories in Paoting are fairly large. The famous Paoting Military Academy was located here.

(d) **SHIHCHIACHWANG** (Shihmen, pop. 217,327—June, 1948), junction of the Peiping-Hankow and Chengting-Taiyuan railways, is an industrial town with cotton mills and glass works.

(e) **TAKU** and **TANGKU**, on the south and north banks of the Kuho (river), respectively, constitute the gateway to Tientsin and Peiping. A large harbor is under construction at Tangku.

(f) **CHINWANGTAO**, southwest of Shanhaikwan, is an ice-free harbor in north China, being the principal outlet of the Kailan coal mines. Peitaiho, summer resort, is southwest of Chinwangtao.

(g) **TANGSHAN** in northeastern Hopei is an industrial town.

(h) **SHANHAIKWAN** (Linyu), railway town in the northeastern corner of Hopei, is the starting point of the Great Wall.

HSINGAN

Area: 278,437 sq. km.

Population: 327,563 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 7

No. of Mongolian Banners: 11

Municipality: 1

Capital: Hailar

(1) *Topography*. The Great Hsingan and Ilihuli mountains are the chief mountain ranges. The Great Hsingan range begins on the borders of Jehol and Chahar provinces and crosses the entire state, the province deriving its name from these mountains. It attains an average height of between 1,630 and 1,830 m.; its principal peaks are the Wutewentu (2,030 m.), the Great Hsingan and the Hukeshan. After crossing into Heilungkiang prov-

ince, it becomes known as the Iihuli mountains.

The Amur river, known to the Chinese as the Heilungkiang, or Black Dragon river, begins in the mountains of Outer Mongolia, and entering this province near Lupin (Manchuli), forms a portion of the boundary with the Soviet Union.

(2) *Climate*. Of all the provinces of the northeast, Hsingan has the most unfavorable climate, being extremely cold and arid. The temperature ranges from 40 degrees F. below zero in the winter to about 96 degrees F. in the summer. Annual rainfall measures hardly 300 mm.

(3) *People*. The population is largely Mongol, with a scattering of Chinese and Manchus. In the prairies west of the Hsingan mountains live a minority group of Solons, who live by hunting and are noted for their fierce fighting qualities.

(4) *Agriculture*. On the eastern slopes of the Hsingan mountains are some arable areas planted to corn, millet, wheat and potato, and large uncultivated tracts suitable for agriculture. The Great Hsingan forests, covering an estimated average of 34-million acres with 55-billion cubic feet of virgin timber, constitute the largest forest area in all China. The timberlands along the western portion of the Chinese Changchun railway extend 2,500,000 acres and has a reserve of 5-billion cubic feet of timber.

Pasturing is by far the most important occupation. On the eastern slopes of the Hsingan mountains, about 15,000 head of cattle are produced each year; while on the western slopes large numbers of horses are herded. Practically all of the Mongol people are engaged in the grazing of these animals.

(5) *Minerals*. The coal fields of Chailainor, with a reserve of 3,980-million tons and an annual production of 139,000 tons, are the most important source of coal in this province, supplying the needs of the Chinese Changchun railway as well as those of Nunkiang province.

Gold mines in the vicinity of Shihwei are also important mineral resources, though they have not been sufficiently developed, due to communications difficulties.

(6) *Communications*. There are only two railway lines, the Chinese Changchun railway (western section) and the Taoan-Dulur line, with a combined length of 640 km. within the province.

Highway communications in the Mongol areas are centered at Hailar. Numerous roads also exist in the south. The Amur river within this province is only suitable for small craft, hence, because of

the long distances to be covered, it is not very serviceable.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) HAILAR (Hulun), the provincial capital, is a railway town of the south shore of the Hailar river. As Hsingan is largely undeveloped virgin territory, pastoral life generally prevails. Hailar is, therefore, a trading center chiefly for cattle, sheep and animal products.

(b) LUPIN (Manchuli), starting point of the Chinese Changchun railway which is linked with the Soviet railway system in Siberia, is a trading center for the northeast, Russia and Outer Mongolia.

HUNAN

Area: 204,771 sq. km.

Population: 25,557,926 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 77

Municipalities: 2

Capital: Changsha

(1) *Topography*. Hunan means "South of the Lake" (Tungting). It is largely a stretch of flatland in the north but becomes more and more hilly toward the south. The mountains in Hunan are the Nanling, Hengshan, Hsuehfang and Wuling ranges. The Nanling range runs along the borders of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan and Kiangsi. The 1,300-m. Hengshan in central Hunan is considered one of China's five sacred mountains.

There are five important rivers in Hunan—the Yangtze, Hsiang, Tze, Yuan and Li rivers. The 3,750-sq.-km. Tungting lake is in the northern part of the province.

(2) *Climate*. The climate in Hunan is generally mild, especially in districts around the lake. The southern part enjoys almost sub-tropical climate.

(3) *People*. Some Miaos are found in western Hunan and some Yaos in southern Hunan.

(4) *Agriculture*. Hunan is known as China's "rice bowl." The grain is produced in large quantities in the Tungting lake areas and along the river valleys. Other agricultural products include beans, tobacco, cotton, and tea. There are also many natural forests.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Hunan used to produce over 80 percent of the world's antimony. The main producing centers are Hsinhwa, Yiyang, and Shaoyang. Coal is found in Leiyang, Ichang, Hsianghsiang, Hsiangtang, Shaoyang, Chiyang, and Hengshan. Iron is produced in Anhwa, Ninghwa, Hsinhwa, Yiyang, Shaoyang, and Yunghsing. Gold, tin, copper, zinc, tungsten, and mercury are mined in Hunan.

Small factories are located in Changsha, Changteh and Hengyang. Famous Hunan handicrafts include embroidery, linen, porcelain, and paper. Hunan also produces a considerable quantity of tung oil.

(6) *Communications*. Hunan has three railways, namely, the Canton-Hankow, Pinghsiang - Chuchow, Hunan - Kwangsi-Kweichow lines. The Hunan - Kwangsi-Kweichow railway now reaches as far as Tuyun in southern Kweichow and passes through Kweilin and Liuchow in Kwangsi province.

Hunan has about 3,500 km. of highways. The province is famous for its well-built highways which extend to all the neighboring provinces.

Steamship navigation has been well developed on the various rivers and on Tungting lake.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) **CHANGSHA** (Pop. 421,616—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is a political as well as commercial center. Important commodities concentrated here include rice, tea, tung oil, porcelain and minerals. Hunan embroidery, famous throughout the country, is also marketed here. During the Sino-Japanese war, the environs of Changsha were the scene of four major battles.

(b) **YOYANG**, at the mouth of the Tungting lake, is a town of considerable military importance and is situated in the northern part of the province. It is on the Canton-Hankow railway.

(c) **CHANGTEH**, commercial town on the Yuan river in western Hunan, is a marketing center for goods from Kweichow and eastern Szechwan. Tung oil is concentrated here in large quantities.

(d) **HENGYANG**, in central Hunan, is the province's communication center, being the junction of the Canton-Hankow and Hunan-Kwangsi railways and the Hsiang, Cheng and Lei rivers. Shuikowshan, in the county of Changning, south of Hengyang, is one of China's largest tin and zinc producing centers. North of Hengyang is Hengshan, one of China's five sacred mountains.

(e) **HSINHWA**, railway town in western Hunan, is rich in antimony, tin and iron. The antimony producing area is called Hsikwangshan (Tin Mine Mountain), 20 km. east of the town of Hsinhwa, which has the world's largest antimony deposits.

HUPEH

Area: 168,229 sq. km.

Population: 20,975,559 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 70

Special Municipality: Hankow

Capital: Wuchang

(1) *Topography*. Hupeh, which means "North of the Lake" (Tungting), is mountainous in the southwest but flat in the central part. The Han river basin, in the central-northwest, is the province's richest area.

There are four principal mountain ranges: (a) the Tapiieh range in the northern part of the province along the Honan and Anhwei borders, (b) the King range, running from Szechwan into the northwest, and dividing the Yangtze and Han rivers, (c) the Wuling range, running from Kweichow and Szechwan and spanning the western part of Hupeh, and (d) the Mufu range, which runs along the Hupeh-Kiangsi border.

The two most important rivers are the Yangtze and Han rivers. The Han river has its source in Shensi, and enters Hupeh at its northwestern corner and pours into the Yangtze at Hankow which literally means "mouth of the Han river."

There are many lakes in central Hupeh.

(2) *Climate*. Seasonal changes are distinct in this province with a hot, humid summer and a cold winter. Rainfall is abundant.

(3) *Agriculture*. Hupeh produces large quantities of rice, cotton, wheat, beans and jute. There are also considerable quantities of tea, silk and tung oil.

(4) *Industry and Mining*. More than 500,000 tons of iron are produced annually in Tayeh in eastern Hupeh. Coal deposits are found in Tayeh, Yanghsing, Tsungyang and Itu. There are also copper mines in the southeastern part of the province.

Wuchang, Hankow and Hanyang are the famous tri-cities of central China. There are many cotton and flour mills, tea factories, chemical works, and iron and steel foundries in Hankow and Hanyang. Handicrafts thrive in all parts of the province. The iron works and arsenal in Hanyang were among the largest in China before the war.

(5) *Communications*. The Peiping-Hankow and Canton-Hankow lines end on both banks of the Yangtze. Hankow thus occupies an important position in domestic trade, as it is also the center of river navigation on the Yangtze. Ocean-going steamers can dock in Hankow in the summer months. Small steamers call at Hankow from points along the Han river, from Szechwan, along the Yangtze, and from Hunan through the Hsiang river and the Tungting lake.

Hupeh has more than 4,000 km. of highways which link all neighboring provinces.

There are three air stations in Hupeh—namely, Hankow, Shasi and Ichang.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) WUCHANG (Pop. 174,367—June, 1948) is the provincial capital. It was here that the Revolution of 1911 broke out which led to the founding of the Republic of China in 1912. The National Wuhan University is located here.

(b) HANKOW (Pop. 721,598—June, 1948), known as the "Chicago of the East," is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is the most important commercial city in central China. Its principal exports are cotton, iron, tung oil, eggs, and tea.

(c) HANYANG, opposite Hankow across the Han river, is an industrial city, noted formerly for its arsenal and iron works.

(d) HSIANGYANG, is a historic city on the Han river located in the northwest. Fanchang across the river is a commercial town.

(e) LAOHOKOW, commercial town in northwestern Hupeh on the Han river, is a marketing center for northern Hupeh, southwestern Honan and southern Shensi.

(f) ICHANG, river port in western Hupeh, is a commercial link between Szechwan and central China.

(g) SHASI, commercial town west of Hankow, is a marketing center in western Hupeh.

JEHOL

Area: 179,982 sq. km.

Population: 6,196,974 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 20

No. of Mongolian Banners: 20

Capital: Chengteh

(1) *Topography.* Jehol is a highland with mountains and small basins which are good for cultivation. Its northeastern part belongs to the Liao river valley.

Its main mountain ranges are the Hsinganling, Linwushan, Chilaotushan, and Sungling. The Hsinganling range traverses the borders of Chahar, Jehol and Hsingan provinces.

The principal water routes are the Liao, Luan and Je rivers.

(2) *Climate.* Jehol has a climate similar to that of Chahar, with a very severe winter.

(3) *People.* Of its total population, from 20 to 30 percent are Mongols. There are some Tibetans and Manchus living in the Chengteh area and in the lamaseries. (For more details, see sections on Tibet and Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture.* The cultivated land in Jehol is larger than that in Chahar,

with wheat, barley, kaoliang, corn and beans as the main crops. There are also many forests. As in Chahar, the Mongols in this province make their living by raising cattle.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Jehol is rich in gold and silver which are mined by native methods. The largest coal mine is in Peipiao, north of Chengteh. Industry is yet to be developed. The principal handicrafts are woolen and animal products.

(6) *Communications.* Jehol has two railways, namely, the Peiping-Jehol and Chihhsien-Chengteh lines. There are about 2,500 km. of highways, linking the province with Hopei, Liaoning, Liaopei and Chahar.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) CHENGTEH, the provincial capital, is also a commercial and communication center. The late Manchu dynasty's summer palace is located here.

(b) PINGCHUAN, railway town outside Hsifengkow, is of great strategical importance.

(c) CHAOYANG, railway town, is a trading and communication center between Jehol and the northeastern provinces. Peipiao, the coal producing town, is north of Chaoyang.

KANSU

Area: 391,506 sq. km.

Population: 7,090,517 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 69

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 2

Municipality: 1

Capital: Lanchow

(1) *Topography.* Kansu is in the upper reaches of the Yellow river and its capital Lanchow is the geographical center of the country. The province is traversed by the Chilien, Chinling and Min ranges and has a rather high altitude. The northwestern part is good for grazing only. The agricultural regions are generally in the Lanchow and Tienshui areas in the southeast.

The rivers include the Yellow, Wei, Ching, and Chialing.

(2) *Climate.* The province has a continental climate, with a hot summer and a severe winter. The summer temperature sometimes runs as high as 100 degrees F. Rainfall is light.

(3) *People.* Mohammendans live in the northwestern part of the province. The aborigines adopt lamaism as their religion. The Tibetans live mostly in the southern part of the province.

(4) *Agriculture.* Cultivable land in Kansu is limited. Among the crops are

wheat, kaoliang, corn and beans. There are small quantities of rice and tea. The acreage of natural forests is large, especially in the Liupanshan, Sichunshan and Minshan areas.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* China's largest oil fields are at Yumen in western Kansu. They are under the management of the National Resources Commission. Oil recently was also discovered near Lanchow. Other minerals found in this province are iron, coal, and gold.

Industries in Kansu include woolen and chemical works. Kansu's wool is of a fine quality.

(6) *Communications.* The Lunghai railway, which now stops at Tienhsui in southern Kansu, is to be extended first to Lanchow and eventually to Hami, Tihwa and Ili in Sinkiang.

Kansu has 6,500 km. of highways. The most important line is the Lanchow-Tihwa highway. Other lines connect the province with Shensi, Szechwan, Chinghai, and Ningsia. Lanchow is also an important stopover point on air lines linking the interior with Sinkiang.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) LANCHOW (Pop. 156,468—June, 1948), the provincial capital, on the south bank of the Yellow river, is a trading center for wool, cotton piecegoods, and other commodities. It holds the key to communications in the northwestern provinces of Kansu, Sinkiang, Chinghai, and Ningsia.

(b) TIENSHUI, southeastern Kansu, at present the terminus of the Lunghai railway, is both an agricultural and industrial center.

(c) KIAYUKWAN, on the Lanchow-Tihwa highway, marks the end of the Great Wall.

(d) TUNHWANG, in northwestern Kansu, is famous for its ancient caves in which are found stone Buddhas and murals as well as handcopied books of the Tang and the Five Dynasties.

(e) SIAHO (Labrang), southwest of Lanchow, is a large lamaist center. The Labrang Monastery, largest in the province, controls 108 small lamaseries in the area, which boasts a total of 300,000 lamas.

KIANGSI

Area: 165,258 sq. km.

Population: 12,506,912 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 81

Municipality: 1

Capital: Nanchang

(1) *Topography.* Kiangsi is located in central China. The Yangtze river runs eastward through its northern section and the Kan river northward through the cen-

tral part, emptying into the Poyang lake, which serves as a reservoir for the Yangtze. The lake area is 2,780 sq. km.

Mountain ranges in Kiangsi, such as the Tayuling, Kiulienshan, Wuyishan, and Hwaiyushan, run mostly from the southwest to the northeast. There are several other ranges in western Kiangsi. Among them is the Mufu range which runs along the Hupeh-Kiangsi border. Its highest peak is called Lushan, where the famous summer resort, Kuling, is located.

(2) *Climate.* Kiangsi climate is generally mild. Rainfall is abundant in April and May. Beginning early in autumn it is fairly dry.

(3) *Agriculture.* Kiangsi is one of China's chief rice-producing areas, especially around the Poyang lake and in the Kan river valley. Other important crops include tea grown in Hsiushui, Wuning and Kian; jute in Wantsai, Ihwang and Juikin; tobacco in Juikin, Kwangfeng and Yushan; beans and kaoliang in the Kan valley; sugar cane in Kanhsien, Tung-hsiang, Loping, and Poyang; and citrus fruits in Nanfeng and Lingchwan. Timber is also important product.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Kiangsi is famous for its tungsten, which at one time constituted 60 percent of the world's total production. Tungsten deposits are found in Tayu, Anyuan, Huichang, Kanhsien, Lungnan, Tsungyi and Shangyu. Many places in Kiangsi produce coal. Pinghsiang alone has a daily production of 2,400 tons. Kiukiang and Juichang produce iron. There are also deposits of gold, copper, tin and manganese.

The handicrafts are more important than modern industries. The most famous is the porcelain of Kintehchen (Fowliang) in northeastern Kiangsi. Small chemical industries are found in Nanchang, Kiukiang and Kanhsien.

(5) *Communications.* There are three railways in this province, namely, the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway which starts from Hangchow and terminates at Pinghsiang passing through Nanchang; the Nanchang-Kiukiang railway, and the Pinghsiang-Chuchow railway, which links the Chekiang-Kiangsi and Canton-Hankow lines. The Wuhu-Kweichih section of the Nanking-Kweichih railway is still under construction.

Highways total about 7,000 km. The province is linked with all neighboring provinces by motor roads.

River communications are well-developed. Steamboats ply the Yangtze, the Poyang lake and most of the rivers.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) NANCHANG (Pop. 203,101—June, 1948), the

provincial capital, is at the junction of the Chekiang-Kiangsi, and Nanchang-Kiukiang railways on the right bank of the Kan river. It is the marketing center for rice, porcelain, linen, timber, paper, and tobacco.

(b) KIUKIANG, river port, is noted for its tea, rice and porcelain. Kuling is 11 km. south of the city.

(c) KANHSIEN, in southern Kiangsi, is important both militarily and economically.

(d) PINGHSIANG, railway town in western Kiangsi, is one of the largest coal-producing centers in China. The coal mine is nine km. east of the town.

(e) KINGTEHCHEN, in northeastern Kiangsi, is China's porcelain-producing center.

(f) TAYU, in southern Kiangsi, is the center of tungsten production.

KIANGSU

Area: 108,314 sq. km.

Population: 36,080,123 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 61

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 1

Special Municipalities: Nanking and Shanghai

Capital: Chinkiang

(1) *Topography*. Except for some hilly regions in the northern part of the province near Anhwei and the Maoshan range along the southwestern border near Chekiang and Anhwei, Kiangsu is almost entirely a plain. The highest mountain in the province is the 642-m. Yantishan near Lienyun. Other hills include Chungshan and Chihsiashan near Nanking and Chinsshan and Chiaoshan near Chinkiang, which are all offshoots of the Maoshan range.

Important rivers in Kiangsu include the Yangtze, the Grand Canal, the Hwai and the Whangpoo. The Yangtze enters Kiangsu in an area southwest of Nanking and empties into the East China Sea at Woosung near Shanghai. Lakes, notably Taihu and Hungtse, and canals cover many parts of the province. Taihu covers an area of 3,600 sq. km. which extend into Chekiang province. Nanking is in the western part of the province.

(2) *Climate*. Kiangsu has an oceanic climate. Its temperature is seldom over 90 degrees F. in the summer or below 20 degrees F. in the winter. Rainfall is abundant in June and July. Southeasterly wind prevails in the summer and northwesterly wind in the winter. Continental climate prevails in the Hsueh area in the northwestern part of the province.

(3) *Density of Population*. One of China's richest provinces, Kiangsu has

the highest population density—about 350 persons per sq. km.—of all the provinces.

(4) *Agriculture and Fishery*. The most important agricultural products in Kiangsu are rice, cotton and silk. Kiangsu ranks first in China's cotton production and second in silk industry. Rice-producing centers are Nanhui, Nantung, Tsungming, Changshu, Taitsang, and Kiating. Wushih is its largest rice marketing center. The silk industry is concentrated in the Taihu (lake) area.

Fishery products are abundant. The Chengsze islands along the southern coast of Kiangsu are one of the nation's largest fishing areas.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Though Kiangsu is not rich in mineral deposits, it has good coal mines in Hsueh and Hsiaoshan. Salt beds in the northern part of Kiangsu are an important source of supply to neighboring provinces.

Industrially Kiangsu is fairly well developed. There are many cotton and flour mills in Wushih and Nantung. The chemical works at Luho and the cement plant at Lungtan are among the best and largest in China. Electrical manufacturing and light chemical industries dot the province. Among its best-known handicrafts are the cotton cloth of Nantung and Tsungming, silk piecegoods of Nanking and Soochow, embroidery of Soochow, and pottery of Iing.

(6) *Communications*. Important railways in Kiangsu or traversing Kiangsu are: (a) Nanking-Shanghai railway, (b) Shanghai-Hangchow railway, (c) Tientsin-Pukow railway, which has its terminus at Pukow, opposite Nanking, (d) Lunghai railway, which has its terminus at Lienyun harbor in eastern Kiangsu, and (e) Nanking-Wuhu railway, which begins at Nanking, and ends at Wuhu in Anhwei. Before the war it extended to Kweichih in Kiangsi on the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway. Traffic on the Wuhu-Kweichih section has not yet been reopened.

About 4,000 km. of highways have been built in Kiangsu. The most important artery is the Nanking-Shanghai-Hanchow stretch.

Kiangsu is a coastal province with Shanghai as its navigation center. Ocean liners call at Shanghai from all parts of the world. Steamships connect Kiangsu with both north and south China. Along the Yangtze, ships go up to Hankow and Chungking. The province has an intricate system of navigable canals and lakes.

Airlines link Shanghai and Nanking with Peiping, Chungking, Canton, Hongkong and Taiwan.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) **NANKING**, China's national capital, is situated in the southwestern corner of Kiangsu. It was the capital of several southern dynasties since the period of the Three Kingdoms. Nanking was first made the capital of the Republic by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in 1912 when he became China's first provisional president. It was again designated the national capital in 1927 by the National Government. Located on the south shore of the Yangtze river, Nanking is linked with Shanghai by the Nanking-Shanghai railway, and with Tientsin and Peiping by the Tsientsin-Pukow railway. Among the famous historical spots are the tombs of the Ming emperors and Dr. Sun Yat-sen's mausoleum. (Since December, 1949, Taipeh in Taiwan provinces has been the provisional capital of China.)

(b) **SHANGHAI**, located on the Whangpoo river, is China's largest seaport and the world's fourth largest city. Before World War II, the main business section of the city was under the control of the International Settlement and the French Concession. Since V-J Day, China took over the administration of the entire city. All goods from central and western China are concentrated here via the Yangtze river. Coastal shipping links the city with both north and south China, and ocean liners come to Shanghai from all parts of the world.

(c) **CHINKIANG**, the provincial capital, is located south of the Yangtze near the confluence of the river and the Grand Canal. It is on the Nanking-Shanghai railway.

(d) **WUSIH**, railway city west of Shanghai, is an important industrial and marketing center of silk, rice, flour, cotton and cotton piecegoods, and cooking oil. The city is on the bank of the Taihu (lake).

(e) **SOOCHOW** (Wuhsien), on the Nanking-Shanghai railway to the west of Shanghai, is famous for its scenery and embroidery.

(f) **KIANGYIN**, important fort on the Yangtze river.

(g) **NANTUNG**, industrial city north of the Yangtze river.

(h) **HSUCHOW**, junction of the Tientsin-Pukow and Lunghai railways in northern Kiangsu, is of great strategic importance. It is one of the two municipalities under the provincial government, the other being Lienyun.

(i) **LIENYUN**, the terminus of the Lunghai railway, is a harbor on the eastern Kiangsu coast.

KIRIN

Area: 72,676 sq. km.

Population: 6,465,449 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 18

No. of Mongolian Banner: 1

Municipalities: 2

Capital: Kirin

(1) *Topography.* Three mountain ranges are found in this province, two of them offshoots of the Changpai mountains. Laoyehling is on the border of Sungkiang province. Hsiaopaishan, also running close to the Sungkiang border, divides the waters of the Mutankiang and the Sungari river. Its highest peak rises to 1,950 m. The Hata mountains in the southwest continue into Liaopei province. Yungchi and Changchun, the two important metropolises, are both located near the Hata mountain highlands.

The province is watered almost entirely by the Sungari river and its tributaries. The Sungari, itself the largest tributary of the Amur river, originates in the northern slope of Paitoushan near Fusung in Antung province, cuts northward and enters Sungkiang province at Harbin. The Mutankiang, beginning in the Hsiaopaishan, finds its way into the Sungari after crossing into Sungkiang province.

(2) *Climate.* The mean temperature is somewhat lower than that of Liaoning province, ranging from 72 degrees F. in the summer to about three degrees F. in the winter, with the yearly average around 39 degrees F. Rainfall is fairly abundant, amounting to about 725 mm. for the year, most of it occurring in the months of July and August. The Sungari is frozen for about five months each year, from October through February.

(3) *Agriculture.* Principal agricultural products are soybean and millet, the two most important crops of the province; wheat, kaoliang, rice, hemp, corn and tobacco. Forests in the upper Sungari regions cover an estimated area of 3,500,000 acres; about half of which lie within Kirin, four-tenths in Antung province, and one-tenth in Sungkiang province.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Very few mineral deposits have been found, among which may be mentioned the coal fields at Chiaoho, Yungchi, and Chiutai; gold mines at Huatien and Panshih; and a small amount of copper, lead and iron in the Panshih region.

Two hydro-electric power plants were completed under the Japanese regime; namely, the Fengman and Hungshihchetzse systems, with a total capacity of 1,020,000 kws. They have so far provided the bulk

of the power for the electrically equipped industries found in the northeastern provinces. The only important industrial center is Changchun, where factories are located for the manufacture of soybean oil, woolen textiles, paper, hemp and chemical products, mostly for local consumption.

(5) *Communications*. The following railway lines, totalling 1,170 km., serve Kirin:

Chinese Changchun railway: trunk line running from Kungchuling in Liaopei province, through Changchun, Tehwei, and Shuangcheng, to Harbin;

Changpai Line: from Changchun to Taoan in Liaopei province;

Yungchi-Changchun Line: the shortest among the principal railway lines of the northeast;

Yungchi-Hailing Line: from Yungchi to Hailing in Antung province.

Yungchi-Tumenkiang Line: from Yungchi to Yenching and the Tumenkiang river in Sungkiang province, one of the important lines developed by the Japanese for their exploitation of the northeast: and

Lafa-Harbin Line.

(6) *Important Cities*. (a) KIRIN (Yungchi), the provincial capital, on the western shore of the Sungari river, is both a political and railway center. Commodities from the Sungari river valley are collected here.

(b) CHANGCHUN, the political and economic center for the entire northwest, was the capital of the puppet state of "Manchukuo" during the Japanese occupation. Later, it was the provisional headquarters of the President of the Republic of China after the territory was recovered at the end of the war. The Chinese Changchun railway maintains its administration here. The area around Changchun is flat and has the best agricultural land in the northeast. Commercially, commodities for all the nine provinces of Manchuria are marketed here.

KWANGSI

Area: 218,932 sq. km.

Population: 14,636,337 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 99

Municipality: 1

Capital: Kweilin

(1) *Topography*. Kwangsi's northwestern section is mountainous and is part of the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau, but the province is comparatively flat in the southeast.

The main mountain ranges are branches of the Wuling of Yunnan, the Koulou

range from Indo-China, the Fenghuang range of Kweichow, and the Tuyang range of Yunnan. Important rivers include the Yu, Liu and Kwei.

(2) *Climate*. There is a marked difference in climate between the north and the south. It is almost tropical in the south but comparatively mild in the north. Fog and rain prevail between May and September. It is rather cold in the winter.

(3) *People*. The aborigines include Yaos and Tungs who live in all parts of the province, particularly in the area of Yaoshan, an offshoot of the Fenghuang range.

(4) *Agriculture*. Rice is the main crop. Various kinds of fruits are produced in the southern part of the province. There are numerous forests.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Tin, zinc, silver, antimony and coal are among the minerals produced. Chemical works and machine industries are found in Kweilin, Wuchow, and Liuchow.

(6) *Communications*. The major railway in Kwangsi is the Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow line. Of the Kwangsi-Indo-China railway, thus far only the Liuchow-Laipin section has been opened to traffic.

Highways total 5,650 km. Steamboats can ply on the West and Kwei rivers. Kweilin and Wuchow are the two air stations in the province.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) KWEILIN (Pop. 142,202—June 1948), the provincial capital, is famous for its scenic beauty. The most beautiful spot is Yangso, south of Kweilin. Kweilin is a marketing town for goods from Hunan and Kwangtung. Rice for Kwangtung is also shipped here.

(b) NANNING (Yungning), the former provincial capital, is now the marketing center in southern Kwangsi.

(c) WUCHOW, on the Kwangtung-Kwangsi border, is situated at the confluence of the Hsun and Kwei rivers, and is the trading center for the two provinces. Its position in the West river valley is comparable to that of Hankow in the Yangtze valley.

(d) LIUCHOW, railway city in central Kwangsi, is a trading center for rice, hide, tung oil, timber and medicinal herbs.

KWANGTUNG

Area: 218,511 sq. km.

Population: 27,209,968 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 99

Special Municipality: Canton

Municipalities: 2

Capital: Canton

(1) *Topography*. Kwangtung is China's southernmost coastal province. Its

mountains belong to the Nanling range. They may be divided into: (a) the Wuling range, (b) the Kiulién range, which runs along the Kwangtung-Kiangsi border and is the dividing line between central and south China, (c) the Lofou range, which runs between the East and North rivers, (d) the Lienhua range, which runs south of the Mei river, (e) the Koulou range, which originates in Indo-China and extends to Kwangtung and Kwangsi, (f) the Yunwu range, which covers areas south of the West river, and (g) the Limu range, also known as the Five Finger Mountains, which covers the whole of Hainan island.

Kwangtung's largest tributary is the Pearl river, whose upper reaches are known as the East, West and North rivers.

Hainan island, with an area of 32,198 sq. km., is China's second largest island, next only to Taiwan in size. South of Hainan island is a group of small isles which form China's southernmost frontier.

(2) *Climate*. Kwangtung is close to the tropical zone and has a long summer and a short winter. The hottest months are July and August, but the highest temperature does not exceed 100 degrees F. Rainfall is abundant in April and May. Typhoons frequently sweep the coast in the summer.

(3) *People*. All the inhabitants of Kwangtung are Chinese except for some Miaos and Yaos in the mountains. On Hainan island, the aborigines are known as Lis. Miaos also live on the island.

(4) *Agriculture*. Kwangtung produces large quantities of fruits, tea, sugar cane and tobacco. It does not produce enough rice for local consumption.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Kwangtung produces small quantities of coal, iron, tungsten, tin, antimony, gold and salt.

It is famous for its handicrafts, such as embroidery, carving, and silk weaving. Modern industries are still in their initial stage. Among those already established are canning, chemical and textile factories in Canton, Swatow, Chaoan and Nanhai (Nanhai).

(6) *Communications*. There are four railways in Kwangtung: The Canton-Hankow, Canton-Kowloon, Hsinning, and Chaoan-Swatow lines.

Kwangtung has 14,516 km. of highways, the most extensive of the provinces. On Hainan island, a round-the-island highway has been completed.

Steamship navigation is well-developed along the Pearl river. Canton is linked with Hongkong both by rail and by water.

The China National Aviation Corporation maintains airfields at Canton and Swatow.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) CANTON, the provincial capital, is a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is known as China's "Revolutionary Home," as Dr. Sun Yat-sen and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek directed their revolutionary activities here in the 1920's. It is the largest commercial port in south China.

(b) WHAMPOA (Hwangpu), 18 km. southeast of Canton, was chosen by Dr. Sun Yat-sen as the site for the construction of the largest harbor in south China. It was here that the backbone of the Chinese Revolutionary Army was trained in the 1920's. Humen Fort is to the east of Whampoa.

(c) CHUNGSHAN, formerly known as Hsiangshan, coastal city south of Canton, is the birthplace of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

(d) SWATOW, is a sea port and marketing outlet for eastern Kwangtung, southern Fukien, and eastern and southern Kiangsi.

(e) KUKONG (Shaokwan), railway city in northern Kwangtung, was the wartime provincial capital. It is a marketing center as well as a strategic point.

(f) CHANKIANG, formerly known as Kwangchowwan, was leased to France in 1898 and returned to China after the end of World War II. It is situated in the eastern part of the Leichow peninsula.

(8) *Hainan As a Province*. The Legislative Yuan, at its plenary session on September 14, 1948, adopted a resolution for the creation of Hainan island as a regular province. Provincial status for Hainan has been a topic of discussion for many years. On June 14, 1947, the Executive Yuan decided to make the island a special administrative area and at the same time established a Committee for the Creation of Hainan Province. Preparations were started for its formal inauguration as a regular province of China.

KWEICHOW

Area: 170,196 sq. km.

Population: 10,173,750 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 78

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 1

Municipality: 1

Capital: Kweiyang

(1) *Topography*. Kweichow is a mountainous province. Its ranges all belong to the Nanling system, its largest being the Miaoling. Its principal river is the Wu

or Chien, which enters the Yangtze river in Szechwan province.

(2) *Climate*. The climate is mild. The temperature in the summer seldom exceeds 80 degrees F., and in the winter it is usually above 20 degrees F. But because of the high mountains and thick forests, it is often foggy and humid. Winter and spring are usually wet.

(3) *People*. Kweichow originally was inhabited by the Miaos. Now the Chinese constitute about 80 percent of its population.

(4) *Agriculture*. Kweichow is economically backward. There is a saying which describes its bad climate, rugged topography and poor economic conditions: "Hardly ever can you find three consecutive sunny days, three ounces of silver in one's pocket, or three feet of level ground."

Agriculturally, however, Kweichow is self-sufficient, because of its sparse population. The main crops are rice, wheat, corn, and sweet potatoes. There are many dense forests in the mountains.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. The province is rich in such minerals as coal, iron, copper, mercury and petroleum. But as yet it is not developed industrially. There are only a few small electrical manufacturing and chemical factories in Kweiyang, Tsunyi and Szenan. Kweichow, however, produces the best liquor in China, known as *Maotai*.

(6) *Communications*. The only railway is the Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow line which now reaches Tuyun in southern Kweichow from Liuchow in Kwangsi. In due course it will be extended to Kweiyang. There are about 3,000 km. of highways, which cross some of the most difficult mountains in China. Rivers in Kweichow are navigable by junks only.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) KWEI-YANG (Pop. 262,740—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is Kweichow's commercial center. It was a medical center during the war against Japan.

(b) TSUNYI, is northern Kweichow's gateway.

(c) ANSHUN links western Kwei-

chow with Yunnan.

(d) TUNGJEN, in northeastern Kweichow, is the marketing center for mercury and tung oil.

LIAONING

Area: 68,303 sq. km.

Population: 10,007,204 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 22

Special Municipalities: Shenyang

(Mukden) and Dairen

Municipalities: 4

Capital: Shenyang (Mukden)

(1) *Topography*. The province is traversed by the Chien-shan or southern range of the Changpai mountains. The highest peak, at about 1,825 m., is located south of Liaoyang. The range here turns southward to form the backbone of the Liaotung peninsula. The Sungling mountains to the west constitute a natural boundary between Liaoning and Jehol.

The name of the province is derived from the Liao river, which has its source in Jehol and runs for 1,341 km. into the Pohai.

(2) *Climate*. Average annual temperature ranges from 39 to 50 degrees F. Mean summer temperature at Shenyang is about 75 degrees F.; mean winter temperature, ten degrees F. The Liao river is frozen from November through February. Annual rainfall is about 725 mm., June and July being the wettest months.

(3) *Agriculture and Fishery*. The most important crop is kaoliang, produced principally in the lower part of the Liao valley. The port of Newchwang was virtually founded on the shipping of kaoliang, which is in fact the major food crop of the entire northeast. Annual production exceeds 80,000 tons, about 80 percent of this is for local consumption. Other important products are soybean, millet, rice, corn, peanuts and cotton.

Fishing is carried on along the coasts of the Yellow Sea, the Pohai, and the Gulf of Liaotung by over 40,000 fishermen.

Annual output of salt is 235,000 tons, excluding that of the Laotung peninsula

Locality	Coal Deposit (in tons)	Type	Age	Annual Output (in tons)
Fushun.....	950,000,000	Lignite	Tertiary	8,000,000
Fuhsien.....	6,930,000	Anthracite	Triassic	200,000
Yentai.....	40,000,000	Anthracite	Triassic	582,000
Penchi.....	220,000,000	Bituminous	Triassic	40,000
Tiensihiufukou.....	167,000,000	Anthracite	Triassic	8,000
Nihsintai.....	30,000,000	Anthracite	Triassic	1,000

region, which can produce another 200,000 tons a year. Salt beds in Yingkai, Fuhsien, Hsingsui, Chihhsien, Panshan and Chwangho occupy a total area of some 70,000 acres.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Coal production in Liaoning ranks first in China. The deposits are found in the branches of the Chienshan range and in the valleys of the Hunho and Taitzeho. The following is a summary of the principal deposits and their annual output:

In the production of iron, this province also ranks first in China. The deposits, which include both igneous and sedimentary ores, are found as follows:

Locality	Iron Ore Deposit (in tons)	Percentage of Iron
Anshan.....	36,000,000	40
Miaoerkou.....	80,000,000	65
Kungchangling.....	44,460,000	35
Tuimienshan.....	37,810,000	35
Takushan.....	15,125,000	35
Yingtaoyuan.....	26,250,000	35
Wangchiapao.....	16,500,000	35
Kotishan.....	2,050,000	32

Manganese is produced at Heisungling in Hsingcheng. Gold is found at Tsaihopao in Tiehling, Hsingcheng, Suichung, Chwangho, Haicheng, Penchi, and Hsiu-yen; alum in Penchi and Yentai; white marble and kaolin clay (containing 46 percent magnesium) in Haicheng; and other fire-resisting types of clay amounting to 30-million tons in Liaoyang, Yentai and Fuhsien.

Because of these rich deposits of coal and iron, Shenyang, Fushun, Penchi and Anshan already have become important centers for the heavy industries. Factories for machines, chemicals, munitions, steel, cement, vegetable oils and flour are located mostly at Shenyang. Yingkow is noted for its distilleries and earthenware factories, as well as for its manufacture of silk and sugar.

(5) *Communications.* The province is served by the following principal railway lines, of which over 1,000 km. lie within its boundaries:

Changchun-Dairen
Shenyang-Antung
Peiping-Mukden
Shenyang-Hailung
Tahushan-Tungliao
Chinchow-Kupeikow

A network of highways connects the

principal cities—Shenyang in the north and Dairen in the south. The Liao river is navigable by boat all the way below Tiehling, and from the mouth of the Taitzeho to Yingkow by small steamers. The principal sea ports are Dairen, Yingkow and Hulutao, the last-named being the only ice-free port during the winter.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) SHENYANG (Mukden), the provincial capital, is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is the province's political, military, economic and cultural center.

(b) LIAOYANG, railway city south of Mukden, is an industrial and agricul-

tural center, its chief products being coal and iron, soybean, wheat and cotton. The Anshan mines are within the county.

(c) YINGKOW, seaport at the mouth of the Liao river, exports soy bean and its by-products, and medicinal herbs.

(d) PORT ARTHUR is a naval base at the southern tip of the Liaotung peninsula.

(e) DAIREN is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

(f) HULUTAO, southeast of Chihhsien, is an ice-free harbor, the best along the Pohai coast.

(g) PENHSIHU, railway town southeast of Shenyang, is the province's iron-producing center. Coal is also abundant here.

(h) FUSHUN, northeast of Shenyang, is a coal town, having a deposit of nearly one billion tons.

LIAOPEI

Area: 121,624 sq. km.
Population: 4,627,841 (June, 1948)
No. of *hsien*: 18
No. of Mongolian Banners: 6
Municipality: 1
Capital: Liaoyuan

(1) *Topography.* The Hata mountains lie across the southeastern part of the province. Never rising more than 1,000 m., they constitute the highlands of the Peifeng-Sifeng area, and form the watershed for the Yingma, Itung and Hweifa rivers.

The Liao river is the principal stream; its western branch beginning in Jehol and flowing eastward through Tungliao and Liaoyuan, meets the eastern branch at Kuyushu. Thence the confluence turns southward and enters Liaoning in the vicinity of Chungku. The eastern or shorter branch of the Liao river originates in the Hata mountains of Peifeng.

(2) *Climate.* The climate here differs markedly with that of Liaoning. The southeastern part, however, enjoys a summer temperature of around 77 degrees F. and a winter temperature of about five degrees F. The northern part, subject to cold winds from Siberia, has below zero temperatures in the winter. The mean annual temperature for the whole province is about 39 degrees F. The Liao river is frozen for more than four months of the year. Rainfall amounts to about 750 mm. in the southeastern part, and less than half of that in the north.

(3) *Agriculture.* The chief agricultural products of the southeast are soybean and Kaoliang, the former mainly for export and the latter for local consumption. Hemp and corn are produced in the highlands of the Hata mountains; millet around Szepingkai; upland rice in Liaoyuan, Szeping and Shwanshan; and castor oil plant in Faku and Kangping. In the north some soybean and millet are raised around Taonan, though not enough to be self-sufficient.

Extensive pasture land is available for raising cattle, horses and sheep. While the herds are not as large as those in Hsingan province, the production of wool has already reached hopeful proportions.

(4) *Minerals.* Coal deposits at Peifeng, estimated at 270-million tons, have been mined by the semi-governmental Sian Coal and Iron Company at the rate of 200,000 tons a year, supplying this province and its neighbor, Antung, as well as the Shenyang-Hailung and Yungchi-Hailung railways. Iron deposits of unknown quantity exist in Sifeng and Kaiyuan. Natural soda is produced at Taonan and Liaoyuan.

(5) *Communications.* The following railways have a combined length of over 1,200 km., and are largely responsible for the development of the Mongol areas within the province: Szepinkai-Taonan, Liaoyuan-Tunglia, Taonan-Anganchi (an extension of the Szepingwai-Taonan

line to Anganchi, just south of Tsitsihar, in Nunkiang province), Taonan-Dulur (to be extended to Hailar, on the east-west trunk line of the Chinese Changchun railway), Szepingkai-Meiho line (a connecting link between the Szepingkai-Taonan, Neiho-Chian, Yunchi-Hailung and Shenyang-Hailung lines, joining the latter at Shahokow), Tahushan-Tungliao (from Tahushan in Liaoning province to Tungliao), Changpai (from Changchun on the north-south trunk line of the Chinese railway, formerly South Manchurian, to Taonan) and the Chinese Changchun railway (crosses this province in the southeastern part from Chungku on the border of Liaoning province until it enters Kirin province northeast of Kungchuling).

Highways are few and scattered, the most important being the road connecting Itung in Kirin with Tiehling in Liaoning, crossing Liaopei in the southeastern corner. Other roads cross the pasture land of the Mongol areas in the north, touching Taonan, Tungliao and Faku in the northwestern, western, and southern portions respectively.

The Liao river is navigable to the larger barges below Tungkiantze, above which point they move with difficulty during periods of flood. Until the development of the Chinese Changchun railway, Tungkiantze used to be an important river trading center, through which moved most of the exports.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) LIAO-YUAN, the provincial capital, is a communication and trading center for the Chinese Mongols and Manchus. The main commodities are horses, furs and wool.

(b) SZEPINGKAI, junction of the Chinese Changchun and Szepingkai-Taonan railways, is now a trading point of cereals, timber, and other articles.

(c) TAONAN in northern Liaopei is another trading point for the Chinese Mongols and Manchus.

(d) TUNGLIAO in western Liaopei is a railway town where trading of animals, furs, and wool for the Mongols takes place.

ningsia

Area: 233,320 sq. km.

Population: 759,002 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 13

No. of Mongolian Banners: 3

Municipality: 1

Capital: Yinchwan

(1) *Topography.* Ningsia is a pastoral province, close to Outer Mongolia and is a part of the Mongolian plateau. The main mountain chain is the Holan or

Alashan range, whose highest peak is 3,600 m. The western region is a desert with, however, pastoral grounds.

Ningsia is watered by the Yellow river. Between Chungwei and Pinglo are many irrigation canals. There are also several lakes, the largest being Gashannor.

(2) *Climate*. Ningsia has a continental climate, with a hot summer and a bitter winter. In the desert, there is little or no rainfall.

(3) *People*. Chinese and Mohammedans live in the eastern and southern parts of the province, while the Mongols lead a nomadic life in the northwestern part. (For more details, see sections on Tibet and Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture*. The southeastern part of the province produces rice, wheat, barley, and kaoliang. Furs and hide from the west give Ningsia a large income every year.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Ningsia has an abundant supply of salt. There are also some coal deposits. There is hardly any modern industry, but handicrafts such as carpet-making are prosperous.

(6) *Communications*. There is no railway in Ningsia. Work on the projected Paotow-Ningsia line did not materialize because of the war. There are about 2,500 km. of highways. The Suiyuan-Sinkiang highway passes through Ningsia. The old trade roads connect it with Outer Mongolia and other provinces.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) YIN-CHWAN (Holan, Pop. 38,634—June, 1948), formerly known as Ningsia City, is now the provincial capital. Commodities concentrated here include sheep's wool, camel wool, hide and medicinal herbs.

(b) CHUNGWEI, on the north shore of the Yellow river, is an agricultural center, rich in rice, wheat, miscellaneous cereals, wool and hide. Coal is also produced here.

(c) TZEHU, a new preparatory *hsien*, is a Mongolian town and is a trading point for the Mongols and Chinese.

NUNKIANG

Area: 67,034 sq. km.

Population: 3,333,409 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 18

No. of Mongolian Banners: 2

Municipality: 1

Capital: Tsitsihar

(1) *Topography*. The entire province is a great alluvial plain, watered by the Sungari and Nonni rivers, except for a few small hilly areas close to the Hsing-an mountains. The Sungari enters this province from Kirin at Sanchaho, where

it receives the Nonni and flows along the borders of Kirin and Sungkiang, entering Hokiang at Mulan. This is the most important river in the northeast, both for navigation and irrigation. The land is particularly fertile along its banks. The Nonni, about 725 km. long and the principal tributary of the Sungari, begins in the Iihulishan in the Hsingan mountains, and receives the waters of several streams before joining the Sungari at Sanchaho.

(2) *Climate*. This province is considerably colder than other northeastern regions, its temperature ranging from about 88 degrees F. in the summer to 22 degrees below zero F. in the winter, with a yearly mean at around 37 degrees F. Rainfall is more abundant in its eastern parts, where it reaches about 725 mm. for the year, as compared with 350 mm. for the grasslands in the west.

(3) *People*. Besides the assimilated races of Chinese and Manchus, other inhabitants are the various pastoral tribes of Mongols, as well as small numbers of Oronchons engaged in hunting on the eastern slopes of the Hsingan mountains.

(4) *Agriculture*. Nunkiang, noted for its variety and quantity of agricultural products, has been called the granary of the northeast. The principal crops are wheat in the Hulan area and in the region north of Tsitsihar; soybean in the south as well as in the region around Ningnien, to the northeast of Tsitsihar; kaoliang along the Sungari; corn in the vicinity of Hulan and Tsitsihar; rice in the lower reaches of the Nonni; and millet, though in lesser quantity than is produced in the provinces of Liaoning and Kirin.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Because there are no mountains, the mineral wealth of the province is either unknown or undeveloped. Natural soda is found near Shaochow and Anta, which may be utilized for the development of chemical industries.

Few industries are developed. These small enterprises include flour mills and vegetable oil plants, and distilleries and tanning shops in the Tsitsihar region.

(6) *Communications*. There are five railroads serving this province, the most important being the Chinese Changchun railway, the Taoan-Angangchi line, and the Hulan-Peian line.

The Chinese Changchun railway (western section) enters the province from Yalu in Hsingan province, crosses the Nonni river, and, passing through Angangchi, Anta, and Shaotung, reaches its terminus at Harbin;

Hulan-Peian line: From Hulan to Peian, the capital of Heilungkiang province, passing through the important agricultural

area north of the Sungari, bringing its products to Harbin;

Taoan-Angangchi line: from Taoan in Liaopei province to Angangchi;

Tsitsihar - Peian line: from Tsitsihar northward through Ningnien to Peian in Heilungkiang province; and

Ningnien-Holungmen line: from Ningnien to Holungmen in Heilungkiang province.

Highways from Tsitsihar extend to Heilungkiang and Hsinging provinces, as well as to the lands of the Mongol tribes, while numerous roads are found crossing the plains in the eastern part of the province.

The Nonni river is navigable by small steamers all the way below Nuncheng. The Sungari is open to steam navigation both above and below Sanchaho.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) **TSITSIHAR** (Lungkiang), the provincial capital, is a railway junction on the Nun river. Trade with Russia and Outer Mongolia is partly concentrated here.

(b) **HULAN**, a railway town at the confluence of the Sungari and Hulan rivers, is the richest agricultural town in the province. It is known as the "Granary of the Northeast."

SHANSI

Area: 156,419 sq. km.

Population: 15,247,059 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 105

Municipality: 1

Capital: Taiyuan

(1) *Topography.* Shansi is mountainous. The mountains can be divided into the Wutai, Hengshan, Taihang, Taiyueh, Luliang, and Yunchung ranges. Wutai-shan is a sacred Buddhist mountain.

Rivers include the Yellow, Fen, Hsin, Shangkan, Huto, and Chang. The Yellow river separates the province from Shensi in the west and, roughly, Honan in the south.

(2) *Climate.* The climate is continental, but it is not exceedingly hot in the summer. Rainfall is light.

(3) *Agriculture.* Agriculture does not thrive well. Only the Fen river valley land flourishes. There is an abundant supply of fruits, so Shansi liquor and wines are of good quality. There are many natural forests in the northern mountains.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Shansi is rich in coal deposits, which are found in the Fen river valley in the central part, the Pingting area in the east, the Tsin-cheng area in the south, and the Tatung area in the north. Large-scale mining has been going on for many years both under

the auspices of the provincial government and as private enterprises. Shansi also has rich iron deposits. Salt is another resource.

Modern industries such as cotton mills and chemical works are located in Taiyuan, Tatung, and Yutzu.

(5) *Communications.* There are three railways in this province, namely, the Peiping-Suiyuan, the Chengting-Taiyuan and the Tatung-Puchow lines, the last two being narrow-gauged. There are about 3,200 km. of highways.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) **TAIYUAN** (Pop. 251,566—June, 1948), the provincial capital, in central Shansi, is a commercial center and such goods concentrated here as wheat and beans are transported mostly to Tientsin.

(b) **TATUNG**, railway city in northern Shansi, is a trading point for Mongolia and provinces outside the Great Wall.

(c) **LINFEN**, railway city in southern Shansi, was an ancient cultural center and is now a marketing town for that section.

SHANTUNG

Area: 146,736 sq. km.

Population: 38,865,254 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 108

Special Municipality: Tsingtao

Municipalities: 3

Capital: Tsinan

(1) *Topography.* Shantung is in the lower Yellow river valley, and its eastern part forms the Shantung peninsula. The Laoshan on the peninsula and the Taishan in the central and southern parts are the principal ranges in the province. The 1,500 m. Taishan is one of China's five sacred mountains.

The Yellow river, the Hsiao-ching river and the Grand Canal are its principal inland waterways.

(2) *Climate.* The southeastern part of the province enjoys an oceanic climate, especially the Yellow Sea coast. The climate inland is continental in that it is hot in the summer and cold in the winter. There is more rainfall in the southeastern part.

(3) *Agriculture.* The main crops are wheat, kaoliang, corn, peanuts, and cotton. Shantung dates, peaches and pears are nationally famous.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* There are considerable deposits of iron, coal, and salt. Factories are located mainly in Tsingtao, Chefoo, Tsinan, and Chowtsun. Shantung silk is also popular in China.

(5) *Communications.* The two railways are the Tientsin-Pukow and the

Kiaochow-Tsinan systems. Shantung has 6,300 km. of highways.

The coastal navigation centers at Tsingtao and Chefoo link the province with Tientsin, Shanghai, Hongkong and Japan. Inland navigation is limited to wooden junks and small motor launches.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) TSINAN (Pop. 591,490—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is Shantung's economic, communication and military center. The Taming lake is one of its scenic attractions.

(b) TSINGTAO, a naval base, is situated on the Kiaochow bay. It is connected with the interior by the Kiaochow-Tsinan railway. It controls all Shantung's exports and imports. It is now a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

(c) TAIAN, south of Tsinan, is an agricultural producing center. Taishan (mountain) is north of the city.

(d) CHUFU (Kufu), on the south bank of the Sze river, is the birthplace of Confucius, whose grave is located there. The place is full of historic spots associated with the sage.

(e) WEIHAIWEI (Pop. 222,247—June, 1948) formerly leased to Britain, was returned to China in 1930. It has a good harbor on the northern shore of the Shantung peninsula. Just outside the harbor is Liukung island which acts as a breakwater.

(f) CHEFOO, situated inside the Chefoo peninsula in northern Shantung, is a seaport for marketing silk, beans and wine.

SHENSI

Area: 187,691 sq. km.

Population: 10,011,201 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 92

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 2

Special Municipality: Sian

Capital: Sian

(1) *Topography.* The northern part of Shensi is mountainous, and is known as the Northern Shensi Plateau. The central part is called the Kwanchung Plain, while the southern part contains the Hanchung and Han river basins, which are surrounded by mountains of the Chinling range which, together with the Tapashan range, forms the two chains of Shensi.

The four rivers are the Yellow, Wei, Lo and Han. Canals have been built for irrigation purpose, in the valleys they form.

(2) *Climate.* The climate presents marked contrasts with the Chinling mountains as the dividing line. The northern section enjoys a continental climate of light rainfall and a cold winter. The

southern part is comparatively humid with abundant rainfall. It is rather cloudy and foggy between February and October.

(3) *Agriculture.* The Wei river valley produces a large quantity of cotton. Rice and other cereals are grown in the south; wheat, bean, kaoliang and corn in the north. There are many forests in the mountains.

(4) *Industry and Mining.* Shensi is rich in coal and petroleum. The yield of Shensi's coal deposits, approximately 29 percent of China's total, is next only to Shansi. Petroleum is found in Yenchang, Yenchwan and Ichwan.

Cotton and chemical factories are located mostly in Sian, Paochi and Nancheng. Handicrafts include rugs, tinware, and hide. Tung oil is also plentiful.

(5) *Communications.* The Lunghai railway, which begins at Lienyun in eastern Kiangsu, now reaches Tienshui. Construction is proceeding on the Tienshui-Lanchow section. Meanwhile, a survey of the Paochi-Chengtou railway has been completed.

Shensi has 4,400 km. of highways. One of the trunk lines connects Szechwan and Shensi with Kansu and Sinkiang.

Steamships can navigate some sections of the rivers near Sian, while most of the rivers are good for junk transportation.

Sian and Nancheng afford important terminals for air liners travelling between the coastal provinces and the northwest, including Sinkiang.

(6) *Important Cities.* (a) SIAN, the provincial capital, is now a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It is also one of the three auxiliary capitals of the country, the other two being Chungking and Peiping. Sian was for hundreds of years the political and cultural center of China, being the capital of the Chou, Chin, Sui and Tang dynasties. There are many historical and scenic spots both in and around the city.

(b) LINTUNG, east of Sian on the Lunghai railway, is a historic city where the remains of the Hua Ching Kung (palace) of the Tang dynasty are located.

(c) FUSHIH (Yenan), in northern Shensi, was for many years the home base of the Chinese Communist party after the communists were dislodged from central China in 1935.

(d) YULIN, inside the Great Wall in northern Shensi, is an important military town and a trading center with the Mongolians.

(e) NANCHENG (Hanchung) in southern Shensi is a commercial city in the Han river valley. Goods are shipped

from here to Hankow down the Han river.

(f) HWANGLING, on the Hsienyang-Yulin highway in central Shensi, is the site of the Tomb of Huang Ti, or the Yellow Emperor (2697 B.C.), believed to be the first emperor of China.

SIKANG

Area: 451,521 sq. km.

Population: 1,696,600 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 48

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 4

Capital: Kangting

(1) *Topography*. Sikang became a regular province in 1939. Like Chinghai, it is a part of the Tibetan plateau.

Sikang has five main mountain ranges, all branches of the Kunlun and Himalaya ranges. They are: (a) the Himalayas, originating north of the Yaru Tsangpo river and extending to Yunnan, (b) the Lushan range, running between the Mekong and Salween rivers, (c) the Ning-chingshan range, stretching from Chinghai between the Mekong and Kingsha rivers, (d) the Shalulishan range, west of the Tahsuehshan range, and (e) the Tahsuehshan range in eastern Sikang. The highest peak is over 3,000 m. The mountains run from north to south.

Rivers flow between these ranges, the depth between the summit of the highest peak and the lowest water level being 2,700 m.

(2) *Climate*. It is extremely cold in the snow-covered mountains, but comparatively mild in the eastern and southeastern parts where seasonal changes are noticeable and rainfall is more frequent.

(3) *People*. Chinese, Tibetans, Mongols, and others are found in this province. The Tibetans live predominantly in Taichao and the southern areas, while the Lolo inhabit the mountainous regions.

(4) *Agriculture*. Less than one-third of Sikang's land is under cultivation, but there is considerable production of rice and wheat in the Yaan and Sichang areas. Yaan tea is well known throughout west China. Natural forests abound in all parts of the province, and rare animal products are plentiful.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Mineral resources include gold, coal and petroleum. Kunghsien in central Sikang has abundant oil deposits. There is practically no modern industry in Sikang. Handicrafts include porcelain and rugs.

(6) *Communications*. There is no railway in Sikang. The projected Szechwan-Tibet railway will traverse Sikang.

There are about 1,600 km. of highways,

of which the most important are the Chengtu-Kangting and Kangting-Sichang lines. The old trade roads are still the main arteries of communication between Sikang and Tibet, and between Sikang and Yunnan. All the rivers, except a small section of the Yaru Ysangpo river, are too hazardous for navigation.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) KANGTING, the provincial capital, was formerly known as Tachienlu. It is the trading center for western Szechwan. Outgoing commodities include medicinal herbs, hides, wool and musk; incoming commodities are tea and cotton piecegoods.

(b) YAAN, highway town in eastern Sikang, is a market for tea and salt.

(c) SICHANG, a highway town in southeastern Sikang, is the province's agricultural center. Sericulture is also prosperous.

(d) PAAN, important town in central Sikang, is known for small-scale farming and grazing.

(e) KANTZE, commercial town in northern Sikang, is famous for its monastery of more than 4,000 lamas.

SINKIANG

Area: 1,711,931 sq. km.

Population: 4,047,452 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 77

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 4

No. of Mongolian Banners: 23

Municipality: 1

Capital: Tihwa

(1) *Topography*. Sinkiang was made a province in 1885. It is the largest province of China, being almost twice as large as the nine northeastern provinces (Manchuria) combined and three times the size of Szechwan.

Its four main mountain ranges are (a) the Altai range which enters Sinkiang from the Soviet Union and runs along the northern border; (b) the Tianshan range (Celestial Mountains) which skirts Sinkiang's western border, turns eastward and crosses the central part of the province from west to east, then splits into two branches, the northern Tianshan (Peilu) and the southern Tianshan (Nanlu); (c) the Karakoram range, which originates in the Pamirs and runs along the Sinkiang-India border, its peak of over 8,600 m., being the second highest in the world, and (d) the Kunlun range, which runs along the Sinkiang-Tibetan border.

Important rivers include the Tarim in the south and the Ili in the north. The Tarim is the largest inland river in China. It stretches from west to east in the

Tarim basin and empties into the Lobnor (lake). The Tarim and the Ili valleys are the richest areas in Sinkiang.

The entire province is a high plateau with an average altitude of 1,000 to 2,000 m., covered by steppes and deserts. Near Turfan, however, there is a depression 200 m. below sea level.

(2) *Climate*. Sinkiang has a continental climate with severe winters. The winter lasts more than eight months. The temperature in the Tihwa area averages 34 degrees F. below zero in January. Rainfall is generally light with about 250 mm. a year, which occurs within a short period of 20 days in the summer. There is no rainfall in the deserts.

(3) *People*. Sinkiang is sparsely populated but boasts many races. They are generally grouped into (a) Chinese, who number less than one-tenth of the total population; (b) Chantou or Head-binders, about 60 percent, who are followers of Islam; (c) Mongols, about six percent; (d) Kasaks, about five percent, predominantly Turkish by blood and Moslem by religion; (e) Kirghizs, who live mostly in Kashgar; (f) Chinese *Hui Hui*, who speak Chinese and are partly Chinese by blood; (g) Manchus, who number about five percent; (h) Tajiks who live near the Chinese Pamirs; (i) Tibetans; and (j) naturalized White Russians.

(4) *Agriculture*. Farmlands are located mostly in the Tarim and Ili valleys and the Tihwa area. The main crops are wheat, barley, rice, corn and cotton. Natural forests are found largely in the Tien-shan mountains. The province is rich in fruits.

Animal husbandry thrives in Sinkiang, especially in the north. Sheep, horses and camels can be seen in large numbers, and wool is abundant.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Sinkiang is rich in minerals, such as gold, silver, lead, zinc, oil, jade and salt. The gold mines are in Altai, Yutien, and Chuguchak. The fine quality of Sinkiang jade is well known. Salt is produced throughout the province.

There are small industries such as cotton and woolen factories and chemical works in Tihwa and a few other cities. Handicrafts are very popular.

(6) *Communications*. There is no railway in Sinkiang, but a line will be constructed to link Tihwa and Ili with Lanchow. There are about 6,000 km. of highways linking the province with Soviet Union via Tahcheng, with Kansu via Hami, and with Suiyuan via Ningsia.

Sinkiang served as an important link between China and the Middle East and

Europe before the opening of maritime navigation. The well-known "Silk Road," as described by Marco Polo, was opened in the 2nd century, connecting Sinkiang with India, Iran, Syria and finally Rome.

Tihwa, Hami and Tahcheng are the three airline stops in Sinkiang.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) TIHWA (Urumchi), the provincial capital, is a trading center, dealing in sheep's wool, furs and hide, salt and cotton piecegoods.

(b) HAMI, a highway and trading city in eastern Sinkiang, is noted for its melons, which are regarded as the most delicious of its kind in China.

(c) KITAI (Kuchengtze), northeast of Tihwa, is an important town between Sinkiang and Mongolia.

(d) INING, a strategic and commercial town in western Sinkiang, has for its chief products tea and animals.

(e) TAHCHENG in northwestern Sinkiang is a frontier town. The Hatushan gold mine is northeast of Tahcheng.

(f) CHENGHWA in northern Sinkiang is a trading center. Most of its inhabitants are Mongols and Mohammedans, engaged in grazing and farming.

(g) AKOSU, on the left bank of the Akosu river in southwestern Sinkiang, is a market for Chinese, Russian and Indian merchants.

(h) SHULEH in southwestern Sinkiang is one of the most prosperous towns. North of Shuleh is Shufu, which is a trading center for merchants from India and Afghanistan.

(i) SOCHE (Yarkand), on the main trade road in southern Sinkiang, was, before the opening of ocean navigation, an important point of contact with India in the south and Afghanistan in the west.

SUIYUAN

Area: 329,397 sq. km.

Population: 2,233,226 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 20

No. of Mongolian Banners: 17

Municipalities: 3

Capital: Kweisui

(1) *Topography*. Suiyuan is one of the provinces which was formerly part of Inner Mongolia. Topographically, it belongs to the Mongolian plateau. The Yin-shan range in the central part of the province extends westward to join the Holan range in Ningsia. The highest peak of over 2,200 m. is north of Kweisui.

The main waterway is the Yellow river which enters Suiyuan from Ningsia and splits into two courses. The main course runs eastward and turns southward at Tiketo to provide a natural boundary be-

tween Shensi and Shansi provinces. The beds of this section of the river, known as Hotao, are unusually fertile. The other was the Yellow river's old course during the Ming dynasty. Between Paotow and Kweisui, a new irrigation system called the Minsheng Canals has been completed.

(2) *Climate*. Suiyuan has a continental climate with a severe winter. It is exceedingly cold in areas north of Yinshan. In the desert areas, there is almost no rainfall.

(3) *People*. Most of the inhabitants are Chinese and Mongols. There are also some Manchus and Mohammedans. (For fuller details, see sections on Tibet and Mongolia.)

(4) *Agriculture*. The Hotao area in Suiyuan is rich in such agricultural products as wheat, barley, kaoliang, and soybean. Suiyuan also produces large quantities of medicinal herbs.

Animal husbandry thrives among the Mongols. Camel and sheep wool is the largest item of export.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Suiyuan produces coal, salt, and soda. Industry is only in the beginning stage. There are some flour mills, woolen and egg-processing factories in Kweisui, Paotow and Fengchen. Handicrafts include woolen goods and rugs.

(6) *Communications*. The Peiping-Suiyuan railway is the only railroad in this province. Over 4,000 km. of highways in Suiyuan link with Kansu, Ningxia, and Sinkiang. Junks can navigate the Chungwei-Toketo section of the Yellow river.

(7) *Important Cities*. (a) KWEISUI, the provincial capital, is on the Peiping-Suiyuan railway. The old city called Kweihsia is only three km. away. Kweisui became a commercial center for the Inner Mongolian provinces after the completion of the Peiping-Suiyuan railway.

(b) PAOTOW, the present terminus of the Peiping-Suiyuan railway, is the commercial center for goods going to Tientsin from the upper reaches of the Yellow river and for those from Tientsin to the various northwestern provinces. Exports include wool, fur, cotton and medicinal herbs. Imports are matches, tea and kerosene.

(c) PAILINGMIAO, northwest of Kweisui, is the site of one of the largest lamaseries, which has more than 1,000 lamas.

SUNGKING

Area: 84,559 sq. km.

Population: 2,570,806 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 15

Special Municipality: Harbin

Capital: Mutankiang

(1) *Topography*. The Changpai range continues into this province from Kirin in three principal branches: the Hsiaopai-shan, which traverses the north and becomes part of the boundary between the provinces of Sungkiang and Hokiang; Laoyehling, which crosses the central part and forms the watershed for the Muling and Suifeng rivers; and Yingehling, which towers over Antu in the south.

Its largest river is the Sungari, which forms the northern boundary, separating it from Nunkiang. The Mutankiang, which begins in Kirin, cuts through the province on its way to join the Sungari in Hokiang province. The capital, Mutankiang, is located on this river. The Tumenkiang, rising in the Paitoushan in Antung province, forms part of the boundary with Korea, then continues southeastward through northern Korea into the Japan Sea.

(2) *Climate*. The mean summer temperature is about 72 degrees F., reaching a maximum around 95 degrees F. The mean winter temperature is about two degrees below zero F. with a minimum as low as 40 degrees below zero F. The mean temperature for the year is around 37 degrees F. Rainfall in the southeastern section amounts to about 575 mm.; in the northwest, about 450 mm.

(3) *Agriculture*. Chief agricultural products are soybean and beets grown in the Harbin region; soybean, rice and tobacco in the Mutankiang region; rice, corn and soybean around Yenchi, in the south. Ginseng and other medicinal herbs are among the special products.

The Mutankiang timberland covers an area of 890,000 acres, which is about equally divided among the provinces of Kirin, Sungkiang and Hokiang. The forests consist mainly of Manchurian birch, willow and pine.

(4) *Industry and Mining*. Most of the mines are found in the southeast, chief among which are the coal collieries at Muling (estimated reserve, 75-million tons; annual output, 360,000 tons), Tungming (estimated reserve, 20-million tons; largely untapped), Laotoukou (estimated reserve, 25-million tons; annual output, 20,000 tons), Holung (estimated reserve, 167-million tons), and Hunchun. Gold mines are worked at Hunchun, Holung, and Antu—all within a short distance of the municipality of Yenchi.

The only industries in this province consist of small manufacturing plants for chemical products, wine, flour and

vegetable oil, located at Mutankiang and Yenchi.

(5) *Communications*. There are two trunk railroads and a few branch lines, totalling some 975 km.:

Chinese Changchun railway: from Harbin to Suifengho, an important international line;

Tumenkiang-Kiamusze line: from Tumenkiang on the Korean border to Kiamusze on the Sungari in Hokiang province; and

Kirin-Tumenkiang line: from Yungchi in Kirin province to the Korean border.

There are no major highways, only a few secondary roads supplementing the rail lines, principally those linking Chuho and Yen-shou, Muling and Yenchi, and Mutankiang and Ningan.

River transportation is chiefly on the Sungari river which is navigable for steamboats in the summer. It serves as a highway for horse-drawn vehicles when frozen over. The Mutankiang is navigable for small wooden craft near the city of Mutankiang; while the Tumenkiang, though suitable for steam navigation, is not used much because of its location on the international boundary.

(6) *Important Cities*. (a) MUTANKIANG, the provincial capital, is close to the U.S.S.R. border, and is the junction of the Chungchun and Tu-kia railways. Commodities grown in the Mutankiang valley are concentrated here.

(b) YENCHI, on the Korean border, is a commercial city. There are large numbers of Korean and Japanese immigrants here.

(c) HARBIN, railway city in Sungkiang province, is an important communication and commercial city not only for China's northeast but for the Far East as a whole. Commodities from all the nine northeastern provinces, Mongolia, Siberia, Europe and Japan, all are concentrated here.

Harbin is a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

SZECHWAN

Area: 303,318 sq. km.

Population: 47,437,387 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 139

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 3

No. of administrative bureau: 1

Special Municipality: Chungking

Municipalities: 2

Capital: Chengtu

(1) *Topography*. Szechwan is a basin surrounded by mountains with an average height of over 3,000 m. Its lowest latitude is found between the Min and To rivers, which is 400 m. below sea level.

The main mountain chains are the Minshan, Tapashan, Kiunglaishan and Taliangshan ranges. The Minshan hills are the main branch of the Peiling range, running from Chinghai and Kansu into the northwestern part of Szechwan. The Tapashan begins in Shensi and runs southeastward, forming the Wushan peaks along the Szechwan-Hupeh border, known as the Yangtze Gorges. The Kiunglai range is located between the Min and Tachingchwan rivers, Mount Omei range one of its peaks. The Taliangshan range skirts the Szechwan-Sikang border.

There are four rivers in Szechwan: the Yangtze, Min, To, and Chialing. The upper reaches of the Yangtze which run through this province form the Kingsha (Gold Sand) river. These four rivers give the province its name, for Szechwan means "Four Rivers."

(2) *Climate*. The province is largely in the temperate zone. Snow zones can be found in the mountain ranges. There is abundant rainfall, with an average of 470 mm. in July. In some areas, such as Chungking, summer is very hot and humid.

(3) *People*. The inhabitants in Szechwan are mainly native Chinese. There are some Lolos in southwestern Szechwan and Miaos in areas close to Kweichow.

(4) *Agriculture*. Szechwan is known as the "Heavenly Country," where almost every kind of agricultural products can be grown. It is one of China's richest provinces and can produce three crops a year in the Chengtu basin.

Szechwan's chief crops are rice, wheat, cotton, beans, corn, sweet potatoes, and tobaccos. Its silk production is next only to that of Chekiang and Kiangsu. Szechwan produces the largest quantity of medicinal herbs in the country, also large quantities of tung oil, hog bristles, tea, and sugar.

(5) *Industry and Mining*. Szechwan produces salt, iron, coal, and oil. More than 40 *hsien* in the province, notably Tzeliutsing, produce salt. The highest production is 500,000 tons a year. Szechwan produced 2-million tons of coal in 1947.

During the war, Szechwan was the principal industrial base in Free China. The main industries now are salt and sugar. Other industries, metallurgical, chemical, oil cracking, and textile, also flourish.

Szechwan is famous for its embroidery and porcelain.

(6) *Communications*. Railways in this province are still in their planning and survey stage. Construction was started recently on the Chengtu-Chungking railway.

There are more than 6,000 km. of highways in Szechwan. The important ones are the Chengtu-Chungking, Szechwan-Shensi, Szechwan-Sikang, Szechwan-Kweichow, Szechwan-Yunnan, and Szechwan-Hunan highways.

Steamships can negotiate all the rivers in the province. The largest shipping company in Szechwan is the Ming Sung Industrial Company which also builds ships.

Szechwan is connected with the rest of the country by regular airline service with Chungking, Chengtu, Kiating and Luhsien as centers.

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) CHENG TU (Pop. 620,302—June, 1948), the provincial seat, is a famous city, being the capital of the Kingdom of Shu in the period of Three Kingdoms. The city is full of historic and scenic spots. The Chengtu basin is the richest area in the province.

(b) CHUNG KING, China's capital during World War II, is situated at the confluence of the Yangtze and Chialing rivers. It serves as the distributing center of commodities from Szechwan, Sikang, Shensi, Kansu, Yunnan and Kweichow. Now a municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan, it is linked by roads with all parts in the northwest and southwest.

(c) KWANHSIEN, northwest of Chengtu, is the site of the 2,000-year-old irrigation system. Chingchengshan (mountain), west of Kwanhsien, was one of the places or origin of the Taoist religion.

(d) WANHSIEN, river port east of Chungking, is a marketing center for tung oil, sugar, and hog bristles.

(e) IPIN (Suifu), in southern Szechwan, is the uppermost point on the Yangtze river accessible to steamers. It is the commercial town for trade between Szechwan and Yunnan provinces.

(f) LOSHAN (Kiating), trading center in southwestern Szechwan, is situated at the confluence of the Min and Tatu rivers.

(g) Tzeliutsing, in central Szechwan, is the salt-producing center. There are more than 4,000 salt beds in this area.

(h) NEIKIANG, on the Chengtu-Chungking Highway, is Szechwan's sugar-producing center.

(i) OMEI, highway town south of Chengtu, has for its chief attraction Mount Omei, one of China's Buddhist sacred mountains.

TAIWAN

(See first part of this chapter)

YUNNAN

Area: 420,465 sq. km.

Population: 9,065,921 (June, 1948)

No. of *hsien*: 112

No. of preparatory *hsien*: 16

Municipality: 1

Capital: Kunming

(1) *Topography.* Yunnan is a plateau, with an average altitude of 5,000 meters. The whole province is mountainous with small plains in the eastern part. Yunnan and Kweichow provinces together constitute the Yunnan-Kweichow plateau. To the south and west of Yunnan is Indo-China and Burma.

The three main mountain ranges all originate in Sikang. They are the Kao-likungshan, Lushan and Yunling ranges. Rivers include the Yangtze, Salween, and Mekong. The largest lake is Kunming lake outside the provincial capital.

(2) *Climate.* Yunnan enjoys a semi-tropical climate which is mild and healthy. The year is divided into wet and dry seasons. There is plentiful rainfall. Malaria epidemics are prevalent in the mountainous regions during the summer.

(3) *People.* The aborigines include Miaos and Lolos who live near Szechwan and Kweichow, and Payis who inhabit the southwestern part.

(4) *Agriculture.* Arable land is limited, but owing to the sparse population, farming is still the chief occupation of the people. Important crops are rice, wheat, barley, and cotton. Export articles include tea, silk, and medicinal herbs.

(5) *Industry and Mining.* Yunnan is rich in minerals. Its production of copper and tin exceeds 80 percent of China's total output. Tin deposits in Yunnan are second only to those in Malaya. Other minerals such as gold, silver, zinc, iron and salt, are also plentiful.

Yunnan's most important industry is tin mining at Koki, south of Kunming. Kunming itself is an industrial center, having experienced an expansion during the war years when many factories were moved to Yunnan from the coast provinces.

(6) *Communications.* The two railways are the Yunnan-Indo-China and Koki-Pishihchai lines. The Yunnan-Indo-China railway was originally built by the French, but the section in Yunnan has been turned over to the Chinese Government. Projected lines include the Yunnan-Burma, Yunnan-Kweichow, and Szechwan-Yunnan railways.

Yunnan has 4,500 km. of highways. The famous Burma Road and later the Stilwell Road, which was China's only

overland link with the outside world at one time during the war against Japan, both originate in Kunming.

The rivers are almost unnavigable as the currents are extremely swift and dangerous.

Kunming is an important airways hub in the southwest. During World War II it served as the base for the U. S. 14th Air Force and for the ferry service over the Himalaya "Hump."

(7) *Important Cities.* (a) KUNMING (Pop. 255,462—June, 1948), the provincial capital, is the political and commercial center, being a collecting and distributing city for tea, silk, copper, tin and the famous Yunnan ham.

(b) MENGZTE, border town on the Yunnan-Indo-China railway, is known as the gateway to Yunnan from the south.

(c) KOKIU, in southern Yunnan, is the tin city with more than 20 sq. km. of tin mines.

(d) TALI, highway town northwest of Kunming, is a scenic city and is famous for its marble production.

TIBET (Territory)

Area: 1,215,780 sq. km.

Population: 1,000,000 (estimated)

Capital: Lhasa

(1) *History.* Tibet, the outlying territory of China, is known as the land of lamas. It is often called the Roof of the World, because the Tibetan plateau is the highest in the world. The entire plateau includes Tibet proper, Sikang and Chinghai. The last two are now regular provinces, while Tibet remains China's sole Special Territory.

The history of Tibet is full of myths and legends. The Tibetans believe that their ancestors were descended from Chen-resi, the compassionate spirit, from which all spiritual and human rulers came. But modern historians and anthropologists place the Tibetans in the Mongolian family. Though relations between China and Tibet dated from time immemorial, they first came into prominence in the Tang dynasty. With the Mongol conquest in the 13th Century, Tibet was incorporated into the Chinese Empire.

The Tibetans declared independence from China after the establishment of the Republic in 1912. With the establishment of the National Government in 1927, relations between the government and Tibet have been much improved. In 1929, the Dalai Lama sent a representative to Nan-king to pledge allegiance to the National Government. Upon the death of the 13th Dalai Lama in 1933, the National Govern-

ment sent a mission to Lhasa to confer posthumous honors upon the ruler of Tibet. Another mission was dispatched to the Tibetan capital in 1940 when the 14th Dalai Lama was enthroned. The remains of the 9th Panchan Lama were returned to Tibet at the end of the same year.

The 10th Panchan Lama, chosen from among the three divine boys found in Sikang and Chinghai, was enthroned on August 10, 1949, at Kumbum monastery in Chinghai. Early in September, 1949, the northwest region was overrun by the communists and the young spiritual leader of Tibetans was captured. On November 24, a Chinese Communist broadcast from Peiping in the name of Mao Tze-tung alleged that the boy Panchan Lama had sent a message to communist Gen. Peng Teh-huai asking that a Communist army "liberate Tibet, wipe out all traitorous elements and deliver the Tibetan people."

In recent years, the government adopted various measures to further the relations between the Central and Tibetan governments. Scholarships were established by the government to encourage the study of Tibetan culture. During the war, the Tibetans made repeated contributions to the war effort, including the donation of 25 airplanes to the Chinese Air Force.

Both the National Government and the local authorities in Tibet regard Tibet as an integral part of China. Tibet has the right of local self-government and is represented in the various organs in the Central Government, such as the National Assembly, the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan.

(2) *Topography.* Tibet is a plateau with an average altitude of 4,500 m. for the plains and 5,500 m. for the mountainous regions. The highest mountain of the world, Mount Everest, which rises 8,870 m. above sea level, is in Tibet. The western part of Tibet, which is close to the Pamirs, is generally higher than the eastern part.

On the borders between southern Tibet and India and Nepal runs the Himalaya mountain range in a northwest to southeasterly direction over a distance of some 1,400 km. Mount Everest is a peak of this range. Mount Kanchinunga, another peak, towers 8,500 m. above sea level. To the north of the Himalaya runs the Trans-Himalaya range; to the further north, the Karakoram range which stretches from Kashmir in northwestern India to central Tibet. The Kunlun range extends through the north.

Tibet is the source of several big rivers such as the Ganges, Indus and Brahma-

putra. The most important is the Yaru Tsangpo which is the upper reaches of the Brahmaputra, originating in Lake Manasarowar in western Tibet and running through southern Tibet and then into Assam in India. There are also several inland rivers and lakes.

(3) *Climate*. Tibet has a strictly continental climate. The temperature is generally low, the air is dry, and changes are frequent. Lhasa, where the climate is comparatively mild, has a temperature 20 degrees F. below zero in the coldest months of January and February. It is exceedingly cold in the snow-capped mountains.

(4) *Religion*. The people of Tibet, as once said by the Panchan Lama, are all believers of Buddhism, and this has been manifested in their politics, laws, customs and life in general. In the Yuan dynasty, the Red Sect of Lamaism came into being in Tibet, which later underwent a period of decline and decadence through its association with the witchcraft of sword-swallowing and fire-eating. Then came the Yellow Sect. The Dalai Lama and Panchan Lama were the two disciples of the founder of this sect and later co-pontiffs. In addition there are the Black Sect and White Sect, but the Yellow Sect is still the most powerful in Tibet.

The Dalai Lama is the spiritual head of Tibet. Next to him is the Panchan Lama, although in religious rank the two are of equal status. Directly under the Dalai Lama are three great monasteries in and around Lhasa, namely, the Djerpung (Drepung) monastery with four abbots and 7,700 lamas, the Sera monastery with three abbots and 5,500 lamas, and the Gandin (Ganden) monastery with two abbots and 3,300 lamas. Of the three monasteries, the Djerpung is the largest, but the Gandin is the most influential because the chief abbot residing there is next to the Dalai Lama and Panchan Lama in rank. Under the Panchan Lama is the Tashi Lhunpo monastery with 4,000 lamas and numerous smaller monasteries. In addition there are four Hutuketus, each occupying a monastery. Monasteries are found in all parts of Tibet, Sikang, Chinghai and in the northwestern and northern provinces of China.

(5) *Politics*. Tibet is the only theocracy in the world, where religion and politics are inseparable.

The Dalai Lama is the supreme ruler both in religious and political affairs. Under him are three *Silons* or chief councillors of state. Under the *Silons* is the *Kashag* formed by grand councillors of state, of whom three are laymen and one priest known as the *Kashag* Lama. The

Kashag is the highest organ of administrative orders from the Dalai Lama in consultation with the *Silons*. In this connection, the *Silons* have a great deal to say in political matters. Under the *Kashag* are the *Yigtsang*, or secretariat, and the *Jickano*, or accounting department. The former is composed of four ecclesiastical officials, while the latter is made up four lay officials called *Tsipon* who are heads of all lay officials.

The *Tungdo* or Assembly is the most important organ in the political system of Tibet. All lay and ecclesiastical officials, as well as the abbots of the three large monasteries have the right to attend the *Tungdo*. The chairman must be over 60 years of age. When matters of emergency arise in domestic or external affairs, the *Tungdo* is convened to discuss and decide upon measures to be taken in dealing with the situation. Its decisions are acted upon by the government.

The local administrative unit in Tibet is the *Chung*, ruled by a *Chungpon*. In the case of a large *Chung*, two *Chungpon* may be appointed, one lay and the other ecclesiastical.

(6) *Social Organization*. The basic units of society in Tibet are the monasteries and the family. About one-fifth of the population are lamas, who alone form the intelligentsia. Class distinction is deeply rooted in Tibet, but there is opportunity for one to change his class. The common people may become lamas. The Dalai Lama or Panchan Lama, for instance, usually come from the common folk through reincarnation.

There are three main classes, namely, the nobility, the merchants, and the peasants and herdsmen. The lamas constitute a distinctive group and they alone are qualified for ecclesiastical appointments.

(7) *Economic Conditions*. Economically, Tibet is rather backward because of difficult geographical conditions and the scarcity of population. Both the climate and soil composition are unfavorable for farming. Arable land is limited to the small valleys south of Lhasa and even there cultivation is on a limited scale. Wheat, barley and beans are the main crops.

The territory is primarily a pastoral region, especially in the northern part where cattle raising is lucrative. Sheep's wool is exported principally to India.

Industry in Tibet is confined to the handicrafts, particularly woolen products. There is a small arsenal in Lhasa.

Tibet is rich in minerals, such as gold, silver, copper, iron, petroleum, and coal,

but most of them are undeveloped because of superstition.

Tibet still depends to a certain extent upon Szechwan, Yunnan, Sikang and Chinghai provinces for tea, silk, cotton, cloth, tobacco, wines, porcelain and other daily necessities. Its exports include wool, furs, skins, and medicinal herbs.

(8) *Communications.* Tibet is known for its inaccessibility. Primitive methods of transportation are used throughout the region. Of the two age-old trade routes between interior China and Tibet, one extends from Kanging to Lhasa via Batang and Chamdo, and the other from Sining in Chinghai to Lhasa via the Kunlun and Tangla mountain ranges. There is also a route west of Lhasa which connects Tibet and Sinkiang.

The British have extended the Indian railway system to Darjeeling, from which point trade roads across the Himalayas link Yatung and Gyantze, two important trading centers in Tibet. Another route runs from Simla through Gantok, the capital of Sikkim, crossing the Natu La into the Chumbi Valley, and from there runs to Lhasa or Shigatze.

Both railways and highways are projected to link Lhasa and the interior of China, but construction has not yet been started. Means of transportation inside Tibet are confined to animals, principally yaks.

(9) *Important Cities.* LHASA is Tibet's Holy City. It has a population of about 60,000, half of whom are lamas. It is the religious, political and communication center of the entire territory.

TASHI LHUNPO is the second largest city with a population of 20,000. Tibet's important trading centers include Gyantze, Yartung and Gartok.

MONGOLIA

Mongolia was formerly divided into Outer Mongolia and Inner Mongolia. Outer Mongolia, originally one of China's two territories, the other being Tibet, became an independent nation in 1945. Inner Mongolia comprise the provinces of Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan and Ningsia. While Mongols live in many parts of China, most of them are congregated in these four provinces and Outer Mongolia.

The great plateau known as Mongolia occupies about 4-million sq. km. in the heart of the Asiatic continent. It lies from 400-2,000 m. above sea level and is enclosed on all sides by lofty mountains, with the Gobi (desert) in the center. It has a continental climate, subject to constantly variable extremes of heat and cold. The low humidity, coupled with a

scarcity of rainfall, renders agriculture highly impracticable without the aid of irrigation.

The place is inhabited by tribes who originally carried on a nomadic existence in the valleys of the Kerilen river to the north of the Gobi, and who later recurrently invaded the old civilized countries in the Far East, the Near East and Europe. Under Genghis Khan (1162-1127) the Mongols founded a world empire. After the 14th Century, this once powerful empire collapsed and the Mongols split into three main groups—the Northern Mongols in Outer Mongolia, the Southern Mongols in Inner Mongolia, and the Western Mongols in Sinkiang and Chinghai.

The Mongols were divided by the Manchus in the 17th century into a number of tribal leagues and banners in accordance with the Manchu pattern of organization. Definite frontiers were assigned to each of the tribal units, who were ruled by a prince of a particular banner.

The banner is the basic unit of the Mongolian political organization, which may be placed under a league or be independent. The tribal chieftan or *khan* holds office of hereditary right, while the leaders of the leagues are elected from among the banner chiefs. Each banner has a *Jassak* holding office by hereditary title, who is assisted by civil and military officials. The banners are administered by the provincial governments in their respective provinces.

The Mongol population in the various areas is estimated as follows:

Nine Northeastern Provinces	
and Jehol	1,000,000
Chahar	150,000
Suiyuan	220,000
Ningsia	20,000
Chinghai	140,000
Sinkiang	250,000
Outer Mongolia	700,000
Total	2,480,000

The present distribution of the Mongol banners is as follows:

(1) *Mongol Banners in the Nine Northeastern Provinces and Jehol:*

(a) The *Barga* Mongols, numbering about 50,000, occupy the western part of the Hsingan highland in Heilungkiang. They have an administration semi-Mongol and semi-Manchu in nature. There are two *Solon* Banners of a Tungusic forest-nomad origin but are now Mongolized, two new *Barga* Banners and one old *Barga* Banner of old Mongol stock, one *Olot* Banner transferred from Sinkiang in the 18th century, a *Buriat* Banner

from Siberia in the 17th century, and an *Oranchon* Banner of the reindeer-using Tungusic nomad stock. Besides, there is also a group of *Daghors* around Hailar who, through their relations with the Manchus, used to play an important part in the administration of Barga.

(b) The *Daghor* and *Yeghe Mingan* groups also live in Heilungkiang, east of the Hsingan. The *Daghors* are a people of partly Mongol and partly Tungus origin from the Nonni valley. The *Yeghe Mingan* are sometimes called the *Man-nai* or *Hangnai* Olot. They came from Sinkiang and live on the eastern slope of the Hsingan.

(c) The *Jerim League* is the first of the six leagues of Inner Mongolia and together with the *Josoto* and *Joude* form what is generally known as the eastern Mongols. They were the first to join the Manchus in the 17th Century. At present 80 percent of the *Jerim* Mongols engage in agriculture. The league is divided into ten banners, including two *Gorlos* Banners spreading from Changchun to the Sungari river, one *Durbet* Banner in Heilungkiang, one *Jalait* Banner in Heilungkiang and six *Khorchin* Banners in Liaoning.

(d) *Sibo* and *Suruk* Mongols—The *Sibo* Mongols were originally Mongol troops raised to garrison the Willow Palace and organized in an eight-banner cadre on the Manchu system. The *Suruk* Mongols were in charge of the herds from which sacrificial animals were drawn for use at the Manchu imperial tombs at Mukden. Their lands, now cultivated, lie near Changwu in Liaoning.

(e) The *Josoto* League in southeast Jehol is agricultural. It comprises seven banners, including three *Karachin* Banners whose princes are descended from one of Genghis Khan's daughters, two *Tumet* Banners from Suiyuan in the early 17th Century, one *Khalkha* Banner from Outer Mongolia in the 17th Century, and the *Shreto Khurien* in which a Living Buddha is the secular prince.

(f) The *Joude League* in the northern half of Jehol is partly agricultural. It has 13 banners; two *Jarod* Banners, one North *Khorchin* Banner, two *Bairin* Banners, one *Keshikten* Banner, one *Naiman* Banner southwest of Kailu, one *Khalkha* Left Wing Banner, three *Aokhan* Banners east and northeast of Chihfeng, and two *Ongniot* Banners west and northwest of Chihfeng.

(2) *Mongol Banners in Suiyuan and Chahar*: (a) The Chahar Mongols occupy a large territory in northern Chahar and eastern Suiyuan, which is particularly

cultivated. There are eight "military" and four "herdsman" banners. The "herdsman" banners were originally in charge of horses, cows, sheep, and camels for the use of the Manchu emperor. Of the military banners, four—All-Blue, Bordered White, All-White, Bordered Yellow—in Chahar, and four—All-Yellow, All-Red, Bordered Red, Bordered Blue—in Suiyuan. There are also two *Taibis* Banners which served as herdsmen for the Empress Dowager.

(b) The *Silingol League's* ten banners form a long, narrow strip north of the Chahar Mongols in northern Chahar. They are two *Ujumchin* Banners, two *Hochi* Banners, two *Abaga* Banners, and two *Sunid* Banners.

(c) The *Kweihua Tumet* Banner occupies the modern city of Kweisui, Suiyuan provincial capital. It has six Somon with 10,000 people, most of whom have forgotten the Mongol language.

(d) The *Ulanab League* in northern Suiyuan is the best grazing land for camels of the Suiyuan-Sinkiang caravan road. The six banners include one *Durbet Khukhet* Banner, one *Khalkha* Right Wing Banner, one *Mo-Ninggan* Banner, and three *Ulat* Banners.

(e) The *Ikhchao League* occupies the Ordos Grassland in southern Suiyuan and has seven banners in two wings. East Wing: one North, one Center, one South Banner; and West Wing: one North, one Center, one South, and one South End Banner.

(3) *Mongol Banners in Ningsia (Western Mongols)*: (a) The Alashan Mongols form one banner, the tribal name of which is *Hoshot*, with their lands lying west of Alashan range.

(b) The *Etsingol* Mongols form a banner around the *Etsin-Gol*. Their tribal name is *Torgot*.

(4) *Mongols in Chinghai (Western Mongols)*: The Mongols reached Kokonor (Blue Sea) following the invasion of Tibet by the western Mongols at the end of the 16th Century. The Chinghai Mongols are divided into two leagues with 29 banners. They are the Kokonor East Wing League with 11 *Hoshot* banners, one *Hoit* Banner, and one *Durbet* Banner, and the Kokonor West Wing League with two *Chorlos* Banners, nine *Hoshot* Banners, one *Khalkha* Banner, three *Torgot* Banners, and one *Chagan Nom-on Khan* Banner (Prince of the South of the Yellow River Banner).

(5) *Mongols in Sinkiang (Western Mongols)*: Northern Sinkiang was the base from where Mongols invaded Russia, the Near East, and India, and where

the western Mongols waged war against Tibet and the northern Mongols. They occupy the territory mostly between the Altai and the Tianshan ranges. There are three leagues following tribal groupings. They are: (a) The *Unen Susuktu* League is composed entirely of Old *Torgots* with ten banners consisting of non-Mongol groups. These include four *Karashar Torgot* Banners, two *Kur-Kharaoso* (*Erin-Khabirakh*) *Torgot* Banners, one banner of *Chingho Torgot* Banner, and three *Koboksari Torgot* Banners.

(b) The *Bato Setkhitu* League has three Central Division *Hoshot* Banners occupying the Yuiduz plateau northwest of Yenki (Karashar).

(c) The *Ching Setkhitu* League has ten banners distributed from the Tarbagatai region to the slopes of the Altai. There are two New *Torgot* Banners, one *Habchak* New *Hoshot* Banner, three West Wing *Urianghai* Banners, and four East Wing *Urianghai* Banners. These are the so-called *Altai-Urianghai* of Turkish origin but are Mongolized. The word *Urianghai* means "forest dwellers," thus tribes of the same name are not necessarily related to each other.

(d) Besides, there is a *Chahar* group living in the Borotala valley on the way from Tihwa to Ili. They were moved from Chahar to Sinkiang in the 18th Century. Another group are the *Olots* living in the Ili valley known as the Six *Somon*. They are from the central stock of the western Mongols from which *Torgots*, *Hoshot*, and others originate. Both groups have no princes.

(6) *The Outer-Mongolian Aimaks:*

Mongols in Outer Mongolia belong to the group of northern Mongols. They are divided into four *aimaks* according to tribal grouping: (a) *Tsetsen Khan Aimak* contains 23 banners. It is also known as the Eastern Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols.

(b) *Tushtu Khan Aimak* contains 20 banners. It is also known as the Northern Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols. In this territory is the city of Urga.

(c) *Saint Noyan Khan Aimak* contains 24 banners and is also known as the Central Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols. Within these territory is the city of Uliassutai.

(d) *Jasakto Khan Aimak* contains 19 banners. It is also known as the Western Division of the *Khalkha* Mongols.

(7) *The Kobdo Special District*, also known as *Sain Jayagato Aimak*, contains 19 banners. The tribes of this district are historically part of the old western Mongol federation. There are 11 East Wing *Durbet* Banners, three West Wing *Durbet* Banners, one East Wing and one West Wing *Hoit* Banners, one *Jakhchin* (Border) Banner who are *Olots*, one *Olot* Banner, and one *Minggan* Banner. There are also some *Khalkha* Mongols in this district, descendants of the garrison who occupied it after the final collapse of the western Mongol power in the 18th Century.

All the tribes within what is now the *Ching Stekhitu Aimak* under Sinkiang province were formerly included in the Kobdo district. Kobdo authorities were also charged with the supervision of Urianghai.

CHAPTER 3

MAJOR SEAPORTS

The seaports in the 8,630 kilometers long China coast are grouped by the Chinese Ministry of Communications into four classes, as follows:

SPECIAL CLASS: Shanghai.

FIRST CLASS: Dairen, Hulutao, Tangku, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Kowloon, Canton, Chankiang (Kwangchowwan), Keelung.

SECOND CLASS: Antung, Port Arthur, Yingkow (Newchwang), Chinwangtao, Chefoo, Weihaiwei, Lienyun, Ningpo, Yungkia (Wenchow), Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, Kungpei, Kongmoon, Pakhoi, Hoi-kow, Yulin, Kaohsiung.

THIRD CLASS: Pulantien, Lungkow, Tengchow, Tinghai, Santuao, Tsin-kiang, Aotou, Timpak, Yamshien.

The inland ports are divided into two classes:

FIRST CLASS: Nanking, Hankow, Chungking, Harbin, Wuchow.

SECOND CLASS: Chinkiang, Wuhu, Anking (Hwaining), Kiukiang, Yoyang, Changsha, Changteh, Shasi, Ichang, Wanhsien, Kiamusze, Waiyeung (Nanning), Lungchow.

This chapter deals with the special, first and second class seaports.

SHANGHAI

(1) *Location.* Shanghai (31° 13' N. and 121° 27' E.) on the Whangpoo river is some 20 km. from its mouth at Woosung. It became a treaty port at the termination of the Opium War of Nanking in 1842. A piece of land along the Whangpoo river was allotted as a foreign settlement. In 1845 the International Settlement and French Concession were created. During the Taiping Rebellion thousands of people moved into these foreign settlements, resulting in a rapid increase of Shanghai's population. At the end of World War II these concessions were returned to China.

Shanghai owes its importance to its excellent geographical position. It is about

midway along the China coast. The Whangpoo river empties itself into the Yangtze, which is the longest river and the main artery of central China. With a population of more than 4,630,000, Shanghai is China's leading port and seventh among the world's leading cities. Through its harbor 42,890,000 tons of cargo passed in 1937.

The city holds the key to an excellent inland waterway system. Most important of the numerous inland ports on the Yangtze, Hankow, 450 km. upstream, is also a railway center. It is linked with north China via the Peiping-Hankow railway and with south China via the Canton-Hankow railway. Other important river ports are Chinkiang, Nanking, Pukow (terminus of the Tientsin-Pukow railway), Wuhu, Kiukiang, and Chungking.

Shanghai is directly connected with Nanking and Hangchow by rail. Motor roads link this port with many other ports of the country.

(2) *Harbor.* Shanghai harbor covers a section of the Whangpoo river between the Kiangnan wharf to the west and Tungkougow to the east. It is 16,470 m. long by 32 to 610 m. wide. Its facilities can accommodate more than 400,000 tons of shipping, or about 70 ships ranging from 2,000 to 10,000 tons each.

The Fairy Flats (Sheng Tan), located at the mouth of the Yangtze river, affect the flow of traffic. At low tide vessels over 20,000 tons find entering the port difficult and must wait for high tide at the outerharbor of Woosung, where the average depth at low water is 9.15 m. Its muddy, rather than sandy, bed is suitable for anchorage.

Shanghai's development will be retarded unless the lower reaches of the Whangpoo river are well dredged and the shoal at the mouth of the Yangtze is removed. Since V-J Day the Whangpoo Conservancy Board has been dredging the Whangpoo River. By April, 1948, about 4,688,020 cubic meters of mud had been

removed. The water passage regained its prewar depth and is now able to accommodate larger sea-going vessels.

Similar efforts were made to remove the Fairy Flats. Before the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937, about ten million cubic meters of mud were removed. The average depth was 8 m. below the high water mark. After V-J Day the area was again surveyed. Some experts consider such dredging projects too costly to be practical. They suggest shifting the center of Shanghai eastward towards Woosung, and across the Wangpoo river to Pootung, nearer the outer harbor.

The monsoon makes the climate in the Shanghai area rather mild. The temperature ranges between 37°C. in summer and -5°C. in winter with an average of 15.3°C. The annual rainfall is recorded at 900 to 1,100 mm., mostly in late spring and early summer, with 120 to 140 rainy days per annum. The tide at Woosung reaches a peak of 3.3 m. In July and August typhoons reach this port at low velocity. Aside from flooding the low-lying districts little material damage results.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Shanghai is the best equipped harbor in China. The following table shows the general condition of the Shanghai harbor at Poosi and Pootung areas.

Before the war Shanghai had 21 floating wharves and six fixed wharves at Nantao (South City). Most of them were either destroyed or seriously damaged during the war. After V-J Day, a Wharf Rehabilitation Board was established to

repair and construct Nantao wharf facilities. By May, 1947 nine floating wharves were constructed, equipped with tugs, pontoons and UNRRA oil tankers. The adjoining waters were dredged to a depth of 4.2 m. below the low water mark. This created berthing space to serve 18 additional vessels of 3,000 tons, increasing the port's cargo handling capacity by 55,000 tons a year. The second work phase was begun at the end of May, 1947. Lack of money caused a work stoppage in November, after three more floating wharves were completed. Many auxiliary installations were erected in the meanwhile.

Reconstruction of the Nantao ferry was finished in November, 1947. Capacity of the ferry is seven trucks, five automobiles and two motorcycles.

The 21 wharves, formerly foreign-operated, are still serviceable. Fifteen are located in the former International Settlement. Built of steel frames and wooden piles they have a total length of 308 m. The other six are situated in the ex-French Concession. Five are in good condition with a total length of 68 meters.

The municipal government controls a large number of small fixed wharves. Most of them are scattered along Soochow creek between the Garden Bridge and Chouchiachiao.

The China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company owns 21 floating wharves, mainly located in the Poosi area. Nine floating wharves and a great number of small fixed wharves are owned by Chinese shipping companies, while 15 wharves

Channel Depth Below Mean Low Water	Poosi Area		Pootung Area		Total
	Length of Wharf (Meters)	Length of Shoreline (Meters)	Length of Wharf (Meters)	Length of Shoreline (Meters)	
9.15 m. (30 ft.)	2,460	732	682	744	4,618
7.32-9.15 m. (24-30 feet) . . .	2,240	738	6,399	610	9,987
5.49-7.32 m. (18-24 feet) . . .	1,034	1,357	5,132	1,777	9,300
3.66-5.49 m. (12-18 feet) . . .	1,729	3,076	3,745	1,754	10,304
1.83-3.66 m. (6-12 feet)	2,789	3,218	2,089	946	9,042
0-1.83 m. (0-6 feet)	1,701	1,708	1,755	2,932	8,096
(Zero or above zero)	7,672	7,470	4,415	4,743	24,300

are under foreign management. More than half are in good condition.

After V-J Day, the 14 wharves owned by the Japanese were taken over by the Chinese government. Thirteen were managed by the customs authorities and the other by the Ministry of Economic Affairs, until the communist occupation of Shanghai in May, 1949.

Shanghai harbor has a total storage capacity of 794,000 tons of cargo. This includes 70,000 tons of storage space belonging to the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company, 130,000 tons to other Chinese firms, 412,000 tons to foreign concerns, and 182,000 tons formerly Japanese owned.

Shanghai had twelve docks totaling 1,511 m., but many of them became war casualties. Of 49 cranes, only 11 are still usable. The Shanghai-Nanking and Shanghai-Hangchow railway administration ordered a 140 h.p. crane from the United States in 1948, to be installed at its wharves in the Chunghuapang area near Woosung.

(4) *Trade.* In the month of October, 1946 alone, Shanghai harbor berthed 15,121 vessels with a total tonnage of 348,344. This was a 271.2% increase of vessels and 320.8% increase of total tonnage over October, 1945. According to the Chinese Maritime Customs, trade passing through Shanghai in 1946 totaled CNC\$1,536,220,679,000, or about 80.29% of China's total. Of this, CNC\$1,280,916,920,000 were imports, about 85.33% of China's total imports. The balance, CNC\$255,303,759,000 were exports, about 61.95% of China's total exports for 1946.

The leading import items were raw cotton, cotton cloth, woolen goods, machinery and machine tools, vehicles, iron and steel, paper, tobacco, and gasoline. Principal exports were: tung oil, hog bristles, raw silk, leather, hide, and tea.

Most of China's export and import trade has been channeled through Shanghai. Annual cargo-handling capacity is 10,300,000 tons.

DAIREN (TALIEU)

(1) *Location.* Dairen (38° 50' N. and 121° 40' E.) is situated on the southern tip of the Liaotung peninsula. It fronts Dairen bay and is 12.97 km. long and 11.12 km. wide with an area of 199.78 sq. km. The depth of the bay varies from 7 m. to 18 m. Dairen, before the first Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95, was an obscure little village. The Manchu regime planned to construct a harbor there but because of the prevalent storms and increasing accumulation of mud and silt

the project did not materialize. In 1892, at the suggestion of Li Hung-chang, it was made a military fort for the defense of Peking (Peiping). In 1894 it fell with its sister port, Port Arthur, into Japanese hands. In 1898 the port was leased to Russia as a reward for her intervention against Japan's occupation of the Liaotung peninsula after the end of the first Sino-Japanese War. But after Russia was defeated by Japan in 1905, it was returned to Japan without China's consent. Dairen subsequently became the base for Japanese aggression in China Northeastern Provinces.

Dairen is the largest port in north China and is next only to Shanghai in volume of trade. Its status is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan and it has a population of 543,690. According to the Sino-Soviet treaty of August 14, 1945, it was to become a free port under Chinese administration. But Chinese Government troops and civil administrators were barred from the area by Soviet obstruction and armed Chinese Communists.

(2) *Harbor.* The harbor proper is about 1,000,000 sq. m. Its mouth is 400 m. wide. Depths range between 3 and 12 m., average 8 m. The difference between low and high tide is 12 m. Dairen is icebound from November to February.

Temperatures vary between 35.70°C. and -19.9°C. with a mean of 10.2°C. Frost and snow come early in November and linger about 149 days. Precipitation averages 540 mm. a year.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There are three breakwaters outside the harbor: the eastern—615 m. long, the northern—3,702.5 m., and the western—2,255 m. long. The breakwaters are five meters higher than the highest tide mark. During the Japanese lease, aside from the improvement of the old wharves, a pier was constructed at Kantsingtze for coal transportation. Now the harbor can accommodate 38 ships of 20,000 tons at one time. Its cargo-handling capacity, according to the Ministry of Communications, is 10,300,000 tons a year. In prewar years the value of trade passing through Dairen amounted to 1,200,000,000 Japanese yen. Its main items of export are soybean, bean cake and oil, peanuts, salt, fishery products, and millet. The principal imports are cotton goods, iron and steel, machinery and vehicles. Most of Dairen's trade was conducted with Japan. In 1936 its total export trade amounted to 484,606,373 Japanese yen, its import trade 940,510,814 Japanese yen.

There were 753 factories, mostly engaged in chemical and machine works. An output worth 375,985,000 Japanese yen was reported for the year 1936.

HULUTAO

(1) *Location.* Hulutao (40° 45' N. and 121° E.) is a small peninsula jutting into the Lienshan bay. As early as 1907, a plan was advanced to build Hulutao harbor large enough to compete with Japanese-controlled Dairen. Work started in 1910 but was halted in 1911 by the Revolution. It was resumed in 1930, when Chang Hsueh-liang introduced a five-year project to reconstruct the port. Work was again interrupted by the "Mukden Incident." Construction was finally completed in 1938 by the Japanese puppet state of "Manchukuo." Hulutao is now one of the largest Liaotung harbors and an outlet for petroleum and coal from the Fuhsin mines.

The harbor can be developed to handle 3,000,000 tons of cargo a year.

(2) *Harbor.* Hulutao (or the gourd-shaped peninsula) extends into the sea for 3 km. Across the channel is the Kaoliang peninsula. The two promontories embrace a wide water area. The depth of the harbor, even at low tide, is 8.5 m. At high tide, the depth is increased to over 13 m. The harbor can accommodate four 10,000-ton ships and a dozen or more 6,000-ton vessels at one time.

Compared with other ports in north China, the freezing season here is rather short; and the inner part of the harbor is entirely free of ice in the winter.

The harbor has seven wharves with a total length of 5,900 m. The godowns have a total storage capacity of 17,000 tons.

(3) *Trade.* Hulutao owes its importance to the richness in mineral resources of the adjoining areas. About 80% of the coal and other mineral products of the Fuhsin mines were exported from this port; coal and petroleum were the two main items in Hulutao's trade. Volume of export in 1936 totaled 56,000 tons and this was increased to 100,000 tons the following year. The total volume of imports in 1936 was about 45,000 tons, which was boosted to 80,000 tons the next year.

TANGKU

(1) *Location.* Tangku (39° N. and 117° 40' E.), the outer harbor of Tientsin, is located on the northern side of the Hai or Ku river estuary. Heavily silted at many places, the Hai river has been a deterrent to the development of Tientsin as a seaport. The remedy to this situation

lies in the building of Tangku harbor.

Tangku is connected with the Peiping-Liaoning railway and with the entire railway system in north China, covering an area about 3,000 km. in diameter, in which rich mineral, industrial, and agricultural resources are to be found.

(2) *Harbor.* The mouth of the Hai river is bugle-shaped. The water depth in the Tangku harbor varies between 5 and 6 m. while on the Taku side, across the Hai river, it ranges up to 11.2 m. The Hai River Conservancy Bureau reported that during the period from 1910 to 1942 the average high and low water marks at Tangku were higher than those of Taku by 0.258 and 0.46 m., respectively. The velocity of the rising tide is two nautical miles per hour, while that of the ebbing tide is one nautical mile per hour.

Southeasterly winds prevail most of the time and strong northwesterly winds attain an average speed of 86.4 m. an hour. Annual precipitation is 503.7 mm. and rainy days total 53. Temperatures vary between 40°C. and 18.9°C., with an average of 12°C. The harbor is frozen over from December to February. It is not navigable, even with the aid of ice breakers, at 10°C. below zero.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Construction of Tangku harbor was started by the Japanese in 1940 and was continued on a large scale until the end of the war in 1945. The Japanese aimed at a capacity of 8,000,000 tons a year.

The Government in 1946 adopted a three-year plan to continue the work left unfinished by the Japanese. The new plan proposes to increase the capacity by 2,000,000 tons of cargo a year. Further construction will enable the harbor to handle more than 10,000,000 tons. Construction was disrupted by the communist rebellion. There are three breakwaters outside the harbor. The southern one was designed to be 17 km. long; a section of 5 km. has been completed and another section of 4 km. is partially completed. Six km. of the northern breakwater, originally planned to be 13 km. long, were under construction. Of the 650 m. of the lateral breakwater, only a length of 540 m. has been built. The mooring area measures 1,400 by 400 m. with an average depth of about two meters. Pending the completion of the three breakwaters and the removal of sediment along the lower reaches, the passage of the harbor is too shallow to handle large sea-going vessels.

There are two large-size wharves in Tangku harbor; one, 700 m. long, and the other, 350 m. long. The total length

of wharf frontage is 3,640 m. Other harbor facilities include six cranes, 14 dredges, and some dozens of warehouses with a total storage capacity of 29,000 tons.

In addition, there is a lock measuring 180 by 21 m. Its gates are operated with a 75 h.p. motor. Inside the lock the depth is about 5 m., which is navigable by vessels of 3,000 tons.

TIENTSIN

(1) *Location.* Tientsin (39° N. and 117° 15' E.) straddles the Hai river, the confluence of five rivers in Hopei province. In reality, Tientsin is a river port rather than a seaport. While it will remain a metropolis, its functions as a port will be gradually taken over by Tangku harbor, 25 km. to the east.

Tientsin, with a population of 1,772,840, is a special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

(2) *Harbor.* The five tributaries of the Hai river carry a considerable quantity of silt to the low reaches of the river. The estuary of the river would remain blocked if it were not dredged constantly. At Tientsin, however, the Hai river has a depth of 4 to 4.5 m. and a width of 200 meters.

The temperature ranges from 42.7°C. to 16.3°C. below zero, with a mean of 11.6°C. The average rainfall is 526 mm. per annum. Northwesterly winds prevail in January and southeasterly winds in July. Snow begins to fall in the middle of November and freezing sets in from December to February.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* On both banks of the Hai river spread the harbor installations which include 38 wharves, with a total length of 2,512 m., 21 cranes, and 3 pontoons. There are 16 markings along the channel from Tientsin to Tangku. The Hai River Conservancy Bureau has 8 dredges, with other vessels, in constant operation. The channel is now constantly maintained at 4 m. depth with a current of 1,000 cu. m. per second. The covered storage capacity is 45,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* Tientsin usually shows a favorable balance in foreign trade. In November, 1946, the value of imports was CNC\$3,326,351,270; while that of exports was CNC\$4,623,332,730. Of the total export trade, hog bristles made up 60%, and raw cotton and beans 15% each. Among imports, flour and sugar occupy leading places.

Tientsin is prosperous both in commerce and industry. More than 700 factories of various sizes were registered in Tientsin after V-J Day. Among these the

textile industry took the lead. Of nine cotton mills, seven were government owned. Many closed down following communist occupation.

Beyond Tientsin is the vast hinterland of Hopei, Chahar, Shansi, Suiyuan, Kansu, Ningxia, and Sinkiang. Export goods go chiefly to the United States, Britain, Australia, and Canada.

The amount of cargo handled through Tientsin in 1946 was about 7,830,000 tons.

TSINGTAO

(1) *Location.* Tsingtao (36° 3' N. and 120° 23' E.) is situated on Kiaochow bay, which is 20.38 km. long with an area of 197.6 sq. km. It was leased to Germany in 1898. Japan seized it during World War I. After the Washington Conference it was returned to China. The water depth ranges between 60.39 and 7.32 meters. Along with Hsuehchia island, Tsingtao forms a neck 3 km. wide from Kiaochow bay, which is one of the finest natural harbors on the China coast. Tsingtao is a special municipality under jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan. It has a population of 850,000.

The provinces served by its harbor are rich in agricultural and mineral resources. Tsingtao is the only port between Shanghai and Tangku.

(2) *Harbor.* There are two harbors. The larger has an area of 3,970,000 sq. m. with a mouth 269 m. wide; the smaller covers 348,000 sq. m. with a mouth 100 m. wide. Their water depths are nine and five meters, respectively. The harbors are open in winter.

The temperature varies between 35.9°C. and 16°C. below zero, with a mean of 12°C. Average summer heat is 23°C.; average winter cold is 10°C. below zero. Annual precipitation is about 646 mm.; annual rainy days number 70 to 80. The tide reaches a maximum height of 3.3 meters.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* The large harbor has a total available frontage of 4,534 m. and is shielded by a semi-circular breakwater 2,990 m. long and 5 m. high. On the breakwater are railroad tracks and five wharves. The first wharf can accommodate six 8,000-ton vessels; the second, eight 1,500-ton vessels; the third, one 6,000-ton vessel; and the fourth, seven 8,000-ton vessels. The fifth wharf, completed in 1936, is the largest.

The inner harbor has 2,455 m. of water frontage. To its south and north are two breakwaters. There is a pier to facilitate the loading and unloading of cargo.

The Ministry of Communications reports that Tsingtao harbor has four

cranes, 20 navigation markings, two dredges, 6,996 meters of wharves, and 52,000 tons capacity of godowns.

(4) *Trade.* Tsingtao is an important gateway of Shantung province. It is connected with the hinterland by the Kiaochow-Tsinan railway. In 1948 Tsingtao had more than 1,000 factories of various sizes. The main export items are: salt, peanuts, eggs, straw braid for making hats, leather, tobacco, and fishery products. Among the leading imports are: cotton piecegoods, sugar, mineral oils, chemicals, and industrial materials. Tsingtao's trade constitutes about 1.75% of China's total trade. In 1933 it handled CNC\$70,846,000 worth of imports and CNC\$29,238,000 worth of exports. In 1946 it handled CNC\$21,405,294,000 worth of imports and CNC\$11,934,024,000 worth of exports, constituting 2% and 2.98%, respectively, of the country's import and export trade.

The Ministry of Communications reports that in 1947 Tsingtao had a cargo handling capacity of 7,830,000 tons.

KOWLOON

Kowloon (22° 18' N. and 114° 12' E.) is located on the western tip of a small peninsula across the channel from Hongkong. It was leased to Great Britain in 1898 for a term of 99 years. It began to flourish after Hongkong was made a free port. The bulk of exports and imports between south China and Hongkong flows through Kowloon.

The harbor has a depth varying from two to 40 m., but generally it is 9.2 m. Its inner harbor is inside Wanchuchou (shoal) where the water depth averages nine meters. Shielded by a breakwater and a narrow gateway, it is particularly well protected from heavy seas and storms.

Customs statistics for 1946 show that CNC\$37,726,182,000 and CNC\$8,326,576,000 worth of goods were imported and exported, respectively, through this port. This places Kowloon fourth in foreign trade among Chinese ports. The chief import items of 1946 were gasoline, raw cotton, kerosene, vehicles, iron and steel, rubber and rubber goods, paper, and salted fishery products. Major exports were lumber, tung oil, eggs and egg products, peanut oil, cotton piece goods, and soybean.

Kowloon is capable of handling 30,000,000 tons of cargo per annum.

CHANKIANG (KWANGCHOWWAN)

Kwangchowwan (bay) is situated along the eastern shore of Luichow peninsula, Kwangtung province, with four satellite

isles around it. It was leased to France as a naval base in 1898 and was returned to China in 1945. It was then renamed Chankiang and was created an ordinary municipality under the Kwangtung provincial government.

The bay has a length of 48 km., a width of some 2.2 km., and an area of 149.75 sq. km. The water depth varies from 7 to 40 m. and is generally about 10 m. deep near the port.

Customs reports indicate that Chankiang handled CNC\$7,050,514,000 worth of trade in 1946, including CNC\$4,478,806,000 worth of imports and CNC\$2,517,708,000 worth of exports. The volume of trade will be greatly increased when the proposed railway is built to link the port with various parts of Kwangtung and Kwangsi. The yearly cargo-handling capacity is estimated at 200,000 tons.

Chief items of export are sugar, fruits, lumber, and tung oil. Leading imports are railway equipment, gasoline, and cotton piecegoods. Most export goods are sent to Kowloon for re-export.

CANTON

(1) *Location.* Canton (23° 7' N. and 113° 14' E.) is situated on the Pearl river. It prospered after opening as one of the five treaty ports following the Treaty of Nanking of 1842, which concluded the Opium War. The Pearl river and its upper reaches drain a large area of Kwangsi and Kwangtung. Most of the shipping to and from these provinces, and to a considerable extent to and from Hunan, Yunnan, and Kweichow, are delivered through Canton. A special municipality directly under the Executive Yuan, Canton has a population of 1,128,065.

(2) *Harbor.* There are two harbors in Canton. The inner harbor rides on both banks of the Pearl river below Shameen, where the water is generally from 3 to 8 m. deep. Ships of not more than 500 tons can reach the front water passage, while the rear passage is accessible only to shallow draft vessels. The outer harbor is at Whampoa, 18 km. east of Canton. The water depth is from 6.5 to 9 m., and from 6 to 10 m. along the navigational passage where vessels of deep draft must berth. The difference between high and low tidal marks is about 1.6 meters.

Subtropical climate prevails in Canton, but as the monsoon blows frequently it is not hot in summer. The average temperature for summer is 28.2°C. and that for the winter is 13.4°C. with an annual average of 21.8°C. The precipitation is 1,796

mm. per annum and the year's rainy days average about 151.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* On both sides of the front water passage of the inner harbor (the Long Diike area), there are 117 wharves. Eleven are mostly of concrete construction. The outer harbor has a wharf of 400 m. long, equipped with a 5-ton crane. Two markings are set up at a length of 220 and 260 m. over the wharf. Most of its godowns are in a state of disrepair.

Construction of the new Whampoa harbor was started in 1948 and was scheduled for completion in two years. When completed it will be the largest port in south China.

(4) *Trade.* Canton is the leading port in south China and ranks third in commercial importance. Customs statistics place the total value of trade in 1946 at CNC\$83,053,791,000. Of this the imports made up CNC\$47,013,628,000, second in China's total import trade. The exports accounted for CNC\$36,040,163,000, third in China's total export trade. The principal imports in 1946 were raw cotton, paper, mineral oils, rubber goods, iron and steel, flour, and aluminum. The chief exports were tung oil, raw silk, tin, lumber, and cotton piece goods. As Canton is close to the free port of Hongkong, smuggling is rampant. An anti-smuggling agreement was concluded between the Chinese and Hongkong governments early in 1948, but up to September of that year its provisions were not fully implemented.

Canton's cargo-handling capacity is estimated at 8,340,000 tons per annum.

KEELUNG

(1) *Location.* Keelung (25° 20' N. and 121° 40' E.) is an important port in north Taiwan. The port is 132,031 sq. km. in area. Construction on the harbor started as early as 1871 under the reign of the Manchu dynasty. After the cession of Taiwan to Japan in 1895, it became a Japanese naval base. World War II brought to it considerable destruction, but recovery has been rapid since the end of the war. Taiwan returned to China in 1945. Keelung is now the seventh largest city in Taiwan, with a population of 123,000.

(2) *Harbor.* Having a good amount of corrugated natural frontage and many isles around its narrow mouth, Keelung makes an excellent naval base. Its average water depth is 9 meters.

Northwest winds prevail most of the year with an average velocity of 2.7 m. per second, the heaviest winds generally in the winter. The average temperature

is 22°C. with an average summer temperature of 26°C. and an average winter temperature of 14°C. Slight earth tremors occur somewhat frequently.

The large number of rainy days—224 out of 365 days a year—is as much an advantage to agriculture as it is an obstruction to navigation. The annual precipitation in 1944 was registered at 3,294.5 mm.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Keelung possesses many wharves with a total length of 8,712 m. At the beginning of 1946, available water frontage was 2,212.90 m. in length. It was extended to 2,647.60 m. at the end of the year, sufficient to berth 30 vessels of considerable size at one time, including some of 10,000 and 20,000 tons.

There are four breakwaters. Those at Hsientung and Shehliatao are 32,730 and 23,640 m., respectively. Completed before the war, neither sustained war damage. The other two are located at the eastern and western sides of the outer harbor. Work on them was partially completed before the war, but some sections were destroyed by air bombing. They are now extended to 20,000 and 55,000 m., respectively. The bombed blocks have also been repaired.

Keelung's storage capacity was 134,710 tons in prewar years. During the war, godowns with a total capacity of 11,499 tons were destroyed, and several others with a capacity of 21,255 tons were seriously damaged. Storage space for about 102,006 tons still needs repair. There are 14 cranes still usable—one 35-ton crane and 13 traveling electric cranes (one 30-ton, two 10-ton and ten 5-ton).

There are two markings in the outer harbor and two warning buoys in the dredging area. Out of the nine mooring buoys, six are in good condition. There are also three docks capable of accommodating 20,000-ton, 10,000-ton, and 3,000-ton vessels, respectively. Three canals, linking the harbor with the interior, are 2,847.70 m. in length.

There are two fuel boats and a 54-meter belt of water frontage reserved for the loading and unloading of coal and other fuel.

(4) *Trade.* In 1946 Keelung registered the arrival of 318 large vessels, 412 steam launches, and 1,477 launches and other native craft. Net tonnage totaled 1,678,603 tons (not including warships). In the same year, departures from this port totaled 309 large vessels, 390 steam launches, and 1,597 native launches—aggregating 1,646,974 tons.

The chief exports are coal, sugar, tea, fruits, cement, and rice. In 1946, the volume of export trade was 635,739 tons, the bulk of which was coal and sugar. Principal import items are cotton cloth, drugs, flour, beans, cereals, industrial materials, and mineral oils. Altogether 168,464 tons of imports were registered in 1946. In volume, Keelung seems to have struck a favorable balance in trade, but in cash value imports exceed exports.

Keelung has an estimated cargo handling capacity of 9,420,000 tons. The value of its trade in 1946 was CNC\$1,823,-807,000, of which CNC\$1,206,421,000 represented imports, and CNC\$617,386,000 exports.

ANTUNG

(1) *Location.* Antung (40° 15' N. and 124° 25' E.) is a port of great military importance in China's northeast, lying on the western bank of the Yalu river, the border between China and Korea. It is about 40 km. from the estuary of the river where, during Japanese occupation, a Tatung harbor was planned for a point 30 km. southwest of Antung. That harbor, had it been constructed, would have been northeastern China's most promising warm water port. Antung is a thriving industrial and commercial center. Its population is around 315,000.

(2) *Harbor.* Antung harbor depths vary to a considerable degree. In the vicinity of the railway bridge, it is about 3.6 m. below low water and 6 m. below high water; while at Wutaokou, this is reduced to one meter below low water and 3.3 m. below high water. Santaolangtou, the entrance of the harbor, is accessible only to vessels of not more than 3,000 tons.

The projected ice-free Tatung harbor is about 30 km. southwest of Antung city. It extends from the mouth of the tributary of Chaotzekow southwestward towards the tip of the western bank of the Yalu river. The Yalu river is 6.7 km. in width at its mouth, its current being split into two channels by several isles. On the western channel will lie the new Tatung harbor. The depth here generally ranges between six and eight meters. The isles at the mouth protect the harbor from wind and wave action.

The average temperature at Antung is 9°C. In the winter the thermometer drops to 12°C. below zero. There is a period of intense heat in the summer, which generally lasts for one month. Precipitation of about 700-900 mm. per annum is an advantage enjoyed over other north China ports. Freezing of the Yalu river for

four months in the winter diverts much of the trade which normally would be routed through Antung.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There is a considerable stretch of water frontage at Antung. Under the management of the Japanese South Manchurian railway, 2,069 m. of frontage were built, including 906 m. of masonry and 1,162 m. of wooden pilings. On the upper stretch of the bank, the local Chamber of Commerce constructed 1,000 m. of stone frontage. Further upstream there is another section of stone frontage with a length of 500 m. Besides, British shipping companies had built 36 m. of wooden frontage for private use. However, there is scarcely enough mooring space deep enough to accommodate sizable ships. Dredging is, therefore, necessary. At present, most vessels entering or leaving the harbor have to berth at such places as Santaolangtou, Changtao, Tatungkow, and Tisssutau by motor launches shuttling back and forth to load and unload cargo and passengers.

The covered storage capacity totals about 5,000 tons.

PORT ARTHUR

Port Arthur (38° 48' N and 121° 20' E.) is situated on the southern tip of the Liaotung peninsula which, together with the Shantung peninsula on the other side of the Pohai (sea), forms the Liaotung gulf. Since its construction into a naval base in the Manchu dynasty, it has virtually been the lock of Liaotung gulf. After the first Sino-Japanese war, Port Arthur, together with the port of Dairen, was leased to Russia. After the Russo-Japanese war in 1904, it was transferred to the Japanese. Following V-J Day, it became a naval base for the joint use of China and Russia, in accordance with the Sino-Soviet treaty of 1945.

The harbor is bound on the east by the Golden Hill and on the west by the Tiger Tail peninsula, both being mountainous cliffs with a gap of less than 300 m., through which warships of considerable size can pass only one at a time. Inside the gap, there is a spacious water area consisting of two bays. The eastern bay measures 400 by 270 m. with a depth of 11 to 13 m. below the low water mark. The western one has an area three times as large but is generally only about 10 m. deep. The former is able to accommodate seven big war vessels simultaneously while the latter, only shallow draft vessels.

In point of trade, Port Arthur is far less flourishing than its sister port,

Dairen, which has similar features of climate. Average temperature is 10°C. throughout the year and annual rainfall amounts to about 500 mm. In the winter Port Arthur does not freeze as badly as Dairen.

No figures regarding the present status of harbor facilities are available, as the port is still under Russian occupation. While under Japanese rule, Port Arthur's average amount of trade was 59,861 tons of imports and 55,760 tons of exports a year. Its estimated cargo handling capacity, according to the Ministry of Communications, is about 598,000 tons a year.

YINGKOW (NEWCHWANG)

(1) *Location.* Yingkow (40° 48' N. and 122° 20' E.) is located at the estuary of the Liao river, 19.5 km. from the sea. The importance of Yingkow as a port has been greatly reduced since the completion of the South Manchuria railway, now part of the Chinese Changchun railway, which ends at Dairen. Before then, almost all products from the Liao river valley were concentrated at Yingkow for shipment. The other factor in its loss of commercial importance is its undesirability as a harbor as compared with Dairen.

(2) *Harbor.* The estuary upon which Yingkow is located is bugle-shaped, with a width of 780 meters. The 400 m. Liao river is the second important artery for the Sungari-Liao basin. The harbor has a range of depth between two and eight meters. At high tide, which is about five meters, vessels of more than five meters draft have no difficulty entering or leaving.

Temperature is between 36°C. to 30°C. below zero, with an average of 8.5°C. Rainfall is recorded at 600-700 mm. per annum; there are less than 70 rainy days a year. The frosting season begins by October 12 and ends by April 13; the snow season lasts from November to March. The harbor is frozen for three months in the winter.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* The harbor has a total length of 5,150 meters. This limited space is generally reserved for anchorage of steamers while at places below the western boundary launches can take berth.

Before the communist occupation, there was a length of 4,026 m. of wharves with a storage capacity of 138,000 tons. One dredge was constantly at work. From the harbor down to the sea there were about 30 markings. However, bigger vessels were warned not to sail at night pending improvement of the passage. The

harbor can accommodate thirty-four 4,000-ton ships.

(4) *Trade.* In recent years the main items of export were soybeans, bean oil, bean cake, fishery products, and salt, while the leading imports were machinery and spare parts, industrial materials, cotton goods, prepared skin and fur. The value of the import trade for 1946, according to the Chinese Maritime Customs, was CNC\$496,867,000. The annual cargo-handling capacity of Yingkow is rated at 720,000 tons.

CHINWANGTAO

(1) *Location.* Chinwangtao (39° 55' N. and 119° 38' E.) is situated on a small peninsula in the Gulf of Chihli, connected by a branch line with the Peiping-Mukden railway. Tangku is 175 km. to the southwest. The freezing season is rather short and not severe. Thus, Chinwangtao often replaces other north China ports in the handling of winter cargoes. Peitaiho, a suburban town to the southwest, is a summer resort.

The harbor was built by the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company in 1901-02 and was later bought by the Kailan Mining Administration.

(2) *Harbor.* The site of Chinwangtao harbor is on the western side of a small finger-shaped peninsula. It is 0.371 km. long with an area of a little below one sq. km. As it is not far from the deep water line of the sea, the water depth ranges up to 36 m. The terrain shields the harbor from cyclones and wave action.

The monsoons bring this harbor a rather mild summer climate. The winters are colder than in Peiping. Temperatures range between 25°C. to 6°C. below zero, with 9.9°C. as the average. Annual precipitation is 666 mm. with rainy days numbering about 68 a year. From October to January, the harbor is covered with thin ice, but ships can enter without the aid of ice-breakers.

The main facilities include two wharves with a total length of 670.5 m., a number of godowns with 30,000 tons storage capacity, two cranes, and two dredges.

(3) *Trade.* This port owes its prosperity to the near-by coal mines at Kaiping. Luanhsien, Shihmenchai and Liukiang, and cement, machinery, and glass manufacturing mills at Tangshan. In the winter, it attracts trade from ice-bound Tientsin.

In 1946, its shipping business was CNC\$7,417,085,000, holding the eleventh place in the nation's total trade. Of this, CNC\$5,647,032,000 was for exports and CNC\$1,770,036,000 for imports. The

leading imported goods were hardware, cotton yarn, industrial materials, and mineral oils.

Annual cargo handling capacity of Chinwangtao is estimated at 4,990,000 tons.

CHEFOO

(1) *Location.* Chefoo ($37^{\circ} 33' \text{ N.}$ and $121^{\circ} 22' \text{ E.}$) faces the Yellow Sea, flanked by the Sulphur Hill at its rear and Chefoo peninsula on the northeast. Together with Port Arthur, it controls the Pohai straits. It serves as the port for the Shantung peninsula, and was once an important naval base.

(2) *Harbor.* Surrounding the eastern tip of the Chefoo peninsula and the Chefoo hill is a large expanse of water known as Chefoo bay. At the southeastern end of the bay Chefoo harbor is located. Outside the bay is Kungtung island, which serves as a barrier for the harbor.

Chefoo harbor is 5.38 sq. km. in area with an average water depth of six meters, the greatest depth being 68 m. Another natural advantage is absence of silting.

The temperature ranges between 38°C. and 12°C. below zero, with 12.3°C. as the average. It does not freeze in winter, although small icebergs occasionally can be found from December to February. Annual rainfall is 600-700 mm., and rainy days number about 60 to 80 a year. The difference between high and low tidal marks is 2.3 meters.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There are two breakwaters—one on the northeast and the other on the west, with a total length of 1,920 meters. The northeastern breakwater parallels the harbor, and halves the harbor entrance. Mooring spaces are mainly along the southwestern foot of Chefoo hill. There are three major wharves.

Repeated communist attacks and dwindling purchasing power brought Chefoo's once flourishing trade to a standstill. In 1933 its imports and exports were CNC\$7,565,000 and CNC\$10,339,000, respectively. Main export goods were raw silk, straw braid for hats, soybean, and grape wine. The leading imports were flour, cotton cloth, and other staples.

WEIHAIWEI

(1) *Location.* Weihaiwei ($37^{\circ} 30' \text{ N.}$ and 122° E.) is on the Yellow Sea, shielded by Liukung island and surrounded by sheltering hills. It was once a Chinese naval base. Leased to Britain in 1898, it was returned to China in 1930.

(2) *Harbor Facilities.* The eastern

channel of the divided harbor mouth is 6.48 by 4.63 km., with depths between 16.4 and 5.9 meters. The western channel is 4.63 by 2.78 km., with depths between 36.6 and 5.9 meters. The western channel is, therefore, much more serviceable. Liukung island is three km. by two km. with an elevation of 160 m. above sea level. On the north, it is surrounded by steep precipices.

The average temperature is 12.2°C. Summer and winter extremities are 36.5°C. and 11°C. below zero, respectively. The harbor and the adjoining sea is ice-free. Annual precipitation is 50 mm. during 80 rainy days.

Before the war there were seven wharves, five lighterages, three buoys, and one beacon. Cargo-handling capacity was estimated at 600,000 tons a year.

Chief items of export were straw braid for hats, raw silk, and fruits. Import items were flour, cotton cloth, and beans.

LIENYUN (LIEN YUN HARBOR)

(1) *Location.* Lienyun ($34^{\circ} 40' \text{ N.}$ and $119^{\circ} 30' \text{ E.}$) is on the north Kiangsu coast. On the west is Silien island, and beyond the harbor is Yuntai mountain. The Lunghai railway starts from here running through central China to Shensi and Kansu provinces.

(2) *Harbor.* The harbor is shielded from the open sea by the Tunglien and Silien islands, which are three to four km. apart, forming a water passage of considerable depth. Around these islands silt and mud accumulate rapidly. Due to silt, the average depth of the harbor is now about four meters. The harbor bed at Laoyao is solid enough for the building of new wharves and other parts of the bed, chiefly composed of sand, are suitable for anchorage.

Northeast, northwest and southeast winds prevail through most of the year. The harbor is well protected on the southwest and northwest.

The average temperature is 15.2°C. , with summer and winter extremities at 39°C. and 2°C. below zero. Annual precipitation is 700 mm. and the number of rainy days ranges from 70 to 90.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* A 350-meter pier, seven m. high and 50 m. wide, projects into the sea. The 125 meters of frontage can handle three 3,000-ton vessels. There are two cranes and one warehouse measuring 100 by 20 m. on the pier. The wharves have a total length of 1,329 meters.

After years of neglect, a large part of the harbor is now silted. The water area in front of the wharves is so shallow that

no ships above 1,000 tons can berth there safely.

Total storage capacity was estimated at 200 tons. The harbor once had a cargo-handling capacity of 300,000 tons.

NINGPO

(1) *Location.* Ningpo (29° 48' N. and 121° 35' E.) is situated on the Yung river, 26 km. from the sea. It was opened as a treaty port at the end of the Opium War. It now has a population of 250,000.

(2) *Harbor.* The water depth of the Yung river ranges up to 17 m. at the mouth and to 5.5 at Ningpo harbor, which measures 1,853 by 270 meters. The Yung river originates in the Szeming mountains and has only a meagre volume of water, leaving Ningpo little hope for further development.

The temperature ranges between 20°C. and 0°C., with an average of 16.1°C. Annual rainfall is 1,600 mm., with 110 to 120 rainy days.

Prevailing summer winds are southeasterly while northwest winds prevail in the winter. Typhoons and frequent storms come during July, August, and September.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There are 13 wharves with a total length of about 330 meters. The storage capacity was estimated at 24,000 tons. Ningpo, being a river port, can accommodate sea-going vessels up to 2,000 tons. Chenhai is thus often used as Ningpo's outer harbor.

(4) *Trade.* Ningpo's trade is mostly regional. Leading items of import are textile and consumer goods. Exports include tea, raw cotton, lumber, and fishery products.

Besides those on the regular Shanghai-Ningpo run, vessels going down to the South Seas usually stop here. The total value of Ningpo's trade for 1946 was CNC\$133,847,000, most of which was made up of imports.

YUNGKIA (WENCHOW)

(1) *Location.* Yungkia (28° 1' N. and 120° 38' E.) is located on the southern bank of the Ou river, 30 km. from the sea. This harbor is seriously hampered by Wenchow island, which is situated in the middle of the estuary of the Ou river. This cuts the current into two channels dotted with small shoals. In Chekiang province, Yungkia is second to Ningpo in importance.

(2) *Harbor.* The Ou river originates in the Hsienhsia mountains. It is 460.8 km. long and has many rapids. Only the section below Sungyang is navigable. Steamers can sail up river for 52 km. and steam launches for 69 km. to Ching-

tien. Wenchow bay, although nine meters deep at some places, is choked with silt. The average harbor depth is 4.4 meters. The marginal space of water is too shallow to handle sizable ships.

The temperature varies between 38.5°C. and -2°C., with an average of 18.5°C. Southeast winds prevail in the summer. Annual rainy days number around 145 and the precipitation is 1,721 mm. a year. Late in the summer, typhoons often enter the continent through this port. The tide rises to a height of six meters.

The harbor has inadequate facilities. In the prewar years, besides 11 pontoon wharves, there was not a single stationary wharf. Since V-J Day little improvement has been made.

(3) *Trade.* Trade here is mostly conducted with Shanghai, Foochow, and Keelung. Chief imports are cotton cloth and other manufactured goods. Main exports are tea, leather products, straw mats, and paper. Yungkia lags far behind Ningpo in prosperity.

Cargo-handling capacity can be boosted to 2,000,000 tons a year by improved harbor facilities.

FOOCHOW

(1) *Location.* Foochow (25° 59' N. and 119° 27' E.) is situated on the northern bank of the Min river, about five km. from the sea. Its commercial center, Nantai island, is in the middle of the river. The harbor is too shallow to berth sizable vessels; these invariably moor at Mawei (Mamoi) harbor, 25 km. to the east, which has long been a Chinese naval base. Foochow now has a population of about 300,000.

(2) *Harbor.* The mouth of the Min river is divided into two channels by Huangchi island. In the northern channel the water passage is along a line close to the northern bank. Barred by Foochi Isle and impeded by heavy sediment at its mouth, the southern channel is of less navigational value. Most ships, therefore, berth at wharves along the northern channel. Water depths at the estuary range between five and 20 m., and at Mawei up to 26 meters. Foochow harbor water depth falls to three meters. Cargoes are moved with the aid of small steamboats and launches.

The climate here is of a subtropical character with abundant rainfall and great humidity. The average temperature is 19.8°C., with the maximum and minimum at 37°C. and 0°C., respectively. Annual precipitation is 1,440 to 1,500 mm. a year and rainy days vary between 100 and 120 a year. The tide reaches a height

of 4.5 meters. Typhoons occasionally sweep over with a high velocity.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Shipping here is mostly carried on with Formosa, as it was before the war. There are 31 wharves and 10 pontoons, and 39 navigational markings, including four lighthouses, 17 buoys, and 14 sign posts. Storage capacity has been reduced by war to 7,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* In October, 1946, export trade reached CNC\$6,065,752,815, of which native products accounted for CNC\$5,502,944,430, a little over 90%. These products include lumber, tea, dry bamboo shoots, paper, lacquer ware, mushrooms, and sugar. During the same period, the value of imports was CNC\$4,819,638,238, consisting principally of cotton cloth and yarn and soybeans.

Cargo-handling capacity is estimated at 2,090,000 tons.

AMOY

(1) *Location.* Amoy (24° 26' N. and 118° 4' E.) is situated in Quemoy bay. It is a small island with an elevation of five meters and an area of 117 sq. km. Closely adjoining is Quemoy island. Amoy is connected by ferry with Sungyu, railway town on the mainland. It was opened as a treaty port at the end of the Opium War and now has a population of 124,000.

(2) *Harbor.* Quemoy bay extends to Weitou in the north, and to Chenhai cape in the south. It is 50 km. wide at its mouth and is deeper south of Quemoy island than on the north.

There are two harbors at Amoy. The outer harbor is between Kulangsu and the mainland and is exposed to the southwest winds. The inner harbor is between Kulangsu and Amoy island. The former measures 3.63 sq. km. with a maximum depth of nine meters, while the latter is 1.28 sq. km. with depths ranging between seven and 25 meters. The average water depth in the mooring area is nine to 12 meters.

The tide sometimes rises over five meters. Temperatures reach 36°C. in the summer and 5°C. in the winter. Annual precipitation is 1,179 mm. in 80 to 110 rainy days.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* The inner harbor is generally designated as the harbor of Amoy. A windbreak has been built to provide a haven for seagoing vessels in case of storm. Opposite Kulangsu island are wharves with a total length of 140 meters.

The sheltered storage capacity is estimated at 7,000 tons. Further develop-

ment of Amoy harbor is handicapped by the lack of adequate communication facilities to link it with the interior.

(4) *Trade.* Amoy usually registers an unfavorable balance of trade. In 1946, the volume of trade totaled CNC\$10,433,097,000, ninth place in the nation's total. Of this figure, imports made up of CNC\$7,681,291,000. Leading imports were manufactured goods, kerosene, cotton yarn, and cloth. Major exports were longan fruit, camphor, sugar, and tobacco.

SWATOW

(1) *Location.* Swatow (23° 21' N. and 116° 40' E.) is located at the estuary of the Han river, with Tahao island serving as a shield. The biggest port in east Kwangtung, it is a major outlet for the farm products of the Han river delta. Ships plying the south China coast usually stop here. Thus far it has not completely emerged from its wartime decline in commerce. Present population is about 159,000.

(2) *Harbor.* Swatow harbor measures 5.81 sq. km. Water depths range to 20 meters. As the estuary silts heavily, it compares unfavorably with the harbor of Amoy. In the middle of the water passage is Fangchi hill, which can be built into a good fort. Average depth of the harbor is about six meters.

Summer temperatures rise to 38°C., winter temperatures fall to 4°C., with a yearly average of 22°C. There is hardly any snow. Annual precipitation is 1,250 to 1,400 mm. The tide rises three meters. Typhoons occasionally touch this harbor.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* Before the war there were five wharves, eight pontoons, and one crane. The harbor markings include six lighthouses, three buoys, and one sign post. Considerable war damage was suffered by these wharf facilities, reducing storage capacity to 13,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* Swatow ranks sixth in the nation's trading ports. Leading exports are sugar, tobacco, and paper. Chief imports are cotton yarn and cloth, kerosene, rice, and matches. In 1946, trade totaled CNC\$32,092,715,000, of which CNC\$20,529,961,000 was for imports and CNC\$11,562,754,000 for exports. Cargo-handling capacity is about 5,000,000 tons a year.

KUNGPEI

Kungpei (22° 10' N. and 113° 31' E.) is situated on Malu island, near Macao. Opened in 1887, it has become an important transshipment point between Canton and Macao. Average depth is 8.5

meters. Vessels up to 2,000 tons can enter the port safely. With the silting of Macao harbor, Kungpei is becoming increasingly prosperous.

The leading export goods are silk and silk piecegoods, straw mats, tobacco, fruits, lumber, eggs, sugar, and tea. Main imports are cotton yarn and cloth, flour, kerosene, and rice flour.

Total cargo-handling capacity is about 200,000 tons.

KONGMOON

Kongmoon harbor (22° 26' N. and 113° 5' E.) is at the lower reaches of the West river and five km. from Kongmoon. It has a water frontage of 1,000 m. and water depth below low water averages about three meters. Out of seven wharves, totaling 207 m. long, only two remain serviceable.

In 1946, trade totaled CNC\$8,611,690,000, of which exports were CNC\$4,978,866,000 and imports CNC\$3,632,824,000. Chief imports are tung oil, lumber, eggs, peanut oil, and tea. Cargo-handling capacity is about 200,000 tons.

PAKHOI

Pakhoi (21° 28' N. and 109° 5' E.) is situated on the western side of the Luichow peninsula. There the Lien river empties into the sea. Pakhoi bay is 11 km. long and 36 km. wide, covering an area of 528 sq. km. Water depths vary between 0.3 and 6.4 meters. In the harbor a depth of 6.4 m. is maintained by dredging. Vessels up to 3,000 tons can use the harbor safely. Communication lines with the interior are inadequate.

Warm and humid, the climate is sub-tropical in character. The average temperature is 22.6°C. Summer and winter extremities are 42°C. and 7°C., respectively. Annual precipitation is 1,300 mm., with 115 rainy days.

Most of Pakhoi's trade is with Indo-China. Leading items of export are fruits, sugar, lumber, and tung oil; while rice and cotton yarn occupy top places in its import trade. Annual cargo-handling capacity is about 550,000 tons.

HOIKOW

Hoikow (20° 3' N. and 110° 15' E.) is the ranking port of Hainan island. Across the channel from Hoikow is the Luichow peninsula. The harbor covers an area of 42.7 sq. km. Water depths are between 0.5 m. and 11.5 m. Marginal water space is shallow. Seagoing vessels anchor 3 km. off shore and cargo is moved by launches. Tides are irregular and typhoons frequently hit this port.

The average temperature is 25°C. Minimum low temperature in winter is 20°C., the summer maximum is 28.5°C. Annual precipitation is 1,500 mm. and rainy days number about 110.

Hoikow port was opened in 1858. It handles more than half the trade of Hainan island. Major exports are cattle, poultry, hides, sugar, sesame seed, melon seed, rattan, salt, and betel-nut. Chief imports are cotton cloth, kerosene, rice, and sugar.

Annual cargo-handling capacity is 1,280,000 tons.

YULIN

Yulin (18° 15' N. and 109° 35' E.), 40 km. from Aih sien on the southern extremity of Hainan island, is suitable for a naval base. Proximity to the Paracels islands gives it additional strategical importance.

There are two harbors. The inner harbor measures 20 sq. km., with water depths between 5 and 12 m. Its gateway is about 1 km. long and 30 m. wide. The outer harbor can be used for commercial shipping. Spacious and deep, depths vary between 10 and 30 m. The inner harbor is capable of berthing about ten 1,000-ton vessels, while the outer harbor can accommodate 10,000-ton vessels.

Yulin is protected from heavy winds. In 1905, the Russian Baltic fleet refueled here before moving northward to engage the Japanese. After V-J Day, work was started to convert it into a naval base.

KAOHSIUNG

(1) *Location.* Kaohsiung (22° 15' N. and 120° 37' E.) is situated on southern Taiwan. During the Ming dynasty, many immigrants from Kwangtung and Fukien settled here. By 1933, it was one of Taiwan's leading industrial and commercial centers. The port sustained great war damage from American air-bombing. Kaohsiung is the third largest city in Taiwan, with a population of 211,000.

(2) *Harbor.* The harbor area is 1,567.64 sq. km., with a water depth varying between five and nine meters. Its bottom is chiefly composed of sand. The tide advances from the southeast direction at a speed of three miles per hour. The average difference between high and low tidal marks is about one meter.

Monsoons blow from November to March and typhoons visit this port occasionally from June to September. Velocity of the northwest winds is 28 m. per second and that of the southwestern winds about 14 meters. Temperatures vary between 32.75°C. and 14.79°C., with an average of 24.42°C.

(3) *Harbor Facilities.* There is a total wharf length of 3,200 m., capable of accommodating one 3,000-ton vessel, two 5,000-ton vessels, thirteen 8,000-ton vessels, and three 10,000-ton vessels. The southern breakwater is 938 m. long and the northern one 9,388 meters. A few war-damaged piers have been completely repaired. Of 25 godowns, nine have been repaired since V-J Day. With new storage space they have a capacity of 330,000 tons.

One 50-ton crane, two 15-ton, and three 5-ton are in disrepair. Coal storage facilities cover 18,841 sq. m., and 29 pumps supply fresh water at a rate of 2,197 tons per hour.

The port has four tugboats and a dock capable of handling one 1,000-ton ship. Of three lighthouses, those on the northern and southern breakwaters are out of commission. Five guarding posts and one buoy also need repair.

The harbor, which is being dredged, will eventually accommodate large ocean

liners with a cargo-handling capacity of 730,000 tons.

(4) *Trade.* The year 1946 registered a large favorable trade balance. The value of imports were CNC\$122,405,000 as against CNC\$5,412,000,000 for exports. Imports included foodstuffs, cotton cloth, fuel, tobacco, wine, and drugs. Rice, fruits, textile goods, and hardware constituted the bulk of exports.

The agricultural importance of Kaohsiung lies in its abundance of rice, sweet potatoes, and sugar. The annual crop yield, plus that of peanuts, beans, and other farm products, is valued at about CNC\$69,724,929 in Taiwan currency.

No less important is Kaohsiung's industrial enterprise. There are 10 textile mills, 13 metallurgical and 10 chemical plants, two electric works, 50 machine tool factories, 38 pottery and porcelain makers, 19 oil and sugar refineries, 22 carpentry and saw mills, 60 food processing factories, four printing plants, and six unclassified factories.

CHAPTER 4

A BRIEF HISTORY OF CHINA

The Chinese are heirs to the most ancient living culture that can be traced back in an unbroken line, historically to 2205 B.C. and in legend to 2697 B.C. It is true that many details of this continuity are still lacking, but enough is known to establish some general facts. The most ancient home of Chinese culture was the middle Yellow river valley. Later on the Yangtze valley and other regions to the south came within the scope of ancient China.

Physically, the neolithic people of north China were of the same stock as present day northern Chinese and they extended into the northeast and northwest. A kindred physical type was found in south China. Studies of the "Peking Man" reveal that the neolithic men in north China were descended from a paleolithic stock native to the same region.

THE PROTO-CHINESE

The proto-Chinese lived mainly on hunting, fishing, and a primitive agriculture. The discovery of "painted pottery" and "black pottery," as well as bronze objects near Anyang in northern Honan province, supports the probability of continued Chinese culture from the Stone Age to the Bronze Age. However, evidence to demonstrate the step-by-step evolution of the proto-Chinese is still incomplete.

Transition from the Stone Age to the Bronze Age occurred around 2000 B.C. A proto-feudalism came into existence with the appearance of tribes, nobility, ecclesiastics, and farming commoners. By 1700 B.C., from perhaps thousands of tribes, emerged two, known as the Hsia and Shang. The Hsia, in modern Shansi province, was at first the stronger. Thus Hsia, or Hua Hsia, became the collective name for the Chinese race. After one century, Shang became stronger and its chief, Cheng Tang, defeated Hsia and was acknowledged the overlord. He established

the first loosely organized semi-feudal empire with Honan province as his base.

In 1300 B.C., Pan Keng, King of Shang, styled the Son of Heaven, established his capital at Yin, the modern Anyang in Honan. The empire of this overlord of the tribes was somewhat feudal in character.

About 1100 B.C., a new power, the Chou tribe, rose in the west. It overwhelmed the Shang tribe and took over Chinese overlordship in 1027 B.C. The empire was distributed by the Chou ruler as fiefs among his brothers, nephews, sons, cousins, and a few loyal ministers. It was the only full-fledged feudal empire in Chinese history.

About 900 B.C., the feudal empire of Chou began to show symptoms of decay. The princes had become stronger and, by constant warfare, a number of the weaker states were eliminated. The remaining strong states defied the authority of the Son of Heaven. The western barbarians, at the instigation of the princes if not with their actual assistance, defeated the Chou overlord and overran the royal domain in modern Shensi province near Sian. Ping Wang (770-720 B.C.) moved his capital to the eastern capital, Loyi, the modern Loyang, and the dynasty was afterwards known as the Tung Chou (East Chou). It brought about the Chun-chiu (Spring and Autumn) era, with the states dominant while the overlord was reduced to a figurehead.

Four states stood out in the last centuries of feudal turmoil. They were *Chi* in the east, *Tsin* in the north, *Chin* in the west, and *Chu* in the south. The entire era was marked by constant struggle for the hegemonic title among the four states. Later *Wu*, a fifth state in present-day Kiangsu province, joined the conflict for this title, which was conferred from time to time by the Chou overlord as his only function of state in that era.

The states were ruled by hereditary nobles. The common people had little to

do with politics. In Chin and Chu feudalism had disappeared. Tsin was still feudal in character and was the first of the four dominant states to collapse. It was divided into three smaller states, ending the Chun-chiu period and ushering in the "Era of the Contending States."

ANCIENT PHILOSOPHY

These two periods saw the flowering of ancient Chinese philosophy. Philosophers, mostly from the privileged class, were of three schools. First, there were those who led in the overthrow of the old order, as represented by Teng Hsi. Second, there were the pessimists, as represented by Lao Tze, who believed the situation was hopeless and decided to save themselves by fleeing the world. The third school was represented by Confucius, who worshipped the age that had passed or was passing and devoted himself to preaching a return to the former days.

The political upheaval resulting from the latter part of the Chun-chiu era brought about a very significant revolution in Chinese political history. The state was no longer feudal in character but a centralized body-politic. The nobility had no control over politics, the princes being absolute rulers. All men were nominally equal before the law. Soldierly was no longer a monopoly of the nobles but a universal service; conscription became a recognized practice. Hand in hand with war and bloodshed, philosophy attained its golden age in this era. Although abstract thought was not neglected, the philosophers were interested in the pressing problems presented by the current political and social anarchy and offered plans for the unification or pacification of the world. The passive school, as represented by Taoists, dialecticians and Yang Chu, was more or less influenced by the Chun-chiu pessimists. They advocated personal development and individual salvation. The active school, represented by Confucians, Mencians, and Legalists, was busily offering cures for the ills of the world.

The Era of Contending States ended in 221 B.C., when Chin Shih Huang Ti defeated the remaining six states and established a centralized Chinese Empire. This opened the age of united empire in Chinese history. From then on, unity became the normal condition and disunity a temporary interlude. Imperial unity was consolidated by the Chin and Han dynasties within the three centuries between 221 B.C. and A.D. 88. The Chinese political structure and territorial limits took shape

in this stage. The Chinese kinship system, a development of the feudal clan system, also took its permanent form in this stage to dominate the Chinese social structure, while Confucianism was established as a state dogma.

Teaching loyalty and filial piety, Confucianism upheld the *status quo* and was therefore encouraged by the ruling class. Confucius was converted into a somewhat mystical personage. Taoism became a religious practice of charms and the transmutation of metals. The Ying Yang, another Chun-chiu school of thought, degenerated into a study of the five elements of nature: metal, wood, water, fire and earth. In addition, they believed in signs of fortune and misfortune, lucky and unlucky days.

After the reign of Han Ho Ti (A.D. 89-105) there was an important period of transition. After three centuries of consolidation and unification, the empire began to decline. Barbarians, with lower cultural development but stronger military power, overran the provinces on the northern frontier. Repeated insurrections and barbarian invasions shook the empire to its foundation, finally dividing it into more than half a dozen fragments. After the short period of the Three Kingdoms (A.D. 220-265), the Tsin dynasty unified the empire again.

A period of spiritual decadence set in as Confucianism became a system of pedantic erudition and dry ceremonial, with no inspiration for the masses or the intellectuals. The latter indulged in a corrupt form of Taoism. Known as "Pure Discourse," it was an excuse for nihilistic behavior. It denied all the ritual and moral code of Confucianism. Adherents drank to excess and ridiculed and insulted the people of the world in every possible manner. This philosophy could not be understood or afforded by the common people, who found comfort in a simpler brand of Taoism which crystallized into the Taoist religion in the second century A.D. It was under such conditions that Buddhism was introduced, probably at the beginning of the first century A.D. At first obscure and negligible, by the third century Buddhism became a great influence in spreading China's civilization to the barbarians, who had become a serious menace to the political and racial integrity of the empire.

Beginning with A.D. 300, eight princes of the House of Tsin participated in a melee of civil wars, struggling for power. In A.D. 304, the Hsiung-nu (Huns), who had occupied the northern steppes and present Shansi province for some

time, took advantage of the confusion and declared their independence. Other barbarians followed their example and within the next century more than a dozen semi-Chinese, semi-barbarian states emerged in north China. The House of Tsin crossed the Yangtze and established a new capital at Nanking. Henceforth this rule was known as the "Eastern Tsin Dynasty" (317-420).

An historical battle was fought between the southern Chinese and northern barbarians at the Fei River in northern Anhwei in A.D. 383. The barbarians were defeated and the battle laid the foundation for two centuries of stalemate between the north and south dynasties, during which more contacts between the Chinese and barbarians took place. The mixture of Chinese and barbarous elements yielded a new Chinese race. Classical China had come to an end and a Greater China, a China with Tartar blood and a Buddhist philosophy, had come into being. The barbarians were not totally alien from the Chinese. They were groups from the stock of the same proto-Chinese which evolved differently in their varying environments, resulting in different degrees of "civilization." The extension of the Chinese "horizon," especially after the Han dynasty, meant only the "reunion" of the Chinese stock.

The six centuries (A.D. 383-960) after the Battle of the Fei River saw the rise and fall of the North and South dynasties, the Sui and Tang dynasties, and the Five Dynasties. The House of Li, the ruling family of the Tang dynasty, rose from what is now Shansi to dominate an area larger than modern China, including the entire Amur territory, Korea, Turkestan and the Indo-China peninsula. The Tang emperor had the additional title of Heavenly Khan over the far-flung territories of the Chinese Empire.

BUDDHISM FLOURISHED

Buddhism reached the height of its development during the North and South dynasties and in Sui and Tang times. There were many Buddhist missionaries from India and central Asia and Chinese pilgrimages to the west. Buddhist sutras were translated and Chinese treatises developed. Many sects flourished at this time, which somewhat determined the form of Buddhism in China. The religion, with additions from Chinese tradition, formed the chief spiritual refuge for the people.

The grandeur of the Sui and Tang dynasties lasted barely two centuries. The

empire declined from the middle of the eighth century and disintegrated at the beginning of the tenth, when it was succeeded by the so-called Five Dynasties. At the same time Buddhism declined and the traditional Chinese culture in the form of Confucianism began to reassert itself under the championship of Han Yu (A.D. 768-824), who advocated eliminating all foreign influences and restoring the pure Chinese culture of Confucian days.

China of the Sung dynasty (A.D. 960-1279) was much smaller than that of Tang. It had no natural boundary because militarily it was not strong enough to reclaim the territories occupied by the Khitans in the north and the Tibetans of Hsia in the west. Struggles between Confucianism and non-Confucianism, and struggles among Confucianists between realism (led by Chu Hsi, 1130-1200) and idealism (led by Lu Chiu-yuan, 1139-1192) occupied the full attention of scholars and statesmen, with the result that the none-too-strong Sung dynasty became even weaker. Gradually the Khitans overran all north China and, for a century and a half after A.D. 1127, the Sung held to the south and was known as the "Southern Sung Dynasty." Eventually the Mongols defeated the Khitans in the north and later overran all of China in A.D. 1279. For the first time all China was overwhelmed by a barbarous people and instead of being *The Empire*, she became only part of the Mongol empire, although the emperor held court within Chinese territory.

The Yuan dynasty under the Mongols was a period of political catastrophe and cultural stagnation. The Yuan rulers were indifferent to Chinese culture. They not only had no desire to be absorbed, but preferred to see the Chinese adopt Mongol manners and thought. This was the main reason why the Mongols were overthrown after barely 89 years in China.

China of the Ming dynasty, which followed the Yuan, recovered a number of strategical frontiers which had been lost by the Sung. Institutionally and culturally, however, the Ming period accomplished little. The "eight-legged essay" examination system further bound the thought of Chinese scholars and limited their outlook, resulting in a dearth of outstanding statesmen in the history of the dynasty. The only bright page of the Ming history was the colonization of the southwestern provinces of Yunnan, Kwangsi and Kweichow, and the expansion of Chinese to the South Seas. Sea-borne trade between China and the

South Seas began as early as Tang, perhaps earlier, and throughout Sung and Yuan the Chinese of the south never lost contact with the southern islands. After a naval expedition by the Ming eunuch Cheng Ho, beginning in A.D. 1406, the coastal Chinese began to migrate in large numbers to join their pioneer kinsmen already settled abroad. This marked a new departure in Chinese development. Although a continental people, many Chinese after the 15th century became trained seafarers.

The end of Ming saw the Manchus, another barbarian group, occupying China and establishing their own empire. The Manchu (Ching) empire was different from the Mongol empire in that the Manchus readily took to Chinese culture and were soon absorbed by the Chinese. They also persuaded all the racial groups within the nation to adopt Chinese ways of living and a number of outlying districts were put directly under the Imperial Government control.

China in the middle of the 19th century began to feel an increasing impact from abroad, which created a series of new problems. One of the results was the Opium War of 1839-42. The resultant Treaty of Nanking provided for an indemnity; the opening of five ports: Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai; the granting of extraterritoriality; the cession of Hongkong and "equitable" tariff. Two years later, in 1844, the United States and France followed British footsteps by securing similar treaties with China. Before long all the western powers were granted identical privileges.

THE TAIPING REBELLION

A fracas over a small vessel off Canton brought about a joint Anglo-French military expedition against China which involved the entire coast from Canton to Tientsin and resulted in the occupation of Peking by foreign forces in 1860. The war produced a series of treaties which opened more ports including Tientsin, Hankow, Kiukiang, and Chinkiang; elaborated the system of consular jurisdiction initiated by the Treaty of Nanking; and was responsible for a new tariff. Also, the British were leased a strip of Kowloon, opposite Hongkong. Meanwhile Russia obtained the Amur region and the sea coast east of the Ussuri River including the site of Vladivostok.

The weakness of the Manchu government encouraged internal unrest. The most serious of the domestic strife was the Taiping Rebellion which, starting

from Kwangsi in 1850, within three years overran most of the southern provinces. The Taiping Rebels established their capital in Nanking and one of their expeditionary forces penetrated as far north as the vicinity of Tientsin. The movement borrowed a number of ideas and slogans from Christianity, which gave the struggle a semblance of antagonism between Chinese and western cultures. Tseng Kuo-fan, a scholar of the Confucian school and later made marquis by the Manchu emperor, led his Hunan volunteers in upholding Confucianism against "foreign ideology." He was assisted by Li Hung-chang and his Anhwei volunteers. The Imperial Forces under Tseng's command reoccupied Nanking in 1864 and the Manchus were given a new lease on life for another 50 years. The French took Indo-China in 1882-85 and Great Britain occupied Burma in 1886.

Politically still feudal and culturally a part of the Chinese complex, Japan had within one generation transformed itself into an efficient political machine after the European pattern and joined with alacrity in the international scramble for special privileges in China. Her piratical activities, which in the middle of the Ming dynasty had ravaged many a coastal city in Kiangsu and Chekiang, assumed wide and intensive proportions when the Meiji Restoration gave the country modern military strength. She invaded Formosa in 1874, annexed the Liuchiu Islands in 1879, and declared open war on China in 1894 to oust her from Korea and Manchuria. The first Sino-Japanese War resulted in a Japanese victory and the peace treaty concluded at Shimonoseki in 1895 provided for the independence of Korea; the cession to Japan of the Liaotung peninsula, Formosa, and the Pescadores Islands; the payment by China of two hundred million taels as indemnity to Japan, and the opening of Shasi, Chungking, Soochow, and Hangchow as treaty ports. Due to intervention of France, Russia, and Germany, Japan disgorged the Liaotung peninsula, but she formally annexed Korea in 1910.

China's defeat in the war of 1894-95 with Japan whetted the appetite of other powers for "concession grabbing." In an agreement signed with China in 1898, Russia acquired a 25-year lease of Port Arthur as a naval base, the Liaotung peninsula and rights in the Chinese Eastern railroad. In the same year Germany gained the lease of Kiaochow peninsula around Tsingtao and the Shantung province railroad building and mine operating concessions. France obtained the

lease of Kwangchowwan in Kwangtung province. Britain acquired Weihaiwei as a naval base. Meanwhile the western powers began to develop spheres of influence in China. During this period the United States was busily occupied in the development of her own territory. In 1899 John Hay declared the "Open Door" policy, to stop the scramble for territories and spheres of influence in China by other powers, and upheld Chinese sovereignty and territorial integrity.

THE BOXER UPRISING

In 1898 a reform was undertaken by the Manchu Emperor Kuang-hsu who, backed by men like Chang Chi-tung, Kang Yu-wei and Liang Chi-chao, issued 27 reform edicts in 100 days. But the force of reaction was too great for the emperor to overcome. In an attempt to imprison the Empress Dowager, the emperor was betrayed by Yuan Shih-kai, which led to virtual imprisonment for the emperor himself. The reactionary administration, headed by the Empress Dowager, tried to blame China's troubles on foreign powers. Her appeal to the people for help was echoed by fanatic desperadoes and members of secret societies. This led to the Boxer Uprising in 1900 in north China. The movement brought China another humiliating defeat. Under the protocol imposed after the uprising China had to pay a heavy indemnity, agreed to the establishment of a Legation Quarter in Peking guarded by foreign troops, and to the presence of foreign garrisons between Peking and the sea.

This debacle sealed the fate of the Manchu dynasty. The Empress Dowager and her government realized their waning power and the necessity of heeding the people's demands. Japan, watching Russia's growing Manchurian interests, in 1904 went to war with Russia in Manchuria. This war, in which a European power was beaten by an Asiatic nation, had a tremendous effect upon China. She began to awaken. Even the Empress Dowager had to bow before the Reform Movement and in 1905 and 1906 issued decrees for constitutional preparation. But it was too late. The corrupt imperial system proved fragile in the face of the powerful force of revolutionary ideas developed and disseminated by the modern educated youth of the land. After a series of abortive revolts in various parts of the country, the revolutionists, inspired by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, started the Wuchang Uprising on October 10, 1911. From 17 provinces and Shanghai and Nanking came echoes of revolution. Dr. Sun, who

hurried back to China from the United States, was elected provisional president of the Republic of China and assumed office in Nanking on January 1, 1912. On February 12 the Manchu Emperor abdicated.

Dr. Sun, founder of the Kuomintang, was born in 1866 in Hsing-shan (now Chungshan) district of Kwangtung. He received his education in the Iolani school in Honolulu, Hawaii, and at Queen's College, Hongkong. Trained to be a physician, Dr. Sun nevertheless decided to dedicate himself to the task of establishing a republic after China's defeat in 1885 in her war with France. (For more of Dr. Sun's revolutionary work, see chapter on "Political Parties.")

After the abdication of the Manchu Emperor, Yuan Shih-kai was in charge of the government in Peking, bargaining with the government in Nanking for a constitutional monarchy. A compromise was reached whereby Yuan agreed to accept the Nanking constitution and the Kuomintang agreed to accept him as provisional president. On February 23, 1912, Dr. Sun resigned from the presidency in favor of Yuan. A provisional constitution of 56 articles was promulgated on March 11, 1912.

Yuan did not live up to the democratic provisions of the constitution. The parliament, composed mostly of Kuomintang members, was naturally hostile to Yuan and his idea of constitutional monarchy. To counteract its influence, Yuan subsidized the Republican Party, the Democratic Party and the United Party to form a Progressive Party. Following the assassination of Sung Chiao-jen in Shanghai on March 20, 1913, by Yuan's agents, Dr. Sun attempted a punitive expedition against Yuan from Kwangtung. This, however, failed. Meanwhile Yuan abused his powers, defying resolutions passed by parliament. Dr. Sun ordered that a widespread anti-Yuan movement be launched in Shanghai, Nanking, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien, Hunan, Anhwei, and Szechwan, but it failed, too. The Kuomintang was outlawed by Yuan and many of its members had to flee the country.

But Yuan was now faced with many difficulties. The Great War was in progress and Japan, one of the Allies, seized the German leased territory at Kiaochow peninsula in Shantung province. Yuan protested this seizure of China's territory. On May 7, 1915, the Japanese militarists served the infamous "Twenty-one Demands" upon China, designed to make her virtually a Japanese vassal. Under the threat of force, Yuan signed the first four

groups of the demands on May 9, leaving the fifth group as a subject for future negotiations. Then he made the fatal mistake of declaring himself monarch. The little support that propped his presidency fell apart. Meanwhile Dr. Sun directed widespread uprisings from ten different places in China. These uprisings did not cease until Yuan Shih-kai died in 1916 and Li Yuan-hung became president.

Li favored the restoration of the provisional constitution and the reassembly of the parliament dissolved by Yuan early in 1915. But he could manage neither the parliament nor the warlords in control of the provinces. The parliament produced a draft constitution but as this was unacceptable to the northern warlords they compelled the president in the summer of 1917 to dissolve parliament. Li soon resigned.

In the midst of such commotion another attempt was made by Chang Hsun and his followers to restore the Manchu regime. The little emperor, who came to the throne as a result of the coup d'etat in the summer of 1917, sat there for just 12 days. The failure of Chang Hsun created for Prime Minister Tuan Chi-jui a rare chance to gain dominance. Tuan coerced the parliament to approve China's participation in World War I. Despite his approval of China joining the Allies, Dr. Sun saw in Tuan an unscrupulous ruler with no regard for the constitution. Dr. Sun took part of the Chinese Navy to Canton and, in September, 1917, established a military government there.

The northern warlords kept up a fictional government at Peking, playing into the hands of Japan by accepting loans from her and pledging, as security, customs revenue and other taxes. They pulled the strings that worked the puppet president and parliament. In the south, Dr. Sun was elected president of the Canton provisional government in 1921 but was forced to retire by Chen Chiung-ming in 1922. In 1924 Dr. Sun again reorganized the Kuomintang, established the National Kwangtung University and the Whampao Military Academy. This conformed with the policy of teaching the party principles to the masses, the students, and the armed forces in preparation for the subsequent Northern Expedition.

At the beginning of 1925 there was a change in the Peking Government, which once again aroused Dr. Sun's hope for an early unification of the country by peaceful means. Although ill, he went to north China for the two-fold purpose of recovering his health and promoting a

national convention with the northern leaders. But his health declined rapidly and he died in Peking on March 12, 1925.

THE NORTHERN EXPEDITION

After Dr. Sun's death the responsibility of carrying on the revolution and unifying the country fell on Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. On July 9, 1926, he led the Nationalist forces, officered by cadets of the Whampao Military Academy, from Canton on the long-planned Northern Expedition. The Nationalist forces at that time consisted not only of the true Kuomintang members but also communists who had joined the revolution promising that they would support the principles of the Kuomintang. The Russian agent Michael Borodin was active in Canton at that time.

While the troops under Generalissimo Chiang were marching northward, the communists created widespread social unrest in the rear. A split occurred in the Kuomintang. The radical wing assumed control of the party and in February, 1927, set up their headquarters at Hankow. Meanwhile, under the Generalissimo's leadership, the National Government was established in Nanking. The position of the leftists in the Wuhan regime soon became untenable when documents proving Moscow's conspiracy in China were made public. In July the Kuomintang decided to purge itself of the communists and to send Borodin and other Russian advisers back to Russia. In September the Wuhan and Nanking governments were merged. (For other details on communist activities in this period, see chapters on "Political Parties" and "The Communist Issue.")

Despite the expulsion of the Russians and the communists, the Kuomintang party was still not united. The strife for leadership went on until Generalissimo Chiang consolidated his position in both the government and the armed forces. By the spring of 1928 he was ready to push north again.

In the north, Chang Tso-lin remained in control of Peking and Manchuria. In the northwest the loyalty of Fen Yehsiang, although nominally a nationalist, was uncertain, while Yen Hsi-shan still kept his province of Shansi neutral and independent. These three, disunited, proved weak against Chiang's oncoming armies. In the end Yen and Feng decided to cast their lot with Generalissimo Chiang in his drive to dislodge Chang Tso-lin from Peking. As a result Chang abandoned Peking in June and entrained for Man-

churia, but he was killed in a bomb explosion near Mukden. The National Government was formally established in Nanking in October, 1928 with Chiang as President. On December 29, Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang, son and successor of Chang Tso-ling, declared his allegiance to the National Government. The nation began to undergo a period of Kuomintang tutelage in preparation for constitutional democracy.

During these turbulent years of revolution and counter-revolution a great cultural and social change took place in China. The cultural movement, which began in the universities in Peking in 1919, spread throughout China. The impact of western ideas was increasingly felt by the nation's youth. The new movement advocated the use of the vernacular instead of the literary style of writing, a scientific re-examination of China's cultural growth in all its aspects, systematic introduction of western philosophy, literature and culture, and an attempt to synthesize things Chinese and western.

In the years shortly after the establishment of the National Government, China regained part of her sovereign rights lost to foreign powers as a result of the unequal treaties. The only nation which not only clung to her gains but also tried to grab more was Japan. Besides her efforts to back up Yuan Shih-kai's monarchical attempt and the presentation of the Twenty-one Demands, Japan occupied Tsingtao and the railway to Tsinan during the First World War. This was in addition to the strip of territory along the South Manchuria railway which she had seized during the Russo-Japanese War in 1904-05. Japan did not return her seizures in Shantung to China until after the Washington Conference of 1921-22. Japan's ambitions were exposed in the notorious Tanaka Memorial published in 1927. In 1928, as the nationalist forces were pushing their way northward, the Japanese sent troops to Tsinan in Shantung in an attempt to stop them.

Now that the nation was unified under one flag, the National Government gave its attention to the long deferred tasks of reconstruction. Unfortunately, it had to cope with new revolts. In April, 1930, Feng Yu-hsiang and Yen Hsi-shan conspired with Wang Ching-wei against the National Government. Actual fighting broke out in May and continued for five months. Marshal Chang Hsueh-liang intervened on the side of the government. When his troops entered Tientsin and

Peiping, the revolt collapsed. Again Generalissimo Chiang was in control of the country.

INVASION OF MANCHURIA

The unification of China under the National Government and the rapid progress made under the Kuomintang regime prompted Japan to take direct aggressive measures. The "Mukden Incident" on the night of September 18, 1931, marked the first step in Japan's armed aggression, when she occupied the three Chinese northeastern provinces by force. The Shanghai War in early 1932 strengthened Japan's position in Shanghai. The "Battle of the Great Wall" in early 1933 gave Japan control over the eastern section of the Great Wall, added Jehol to the puppet regime in the northeast, perpetrated an invasion of northern Chahar, and carved out a demilitarized zone in eastern Hopei under Japanese domination. By a show of force Japan compelled the Chinese National Army and Kuomintang headquarters to evacuate Peiping, Tientsin, Hopei, and Chahar, while she established another puppet regime in the eastern Hopei demilitarized zone. After 1935 Japan resorted to large-scale smuggling and drug trafficking to undermine Chinese economy and morale. A number of "economic cooperation projects" was demanded in north China, aimed at alienating that part of China from the rest. A futile attempt to invade Suiyuan was made in the winter of 1936 by puppet Mongol and Japanese units.

In December, 1936 Generalissimo Chiang was kidnapped by Chang Hsueh-liang's troops. There was nation-wide celebration when he was released on Christmas Eve. Known as "The Sian Coup," this was regarded as evidence of growing Chinese national solidarity. Japan realized then that it was impossible to deal with separate parts of China. Any blow, to be effective at all, would have to be delivered to the nation as a whole. The first half of 1937 saw Japan preparing for a full-dress invasion. The "incident" of the Lukouchiao (Marco Polo Bridge near Peiping) on the night of July 7, 1937, was the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War.

The incident, by which Japan tried to alienate the northern provinces of China, was plotted by the Japanese to be a "local issue." But the Chinese felt they had reached the limit of endurance. When on July 17 Generalissimo Chiang laid down the minimum conditions for negotiation, stressing the maintenance of China's

territorial integrity and sovereign rights, the entire nation rallied to his support.

Determined to pursue their aggressive ambitions on the continent, the Japanese launched their attack on the Peiping-Tientsin area by the end of July. Peiping fell on July 29 and Tientsin on the 31st.

In Shanghai, on the night of August 9, 1937, two Japanese marines were shot while trying to force their way into the Chinese Hungjao Military Airfield. This incident launched the war on a national scale. The Battle of Shanghai began on August 13. On November 20 the National Government announced the removal of its seat from Nanking to Chungking to continue the war of resistance. On December 13, Nanking fell. The Chinese military headquarters, however, was removed to Wuchang and Hankow from where it continued to direct operations until October, 1938, when it was moved to Chungking.

THE BRUSSELS CONFERENCE

At the beginning of the Sino-Japanese War, China, as a member nation, repeatedly appealed to the League of Nations for sanctions against Japan. But China received nothing beyond moral support. Meanwhile an invitation was extended by the Belgian Government, at the request of Great Britain and the United States, to signatories and adherents to the Nine-Power Treaty of 1922 for a conference at Brussels according to Article VII of that treaty. All except Japan accepted the invitation. The conference in Brussels began on November 3, 1937. After much deliberation the conference adopted a resolution on November 24, 1937, stating that it was convinced that force itself could provide no just and lasting solution for disputes between nations and that a satisfactory settlement could only be achieved by consultation with the powers concerned.

The Japanese war of aggression was not only directed against China but also at other powers in the Far East. Japan repeatedly attacked interests of the third powers in the course of the war and her aggressive intentions were further revealed when her military forces entered Indo-China on September 22, 1940, following the collapse of France. She had been preparing for war against both the United States and Great Britain. Her attacks on Pearl Harbor and other American and British possessions in the Pacific were made on December 8, 1941 (China Time). The next day China declared war on Japan as well as on Germany and Italy. The Sino-Japanese War became

one phase of the world-wide conflict between democracy and aggression.

On January 1, 1942, twenty-six allied nations, including China, issued a joint declaration from Washington pledging to use their full resources against the Axis and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemy. Together with the United States, Great Britain, and the U.S.S.R., China thus became one of the four leading powers in the world fight against aggression. As a tribute to a major ally, the United States and Great Britain announced on October 10, 1942, their readiness to relinquish their extra-territorial rights in China. New Sino-American and Sino-British treaties were concluded on January 11, 1943. China's equal status among the major powers was fully established.

China, the United States, Great Britain, and the U.S.S.R. concluded on October 30, 1943, the four-power talk in Moscow. In the joint declaration, they reaffirmed their decision to use their full resources against their respective enemies and to seek joint action in fighting as well as in disarming the enemies. They suggested the establishment of an international organization for the maintenance of peace and order after the war. At the Cairo Conference in November, 1943, President Chiang met President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill to discuss the war against Japan. The joint declaration they issued after the meeting emphasized unconditional surrender of Japan, restoration to China of all the territories stolen from her by Japan, and the independence of Korea.

At home, China tightened her belt in order to sustain the Allied war efforts in the China theater. A number of measures were adopted at the end of 1944 looking toward a major counter-offensive in cooperation with the Allied forces. In January, 1945, the Stilwell Road was opened.

The eight-year war was brought to an end when Japan unconditionally surrendered on August 14, 1945. But with victory came new problems. On the same day China signed a 30-year Treaty of Friendship and Alliance with the Soviet Union, providing joint ownership and operation of the Chinese Changchun railway by the two countries, the joint use of Port Arthur as a naval base, and the opening of Dairen as a free port. In addition, as provided in the treaty, China promised to grant independence to Outer Mongolia if its people should so indicate their wishes in a plebiscite.

The most serious problem confronting postwar China was that of Chinese Communists whose strength was poised in north China and later spread into the northeast. After repeated appeals by Generalissimo Chiang, they finally agreed on January 10, 1946 to participate in the Political Consultative Conference. General George C. Marshall, special U. S. envoy, acted as mediator.

The 21-day conference brought the government and the communists together in serious negotiation. But the Chinese Reds, intransigent in their attitude, failed to carry out agreements reached in the conference and in April, 1946, upon the evacuation of the Soviet army from the northeast, rapidly occupied different key cities. While military clashes between the government and the communists developed in various regions, peaceful efforts were renewed but these came to a deadlock when the communists boycotted the constituent National Assembly which began its sessions in November and adopted a democratic constitution on Christmas Day.

COMMUNIST REBELLION

The communist rebellion seriously upset China's plans for postwar reconstruction. Simultaneously, the government had to suppress the communists, rehabilitate war-devastated areas, fight inflation and implement the constitution. On April 1, 1947, the Kuomintang, the Democratic Socialist party, and the Young China party signed a joint administrative program in Nanking, marking the beginning of a multi-party cooperation. The one-party rule by the Kuomintang came to an end on April 17, 1947. A reorganized state council took over until the formation of a new government early in 1948. The communists were outlawed and the nation was mobilized. (For further details, see chapters on "The Communist Issue" and "Political Parties.")

On November 21, 1947, the first general election in Chinese history began. As a result the First National Assembly opened on March 29, 1948; in a month-long session it elected Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek President under the new constitution and General Li Tsung-jen Vice-President. The Generalissimo was sworn in as China's first elected President on May 20.

For the first time in her history China saw the realization of constitutional democracy. Her aspirations for the future of the world are explicitly expressed in Article 141 of her constitution, which lays stress on the respect of the United Nations Charter as the prerequisite to the

promotion of international cooperation, advancement of international justice and maintenance of world peace.

**TABLE I—TABLE OF DYNASTIES
LEGENDARY**

<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>
Huang Ti (The Yellow Emperor)	2697 B.C.
Shao Hao	2597 B.C.
Chuan Hsu	2513 B.C.
Ti Ku	2435 B.C.
Ti Chih	2365 B.C.
Yao (Tang Yao)	2357 B.C.
Shun (Yu Shun)	2255 B.C.

HISTORICAL

The Hsia Dynasty—2205-1766 B.C.

Family name: Shih

Yu, the Great	2205 B.C.
Chi	2197 B.C.
Tai Kang	2188 B.C.
Chung Kang	2159 B.C.
Hsiang	2146 B.C.
Shao Kang	2118 B.C.
Chu	2057 B.C.
Huai	2040 B.C.
Mang	2014 B.C.
Hsieh	1996 B.C.
Pu Chiang	1980 B.C.
Chiung	1921 B.C.
Chin	1900 B.C.
Kung Chia	1879 B.C.
Kao	1848 B.C.
Fa	1837 B.C.
Chieh	1818 B.C.

The Shang or Yin Dynasty— 1766-1122 B.C.

Family name: Tzu

Capitals: Po, Nao, Yin

Tang	1766 B.C.
Tai Chia	1753 B.C.
Wu Ting	1720 B.C.
Ta Keng	1691 B.C.
Hsiao Chia	1666 B.C.
Yung Chi	1649 B.C.
Tai Wu	1637 B.C.
Chung Ting	1562 B.C.
Wai Jen	1549 B.C.
Ho Tan Chia	1534 B.C.
Tsu I	1525 B.C.
Tsu Hsin	1506 B.C.
Wu Chia	1490 B.C.
Tsu Ting	1465 B.C.
Nan Keng	1433 B.C.
Yang Chia	1408 B.C.
Pan Keng	1401 B.C.
Hsiao Hsin	1373 B.C.
Hsiao I	1352 B.C.
Wu Ting	1324 B.C.
Tsu Keng	1265 B.C.
Tsu Chia	1258 B.C.

<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>	<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>
Lin Hsin	1225 B.C.	Wen Ti	179 B.C.
Keng Ting	1219 B.C.	Ching Ti	156 B.C.
Wu I	1198 B.C.	Wu Ti	140 B.C.
Tai Ting	1194 B.C.	Chao Ti	86 B.C.
Ti I	1191 B.C.	Hsuan Ti	73 B.C.
Shou (Chou Hsin)	1154 B.C.	Yuan Ti	48 B.C.
The Chou Dynasty—1122-255 B.C.		Cheng Ti	32 B.C.
Family name: Chi		Ai Ti	6 B.C.
Capitals: Feng (1122-771)		Ping Ti	A.D. 1
Loyang (770-255)		Ju Tze Ying	A.D. 6
Wu Wang	1122 B.C.	(Hsin Mang)	A.D. 9
Cheng Wang	1115 B.C.	(Huai Yang Wang)	A.D. 23
Kang Wang	1078 B.C.	Kuang Wu Ti	A.D. 25
Chao Wang	1052 B.C.	Ming Ti	A.D. 58
Mu Wang	1001 B.C.	Chang Ti	A.D. 76
Kung Wang	946 B.C.	Ho Ti	A.D. 89
I Wang	934 B.C.	Shang Ti	A.D. 106
Hsiao Wang	909 B.C.	An Ti	A.D. 107
Yi Wang	894 B.C.	Shun Ti	A.D. 126
Li Wang	878 B.C.	Chung Ti	A.D. 145
Hsuan Wang	827 B.C.	Chih Ti	A.D. 146
Yu Wang	781 B.C.	Huan Ti	A.D. 147
Ping Wang	770 B.C.	Ling Ti	A.D. 168
Huan Wang	719 B.C.	Shao Ti	A.D. 189
Chuang Wang	696 B.C.	Hsien Ti	A.D. 189
Hsi Wang	681 B.C.	The Three Kingdoms—Wei—	
Hui Wang	676 B.C.	A.D. 220-265	
Hsiang Wang	651 B.C.	Family name: Tsao	
Ching Wang	618 B.C.	Capital: Loyang	
Kuang Wang	612 B.C.	Wei Wen Ti	A.D. 220
Ting Wang	606 B.C.	Wei Ming Ti	A.D. 227
Chien Wang	585 B.C.	Wei Fei Ti	A.D. 240
Ling Wang	571 B.C.	Wei Shao Ti	A.D. 254
Ching Wang	544 B.C.	Wei Yuan Ti	A.D. 260
Ching Wang	519 B.C.	Shu Han—A.D. 221-264	
Yuan Wang	475 B.C.	Family name: Liu	
Chen Ting Wang	468 B.C.	Capital: Chengtu	
Kao Wang	440 B.C.	Shu-Han Chao Lieh Ti	A.D. 221
Wei Lieh Wang	425 B.C.	Shu-Han Ssu Ti (Hou Chu)	A.D. 223
An Wang	401 B.C.	Wu—A.D. 222-280	
Lieh Wang	375 B.C.	Family name: Sun	
Hsien Wang	368 B.C.	Capital: Nanking	
Shen Ching Wang	320 B.C.	Wu Ta Ti	A.D. 222
Nan Wang	314 B.C.	Wu Fei Ti	A.D. 252
Tung Chou Chun (Duke of Eastern Chou)	255 B.C.	Wu Ching Ti	A.D. 258
The Chin Dynasty—255-206 B.C.		Wu Mo Ti	A.D. 264
Family name: Ying		The Tsin Dynasty—A.D. 265-420	
Capital: Hsienyang		Family name: Ssu-ma	
Chao Hsiang Wang	255 B.C.	Capitals: Changan and Loyang	
Hsiao Wen Wang	250 B.C.	(A.D. 265-316)	
Chuang Hsiang Wang	250 B.C.	Nanking (A.D. 317-420)	
Shih Huang Ti	246 B.C.	Wu Ti	A.D. 265
Erh Shih Huang Ti	209 B.C.	Hui Ti	A.D. 290
Tze Ying	207 B.C.	Huai Ti	A.D. 307
The Han Dynasty—208 B.C.-A.D. 220		Min Ti	A.D. 313
Family name: Liu		Yuan Ti (East Tsin)	A.D. 317
Capitals: Changan (208 B.C.-A.D. 25)		Ming Ti	A.D. 323
Loyang (A.D. 25-220)		Cheng Ti	A.D. 326
Kao Ti (Liu Pang)	206 B.C.	Kang Ti	A.D. 343
Hui Ti	194 B.C.	Mu Ti	A.D. 345
Kao Hou (Empress Lu, of Kao Ti)	187 B.C.	Ai Ti	A.D. 362
		Ti I (Hai Hsi Kung)	A.D. 366
		Chien Wen Ti	A.D. 371

<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>	<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>
Hsiao Wu Ti	A.D. 373	Capital: Kaifeng	
An Ti	A.D. 397	Hsiao Ching Ti	A.D. 534
Kung Ti	A.D. 419	Western Wei—A.D. 535-557	
The Southern Dynasties:		Family name: Toba	
Sung—A.D. 420-479		Capital: Changan	
Family name: Liu		Wen Ti	A.D. 535
Capital: Nanking		Fei Ti	A.D. 552
Wu Ti	A.D. 420	Kung Ti	A.D. 554
Shao Ti	A.D. 423	Northern Chi—A.D. 550-577	
Wen Ti	A.D. 424	Family name: Kao	
Hsiao Wu Ti	A.D. 454	Capital: Yeh	
Fei Ti	A.D. 465	Wen Hsuan Ti	A.D. 550
Ming Ti	A.D. 465	Fei Ti	A.D. 560
Fei Ti (Tsang Yu Wang)	A.D. 473	Hsiao Chao Ti	A.D. 560
Shun Ti	A.D. 477	Wu Cheng Ti	A.D. 561
Chi—A.D. 479-502		Hou Chu	A.D. 565
Family name: Hsiao		An Teh Wang	A.D. 577
Capital: Nanking		Northern Chou—A.D. 556-581	
Kao Ti	A.D. 479	Family name: Yu-wen	
Wu Ti	A.D. 482	Capital: Changan	
Yu Ling Wang	A.D. 493	Hsiao Min Ti	A.D. 556
Hai Ling Wang	A.D. 494	Ming Ti	A.D. 557
Ming Ti	A.D. 494	Hsuan Ti	A.D. 578
Tung Han Hou	A.D. 498	Ching Ti	A.D. 580
Ho Ti	A.D. 501	The Sui Dynasty—A.D. 581-618	
Liang—A.D. 502-557		Family name: Yang	
Family name: Hsiao		Capitals: Changan and Loyang	
Capital: Nanking		Wen Ti	A.D. 581
Wu Ti	A.D. 502	Yang Ti	A.D. 605
Chien Wen Ti	A.D. 549	Kung Ti Yu	A.D. 617
Yu Chang Wang	A.D. 551	Kung Ti Tung	A.D. 618
Yuan Ti	A.D. 552	The Tang Dynasty—A.D. 618-907	
Cheng Yang Hou	A.D. 555	Family name: Li	
Ching Ti	A.D. 555	Capital: Changan	
Chen—A.D. 557-589		Kao Tsu	A.D. 618
Family name: Chen		Tai Tsung (the Great)	A.D. 627
Capital: Nanking		Kao Tsung	A.D. 650
Wu Ti	A.D. 557	Chung Tsung	A.D. 684
Wen Ti	A.D. 560	Jui Tsung	A.D. 684
Lin Hai Wang	A.D. 567	Wu Hou (Empress)	A.D. 684
Hsuan Ti	A.D. 569	Chung Tsung (Restored)	A.D. 705
Hou Chu	A.D. 583	Jui Tsung (Restored)	A.D. 710
Northern Dynasties: Northern Wei—		Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 713
A.D. 386-535		Su Tsung	A.D. 756
Family name: Toba and "Yuan"		Tai Tsung	A.D. 763
Capitals: Tatung (A.D. 386-493)		Teh Tsung	A.D. 780
Loyang (A.D. 493-535)		Shun Tsung	A.D. 805
Tao Wu Ti	A.D. 386	Hsien Tsung	A.D. 806
Ming Yuan Ti	A.D. 409	Mu Tsung	A.D. 821
Tai Wu Ti	A.D. 424	Ching Tsung	A.D. 825
Wen Cheng Ti	A.D. 452	Wen Tsung	A.D. 827
Hsien Wen Ti	A.D. 466	Wu Tsung	A.D. 841
Hsiao Wen Ti	A.D. 471	Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 847
Hsuan Wu Ti	A.D. 500	I Tsung	A.D. 860
Hsiao Ming Ti	A.D. 516	Hsi Tsung	A.D. 874
Lin Tao Wang	A.D. 528	Chao Tsung	A.D. 889
Hsiao Chuang Ti	A.D. 528	Chao Huan Ti (Ai Ti)	A.D. 904
Tung Hai Wang	A.D. 530	The Five Dynasties: Later Liang—	
Chieh Min Ti	A.D. 531	A.D. 907-922	
An Ting Wang	A.D. 531	Family name: Chu	
Hsiao Wu Ti	A.D. 532	Capitals: Kaifeng and Loyang	
Eastern Wei—A.D. 534-550		Tai Tsu	A.D. 907
Family name: Toba			

<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>	<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>
Mo Ti	A.D. 913	Hsi Tsung	A.D. 1135
Later Tang—A.D. 923-936		Hai Ling Wang	A.D. 1149
Family name: Li		Shih Tsung	A.D. 1161
Capitals: Weichow and Loyang		Chang Tsung	A.D. 1190
Chuang Tsung	A.D. 923	Wei Shao Wang	A.D. 1209
Ming Tsung	A.D. 926	Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 1213
Min Ti	A.D. 933	Ai Tsung	A.D. 1224
Lu Wang	A.D. 934	Mo Ti	A.D. 1234
Later Tsin—A.D. 936-946		The Yuan (Mongol) Dynasty—	
Family name: Shih		A.D. 1206-1368	
Capitals: Loyang and Kaifeng		Family name: Chi-O-Wen	
Kao Tsu	A.D. 936	Capitals: Holin (Karakorum)	
Chu Ti	A.D. 942	Peking (Tatu)	
Later Han—A.D. 947-950		Tai Tsu (Genghis Khan)	A.D. 1206
Family name: Liu		Tai Tsung (Ogotai)	A.D. 1229
Capital: Kaifeng		Ting Tsung (Kuyak)	A.D. 1246
Kao Tsu	A.D. 947	Hsien Tsung (Mangu)	A.D. 1251
Yin Ti	A.D. 948	Shih Tsu (Kublai)	A.D. 1260
Later Chou—A.D. 951-960		Cheng Tsung	A.D. 1294
Family name: Kuo		Wu Tsung	A.D. 1307
Capital: Kaifeng		Jen Tsung	A.D. 1311
Tai Tsu	A.D. 951	Ying Tsung	A.D. 1320
Shih Tsung	A.D. 954	Tai Ting Ti	A.D. 1323
Kung Ti	A.D. 959	Yu Chu	A.D. 1328
The Sung Dynasty—A.D. 960-1279		Ming Tsung	A.D. 1332
Family name: Chao		Shun Ti	A.D. 1333
Capitals: Kaifeng (A.D. 960-1126)		The Ming Dynasty—A.D. 1368-1644	
Hangchow (A.D. 1127-1279)		Family name: Chu	
Tai Tsu	A.D. 960	Capitals: Nanking (A.D. 1368-1402)	
Tai Tsung	A.D. 976	Peking (A.D. 1403-1644)	
Chen Tsung	A.D. 997	Tai Tsu	A.D. 1368
Jen Tsung	A.D. 1022	Hui Wen Ti	A.D. 1398
Ying Tsung	A.D. 1063	Cheng Tsu	A.D. 1402
Shen Tsung	A.D. 1067	Jen Tsung	A.D. 1424
Che Tsung	A.D. 1085	Hsuan Tsung	A.D. 1425
Hui Tsung	A.D. 1100	Ying Tsung	A.D. 1435
Chin Tsung	A.D. 1126	Tai Tsung	A.D. 1449
Kao Tsung (Southern Sung)	A.D. 1127	Ying Tsung (Restored)	A.D. 1457
Hsiao Tsung	A.D. 1162	Hsien Tsung	A.D. 1464
Kuang Tsung	A.D. 1189	Hsiao Tsung	A.D. 1487
Ning Tsung	A.D. 1194	Wu Tsung	A.D. 1505
Li Tsung	A.D. 1224	Shih Tsung	A.D. 1521
Tu Tsung	A.D. 1264	Mu Tsung	A.D. 1566
Kung Ti	A.D. 1274	Shen Tsung	A.D. 1572
Tuan Tsung	A.D. 1276	Kuang Tsung	A.D. 1620
Ti Ping	A.D. 1279	Hsi Tsung	A.D. 1620
Liao (Khitai) Dynasty—A.D. 907-1154		Ssu Tsung	A.D. 1627
Tai Tsu	A.D. 907	The Ching (Manchu) Dynasty—	
Tai Tsung	A.D. 926	A.D. 1583-1911	
Shih Tsung	A.D. 947	Family name: Gioro (Ai-Hsin-	
Mu Tsung	A.D. 951	Chieh-Lo)	
Ching Tsung	A.D. 968	Capital: Liaoyang (A.D. 1621-1643)	
Sheng Tsung	A.D. 983	Peking (A.D. 1644-1912)	
Hsing Tsung	A.D. 1031	Tai Tsu (Nurchachu)	A.D. 1583
Tao Tsung	A.D. 1055	Tai Tsung (Huang Taichi)	A.D. 1627
Tien Tsu Ti	A.D. 1101	Shih Tsu (Shun-chih)	A.D. 1644
Teh Tsung	A.D. 1125	Sheng Tsu (Kang-hsi)	A.D. 1662
Kan Tien Hou	A.D. 1136	Shih Tsung (Yung-Cheng)	A.D. 1723
Jen Tsung	A.D. 1142	Kao Tsung (Chien-Lung)	A.D. 1736
Chin (Golden) Dynasty—A.D. 1115-1234		Jen Tsung (Chia-ching)	A.D. 1796
Tai Tsu	A.D. 1115	Hsuan Tsung (Tao-kuang)	A.D. 1821
Tai Tsung	A.D. 1123		

<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>	<i>Dynastic Title</i>	<i>Accession</i>
Wen Tsung (Hsien-feng).....	A.D. 1850	Teh Tsung (Kuang-hsu).....	A.D. 1875
Mu Tsung (Tung-chih).....	A.D. 1861	Pu Yi (Hsuan-tung)	A.D. 1908

Source: *A Short History of Chinese Civilization* by Tsui Chi.

**TABLE 2—PRESIDENTS OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA
PEKING GOVERNMENT**

Sun Yat-sen (provisional)	January—February, 1912
Yuan Shih-kai (provisional)	February, 1912—June, 1913
Yuan Shih-kai	June, 1913—June, 1916
Li Yuan-hung	June, 1916—July, 1917
Feng Kuo-chang	July, 1917—October, 1918
Hsu Shih-chang	October, 1918—June, 1922
Li Yuan-hung	June, 1922—June, 1923
Tsao Kun	October, 1923—October, 1924
Tuan Chi-jui (provisional chief executive).....	November, 1924—November, 1926

NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Chiang Kai-shek	October, 1928—December, 1931
Lin Sen	December, 1931—August, 1943
Chiang Kai-shek	October, 1943—May, 1948

CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

Chiang Kai-shek	May, 1948—
(Vice-President Li Tsung-jen acted for President Chiang from January 21, 1949 to February 28, 1950)	

TABLE 3—PRESIDENTS OF THE EXECUTIVE YUAN (PREMIER)

1. NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Tan Yen-kai	November, 1928—September, 1930
T. V. Soong, acting	September, 1930—November, 1930
Chiang Kai-shek, concurrent	November, 1930—December, 1930
Chiang Kai-shek	December, 1930—December, 1931
Chen Ming-shu, acting	December, 1931—January, 1932
Sun Fo	January, 1932—January, 1932
Wang Ching-wei	January, 1932—December, 1935
Chiang Kai-shek	December, 1935—April, 1937
Wang Chung-hui, acting	April, 1937—January, 1938
Kung Hsiang-hsi	January, 1938—December, 1939
Chiang Kai-shek	December, 1939—September, 1943
Chiang Kai-shek, concurrent	September, 1943—December, 1943
T. V. Soong	December, 1943—March, 1947
Chiang Kai-shek, concurrent	March, 1947—April, 1947
Chang Chun	April, 1947—May, 1948

2. CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

Wong Wen-hao	May, 1948—November, 1948
Sun Fo	November, 1948—March, 1949
Ho Ying-chin	March, 1949—June, 1949
Yen Hsi-shan	June, 1949—

CHAPTER 5

CHRONOLOGY OF MAJOR EVENTS (1911-1949)

1911

Oct. 10.—Revolutionaries staged uprising at Wuchang; founding of the Chinese Republic.

1912

Jan. 1.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen became first Provisional President of the Republic of China.

Jan. 26.—Hsuan Tung, last emperor of Ching dynasty, abdicated.

Mar. 10.—Yuan Shih-kai became Provisional President of China, succeeding Dr. Sun Yat-sen, who had resigned.

Mar. 11.—A provisional constitution, containing 56 articles, promulgated.

1913

July 12.—Second Revolution under leadership of Kuomintang leader Huang Hsing opposing Yuan Shih-kai's dictatorial rule.

Sept. 1.—Second Revolution failed.

Oct. 10.—Yuan Shih-kai formally assumed Presidency.

1914

Aug. 6.—China declared neutrality in World War I.

Sept.—Japanese troops seized German concessions in Shantung, occupying Tsingtao-Tsinan railway.

1915

Jan. 18.—Japan presented 21 demands to Peking Government.

May 9.—Yuan Shih-kai accepted in part the 21 demands.

Dec. 23.—Yuan Shih-kai ascended the imperial throne.

Dec. 25.—Tsai Ngo and Tang Chi-yao started revolt against Yuan Shih-kai in Yunnan Province.

1916

June 5.—Yuan Shih-kai died. Republican form of government was restored. Li Yuan-hung became president.

1917

July 12.—Restoration movement of Manchu dynasty led by Chang Hsun failed. President Li Yuan-hung, who had sought refuge in the Legation Quarter during the coup, refused to resume office, and was succeeded by Feng Kuo-chang. Tuan Chi-jui and his Anfu clique came into power.

Aug. 14.—China declared war on Germany and Austria-Hungary.

Aug. 25.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen formed military government in Canton.

1918

June 5.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen and other Kuomintang leaders ousted from Canton by Kwangsi faction led by Chen Chun-hsuan.

July 12.—A new parliament, "Tuchuns' Parliament," met in Peking. Two months later, it elected Hsu Shih-chang president.

1919

May 4.—Students demonstrated in Peking, leading to dismissal of Tsao Ju-lin, Chang Tsung-hsiang and Lu Tsung-yu, officials responsible for Government's pro-Japanese policy.

July.—China refused to ratify Versailles Treaty because of Shantung problem.

1920

July 12.—Chang Tso-lin and Tsao Kun joined forces and brought about downfall of Tuan Chi-jui and Anfu clique.

Sept. 29.—Peking Government broke diplomatic relations with Czarist Russia.

1921

May 5.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen assumed presidency of newly-formed government in Kwangtung.

Nov. 11.—The Washington Conference convened under U. S. auspices to effect armament limitation and settle outstanding Pacific and Far Eastern questions.

1922

Feb. 4.—The Shantung problem settled at the Washington Conference.

Feb. 6.—The Nine-Power Treaty concluded in Washington, with contracting powers agreeing to respect sovereignty, independence, and territorial and administrative integrity of China.

Apr. 28.—Civil war between Wu Pei-fu and Chang Tso-lin started. Following defeat of Chang by Wu's forces, President Hsu Shih-chang resigned. After delay, Li Yuan-hung, residing in Tientsin since his 1917 resignation, resumed Presidency.

June 16.—Chen Chun-ming revolted against Dr. Sun Yat-sen in Canton. Dr. Sun fled to Shanghai.

Dec. 26.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen issued manifesto urging unification of China through peaceful means.

1923

Feb. 15.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen returned to Canton following defeat of Chen Chun-ming.

Oct. 5.—Tsao Kun elected president of China. A new constitution promulgated on October 10.

1924

Jan. 20.—First National Congress of Kuomintang in Canton adopted policy of cooperation with Soviet Russia and Chinese Communist party.

May 31.—China established diplomatic relations with Soviet Union.

June 16.—Whampoa Military Academy founded with Chiang Kai-shek as principal.

Oct.—The second Fengtien-Chihli war, resulting in defeat of General Wu Pei-fu and resignation of Tsao Kun. Tuan Chi-jui became provisional chief executive.

Dec. 4.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen arrived in Tientsin at invitation of Tuan Chi-jui.

1925

Mar. 12.—Dr. Sun Yat-sen died in Peking (now Peiping) at age of 59.

Oct. 26.—Special conference for revision of Chinese tariff in Peking, 13 powers participating, halted by China's internal disturbances.

Dec. 23.—Kuomintang right wing at Western Hills conference outside Peking moved to dismiss Borodin, Soviet political adviser, and Gen. Galen, Soviet military adviser to revolutionary government in Canton.

1926

Jan.—The Kuomintang's Second National Congress decided to retain Soviet advisors, censured right wing.

Apr.—Feng Yu-hsiang's Kuominchun defeated by joint forces of Chang Tso-lin and Wu Pei-fu. Tuan Chi-jui resigned as provisional chief executive.

June 6.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek became commander-in-chief of National Revolutionary Forces and launched Northern Expedition.

July-Nov.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces gained series of victories, taking Changsa in July, Hankow in October, Kiukiang and Nanchang in November.

1927

Jan. 4.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces took British concessions in Hankow and Kiukiang by force.

Feb.—Kuomintang left wing set up revolutionary government in Wuhan.

Mar. 21.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces occupied Shanghai and Nanking.

Apr. 18.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek set up National Government in Nanking.

June 1.—The Wuhan Government decided to dismiss Borodin and other Soviet advisers.

Aug. 1.—Chinese Communists staged uprising in Nanchang in revolt against National Government.

Sept. 6.—Merger of Wuhan and Nanking Governments completed. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek resigned in interest of party unity.

Dec. 15.—The National Government severed relations with Soviet Russia.

1928

Jan. 1.—The National Government ordered Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to resume post of commander-in-chief of National Revolutionary Forces, and to continue the Northern Expedition to unify the country.

May 1.—The National Revolutionary Forces occupied Tsinan. Chang Tso-lin ordered general retreat of his troops into the northeast.

June 4.—Chang Tso-lin killed when his train was blown up by Japanese agents near Mukden.

June 9.—The Northern Expeditionary Forces occupied Peking, renamed Peiping.

July 7.—The National Government announced plan to abrogate unequal treaties and agreements contracted by defunct regimes.

Nov. 1.—The Central Bank of China established.

Nov.-Dec.—The United States, Britain and France formally recognized the National Government as the *de jure* Government of the Republic of China. These powers also recognized China's tariff autonomy.

Dec. 29.—Chang Hsueh-liang of the northeast pledged his allegiance to the National Government, thus bringing about the unification of the entire country.

1929

Jan. 1.—Military Reorganization and Disbandment Conference opened in Nanking under the chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. A month later adopted important resolutions to reduce Chinese troops.

Mar. 15.—The Kuomintang's Third National Congress convened in Nanking.

May 24.—The Government decided to launch punitive campaign against Feng Yu-hsiang, who revolted in Honan. Feng defeated after defection of his principal subordinates.

June 6.—The state burial of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

June 12.—The Kuomintang decided to end period of political tutelage by 1935.

July 9.—Chang Hsueh-liang planned to recover Chinese Eastern railway from Soviet control. Failed owing to armed Soviet opposition.

Dec. 5.—Tang Sheng-chih revolted in Honan against National Government.

1930

Jan. 6.—Tang Sheng-chih retired and handed his command to subordinates. One week later remnants of Tang's troops were disarmed.

Apr. 1.—Yen Hsi-shan and Feng Yu-hsiang revolted in north China.

Apr. 18.—Britain returned Weihaiwei to China.

June.—Severe fighting took place between rebel troops and government forces along the Peiping-Hankow, Tientsin-Pukow, Lunghai railways.

July 13.—Rebels held an Enlarged Plenary Session of Kuomintang in Peiping to set up separate government under Wang Ching-wei.

Sept. 14.—Following his defeat in Shantung, Yen retired from public life in Shihchiachuang.

Sept. 18.—Chang Hsueh-liang intervened for government by sending troops to Peiping.

Oct. 10.—With the retirement of the northern coalition leaders, dissolution of the Enlarged Conference, triumphal return of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek from the war fronts to Nanking, and acceptance by Chang Hsueh-liang of government appointment, the protracted campaign ended in the reunification of the country.

Nov. 12.—The Kuomintang Fourth National Congress five-day conference closed

November 18. Organic law of the National Government revised, the Central Government and National Army reorganized and the National People's Convention to be convoked on May 5, 1931.

1931

Jan. 1.—National Government announced abolition of *likin* dues and other duties hampering domestic trade.

Mar. 2.—Hu Han-min resigned presidency of the Legislative Yuan due to difference of opinion with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on the Provisional Constitution.

May 5.—The National People's Convention held in Nanking under the chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

May 12.—The Provisional Constitution adopted.

May 27.—A dissension movement started in Canton. Wang Ching-wei, Tang Shao-yi, Chen Chi-tang and other Kuomintang leaders met in an extraordinary session of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee to plot overthrow of the National Government. The dissidents issued a circular telegram urging Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek to retire.

June 1.—The Provisional Constitution was promulgated.

June 11.—Tibetan troops invaded Sikkang.

June 21.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek left for Nanchang to assume personal command of the Communist-suppression campaign.

July 4.—Korean immigrants occupied Wanpaoshan in Kirin at instigation of Japanese militarists.

July-Sept.—Sixteen provinces in north and central China reported disastrous floods. Hankow, Wuchang and other central China cities inundated.

Sept. 13.—Canton forces invaded Hunan, driving toward Hengyang.

Sept. 18.—Japanese troops occupied Mukden in surprise attack. By end of month, important cities in Liaoning and Kirin fell into Japanese hands in rapid succession.

Sept. 24.—Japanese planes dropped bombs on Chinchow and other cities along Peiping-Liaoning railway.

Oct. 27.—Nanking and Canton representatives met in Shanghai for peace negotiations.

Nov. 10.—Japanese agents instigated uprising in Tientsin. In ensuing confusion, smuggled Henry Pu Yi to the Northeast.

Nov. 21.—Gen. Ma Chan-shan offered resistance to Japanese invaders in Heilungkiang.

Dec. 15.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek retired for second time in interest of party unity.

Dec. 28.—National Government was re-organized. Lin Sen made Chairman of the National Government, and Dr. Sun Fo, president of the Executive Yuan.

1932

Jan. 1.—The new government was inaugurated.

Jan. 2.—Japanese entered Chinchow.

Jan. 28.—Kuomintang Central Executive Committee accepted resignation of Dr. Sun Fo as president of Executive Yuan, and appointed Wang Ching-wei to fill vacancy. Dr. Sun named president of the Legislative Yuan.

Fighting started in Shanghai between Japanese troops and 19th Route Army. National Military Council created with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek as chairman.

Jan. 30.—The National Government moved to Loyang in face of threat of Japanese attack on Nanking.

Feb. 7.—National Government and newly-created National Military Council issued circular telegram calling rank and file of National forces to arms.

Mar. 1.—Kuomintang CEC, held second plenary session in Loyang to devise measures to cope with national crisis.

Mar. 9.—Henry Pu Yi sworn in as Chief Executive of Japanese puppet state "Manchukuo" in northeast with Changchun as capital.

Mar. 14.—League of Nations' Lytton Commission of Enquiry arrived in Shanghai; reached Nanking March 26, Peiping April 9, then proceeded to Manchuria, where it remained for about six weeks. After second visit to Peiping and Tokyo, commission stayed in Peiping on July 20 to draft report.

April 7.—The National Emergency Conference in Loyang decided on prolonged resistance against Japanese aggression.

April 28.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Hankow to campaign against communists who took advantage of Manchurian situation to resume activities in central China. Communists in Hupeh, Honan and Anhwei completely routed. Communist Hupeh border strongholds at Chinchiat sai and Hsinchi captured. By end of year communists were dislodged from Central China.

May 1.—China and Japan agreed on armistice, bringing end to military conflict in Shanghai. The 19th Route Army transferred from Shanghai to Fukien.

Aug. 15.—National Government accepted resignation of Chang Hsueh-liang, Pa-

cification Commissioner at Peiping, and ordered formation of Peiping branch military council. Chang's retirement was persistently sought by Wang Ching-wei.

Dec. 1.—National Government moved back to Nanking from Loyang.

Dec. 12.—The government announced decision to resume diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia.

Dec. 16.—Third plenary session of Kuomintang Fourth CEC opened in Nanking. Proposal adopted to convoke National Assembly in March, 1935, to adopt constitution for the country.

1933

Jan. 1.—Japanese troops outside Great Wall attacked Shanhaikwan, took city Jan. 3.

Feb. 27.—Japanese started general offensive in Jehol, captured Chengteh March 3.

Mar. 6.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Paoting to preside over military conference; took command of troops under Chang Hsueh-liang. General Ho Ying-chin made commander-in-chief of Chinese troops in north China next day.

Mar. 30.—Kuomintang decided to call emergency meeting of Central Executive Committee on July 1, later opposed by Canton leaders including Hu Han-min and Chen Chi-tang.

April.—Fighting in north China widened. Several strategic passes along Great Wall, notably Kupeikow and Hsi-fengkow, fell to Japanese. Japanese continued advance to Luanchow ready to attack Peiping and Tientsin.

May 27.—Feng Yu-hsiang, using national crisis, revolted in Kalgan.

May 31.—The Sino-Japanese Tangku Armistice agreement signed, ending hostilities in north China.

June 1.—The government, to appease southwest leaders, postponed emergency meeting of Kuomintang CEC. Announced instead Fifth National Congress for November 12.

Aug. 6.—Feng announced his retirement after revolt failed.

Nov. 20.—Leaders of 19th Route Army announced "people's government" in Fukien and declared independence.

Nov. 23.—Government started moving troops against Fukien.

Nov. 26.—Government sent peace mission to Canton and Hongkong to persuade Hu Han-min and other southern CEC members to attend the fourth plenary session of CEC, scheduled for December 20.

Dec.—Severe fighting began between Government and Fukien rebels.

1934

Jan. 15.—Fukien rebellion collapsed; 19th Route Army reorganized.

Jan. 20.—Kuomintang CEC fourth plenary session, postponed for one month, formally opened in Nanking.

Jan. 25.—Lin Sen reelected chairman of National Government for a second term by plenary session.

Jan. 31.—Generalissimo Chiang and Wang Ching-wei issued joint statement reaffirming government's policy to suppress the communist rebellion.

Chang Hsueh-liang returned from Italy and appointed in February deputy-commander of bandit suppression army in Hupeh, Honan and Anhwei.

Mar. 1.—Henry Pu Yi enthroned as "Emperor of Manchukuo" in Changchun.

Mar. 11.—New Life Movement launched in Nanchang.

July 8-13.—Important communist bases in south Kiangsi captured by government troops.

Oct. 9.—Government sent Wang Ching-wei and later Wang Chung-hui to Hongkong to effect reconciliation between Canton faction and Central Government.

Oct. 16.—Legislative Yuan approved revised Draft Constitution.

Oct. 24.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Peiping for an extensive tour of China's northwest. Itinerary covered Lanchow, Ningsia, Kalgan, Kweisui and Taiyuan.

Nov. 10.—Government troops captured Changting in Fukien from communists.

Nov. 11.—Government troops captured Juichin, capital of communist government in Kiangsi. Main force of rebels broken, remnants fled across Hunan, Szechwan and Kweichow. Retreat known as "long march" to the northwest.

Dec. 17.—The Southwest Political Council, meeting in Canton, resolved to support Central Government.

1935

Jan. 29.—Japanese troops invaded eastern Chahar.

Mar. 11.—China protested to Moscow against transfer of Chinese Eastern railway to "Manchukuo."

Mar. 27.—Generalissimo Chiang arrived in Kweiyang and established headquarters there to supervise campaign against communist remnants fleeing across southwestern provinces.

June 5.—Japanese troops, holding maneuvers and military conferences in Tientsin, demanded removal of northeastern

troops from Hopei and Chahar, and closing down of Kuomintang organs in both provinces.

July 1.—Government accepted Japanese demands under duress.

Sept. 23.—British mission headed by Sir Frederick Leith-Ross, chief economic adviser to the British Government, arrived in Nanking, and stayed in China for about nine months.

Nov. 2.—Government appointed Generalissimo Chiang concurrently commander-in-chief of bandit-suppression forces in northwest, and Chang Hsueh-liang, deputy commander-in-chief.

Nov. 3.—National Government issued proclamation, nationalizing all silver coins and making the notes issued by the Central Bank of China, Bank of China and Bank of Communications legal tender.

Nov. 11.—Japanese troops created reign of terror in Peiping and Tientsin by demanding arrest of Chinese educators, officials and students.

Nov. 12.—Fifth National Congress of Kuomintang, postponed twice as concession to Southwest party leaders, formally convened, with Canton representatives participating.

Nov. 19.—Generalissimo Chiang explained China's foreign policy as striving for peace while there is hope of peace, fighting only when driven to last extremity.

1936

Mar. 29.—Soviet Russia announced conclusion of mutual assistance pact with Outer Mongolia.

May 5.—Government promulgated the Draft Constitution.

May 12.—Hu Han-min, veteran Kuomintang leader and chairman of the CEC standing committee, died in Canton.

June 9.—Kwangsi military leaders called upon government to mobilize nation's military forces against Japan.

June 22.—Chen Chi-tang set up separate military council in Canton and sent troops to invade Hunan.

June 28.—Prince Teh of Inner Mongolia declared independence at Pailinmiao.

July 1.—Kwangtung's air force deserted Chen Chi-tang and pledged allegiance to Central Government.

July 9.—Gen. Yu Han-mou, one of Chen Chi-tang's commanders, deserted Chen and flew to Nanking.

July 13.—Second plenary session of Kuomintang CEC, meeting in Nanking, resolved to abolish Southwest Political Council and appointed Yu Han-mou commander-in-chief of Kwangtung forces.

Aug. 19.—Kwangsi set up independent regime in Kweilin.

Sept. 16.—Kwangsi problem amicably settled. Gen. Li Tsung-jen assumed office as director of Kwangsi Pacification Headquarters.

Oct. 15.—Standing Committee of Kuomintang CEC decided to postpone convocation of National Assembly, originally scheduled for November 12, 1936.

Oct. 17.—Japanese nationals started evacuation from cities along Yangtze river.

Oct. 18.—Puppet troops in Inner Mongolia invaded eastern Suiyuan.

Oct. 31.—Nation-wide celebration of Generalissimo Chiang's birthday.

Nov. 3-4.—Japanese troops in north China held two-day maneuver in Peiping-Tientsin area.

Nov. 16.—Severe fighting developed in eastern Suiyuan, with Gen. Fu Tso-yi's troops offering stiff resistance to Inner Mongolian invasion.

Nov. 24.—Gen. Fu's forces captured Pailinmiao in counter-attack, inflicting some 1,000 casualties on puppet troops.

Dec. 12.—Chang Hsueh-liang mutinied in Sian, holding Generalissimo Chiang and other high-ranking Government officials in confinement.

Dec. 22.—Madame Chiang, accompanied by W. H. Donald and T. V. Soong, flew to Sian.

Dec. 25.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang returned safely to Loyang.

1937

Jan. 4.—Chang Hsueh-liang was sentenced to ten years imprisonment by special military tribunal. The National Government, at request of Generalissimo Chiang, commuted his sentence and remanded him to National Military Council for discipline.

Feb. 10.—Government troops took over garrison duties in Sian.

Feb. 15.—Third plenary session of Kuomintang Fifth CEC convened in Nanking until Feb. 22.

Feb. 19.—Kuomintang CEC rejected Eight-Point Program advocated by Chang Hsueh-liang and others in Sian coup; reaffirmed the government policy to eradicate communism in China.

Feb. 20.—CEC resolved to convene National Assembly November 12 to enact national constitution.

April-May.—Japanese troops in north China rushed reinforcements to Peiping-Tientsin area and held large-scale maneuvers around the two northern cities.

May 27.—Generalissimo Chiang, at

Kuling, summoned national leaders for conference.

July 7.—Japanese soldiers in night maneuvers in vicinity of Lukouchiao (Marco Polo Bridge), west of Peiping, attacked Wanping city.

July 10.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged written protest with Japanese Embassy in Nanking.

July 17.—China sent a memorandum to powers interested in Far East on Japan's latest provocation.

Generalissimo Chiang laid down four minimum conditions for settlement of Lukouchiao "incident" in Kuling speech.

July 25.—Japanese Army sent ultimatum to General Sung Cheh-yuang, Chinese commander in Hopei-Chahar area, demanding evacuation of Chinese troops from Peiping and its vicinity. Gen. Sung ordered his 29th Army to resist.

July 27.—Japanese troops attacked Peiping.

July 28.—Chinese troops evacuated Peiping during night.

July 29.—Fighting broke out in Tientsin.

July 31.—Chinese troops evacuated Tientsin.

Aug. 6.—Japan ordered evacuation of Japanese nationals from Hankow and transfer of Japanese Concession in Hankow to Chinese authorities.

Aug. 13.—Fighting broke out at Shanghai.

National Government announced that Yangtze river below Chinkiang had been mined and closed to shipping.

Aug. 14.—Chinese Air Force in action on Shanghai front.

Aug. 21.—Treaty of Non-aggression signed in Nanking between China and U.S.S.R.

Aug. 26.—Japanese planes bombed and machined-gunned car of British Ambassador Sir Hughe Knatchbull-Hugessen near Wusih, Kiangsu. Sir Hughe wounded in back.

Aug. 27.—Chinese troops evacuated Kalgan, capital of Chahar.

Aug. 30.—National Government ordered drafting of able-bodied male citizens for military service.

China sent statement to the League of Nations on development of events since July 7.

Sept. 1.—National Government issued CNC\$500,000,000 Liberty Bonds.

Sept. 5.—Japanese Navy began blockade of China Coast from Chinwangtao, in north, to Pakhoi, in south.

Sept. 10.—"Chinese Red Army" reorganized as part of the Chinese national army.

Sept. 15.—China appealed to League Assembly against Japanese aggression under Article XVII of League Covenant.

Sept. 22.—Chinese Communist party renounced all communistic programs, pledged full support to Three People's Principles. Also announced abolition of "Chinese Soviet Republic" and "Red Army."

Sept. 24.—Generalissimo Chiang at interview with foreign press declared China was fighting for her existence, also for principles of the Nine-Power Treaty, the Anti-War Pact, and the Covenant of the League of Nations.

Oct. 5.—National Government in mandate ordered postponement of National Assembly scheduled for November 12, 1937.

Oct. 6.—Assembly of League of Nations adopted Advisory Committee's resolution pledging moral support to China. Japan pronounced guilty of invading China in violation of her treaty obligations.

U. S. State Department issued statement condemning Japan's invasion of China, upholding the principles and sanctity of treaties and deploring the use of force.

Oct. 14.—Kweisui fell to Japanese.

Oct. 16.—National Government accepted invitation to attend the Nine-Power Conference in Brussels on October 30.

Oct. 17.—Paotow fell.

Oct. 27.—Japan formally declined invitation to attend Nine-Power Conference.

Oct. 29.—Puppet Mongol state, called "Autonomous Government of Inner Mongolia," established by Japanese.

Nov. 3.—Nine-Power Conference opened in Brussels.

Nov. 5.—Japan, Germany and Italy signed Anti-Comintern Pact.

Nov. 9.—Chinese troops evacuated Taiyuan. Chinese troops began evacuation of Shanghai area.

Nov. 12.—Evacuation of Shanghai completed.

Nov. 20.—National Government announced removal from Nanking to Chungking.

Nov. 24.—With Italy dissenting, the Nine-Power Conference adopted report and declaration, urging suspension of hostilities and resort to peaceful settlement, and then adjourned indefinitely.

Dec. 12.—The U.S.S. Panay, Yangtze river gun-boat, bombed and sunk by Japanese planes near Hohsien, Anhwei. H.M.S. Ladybird and H.M.S. Bee shelled by Japanese artillery near Wuhu.

Dec. 13.—Japanese troops entered Nanking.

Dec. 14.—Japanese puppet regime, called

"Provisional Government of the Republic of China" established in Peiping.

Dec. 24.—Hangchow fell.

Dec. 27.—Tsinan fell.

Dec. 31.—Tsingtao, port city of Shantung, evacuated.

1938

Jan. 1.—Government changes enabled Generalissimo to devote himself entirely to military affairs with Dr. H. H. Kung as head of the Executive Yuan. Ministry of Navy abolished, Ministry of Economic Affairs established, and Ministry of Railways merged with Ministry of Communications.

Jan. 16.—Japan announced Imperial Conference decision January 11, that Japan would henceforth refuse to deal with National Government.

Jan. 20.—Hsu Shih-ying, Chinese Ambassador to Japan, left Japan for China.

Feb. 2.—The League Council recommended that members of League individually extend aid to China.

Feb. 20.—Hitler announced Germany's decision to recognize puppet regime in Chinese Northeastern Provinces.

Feb. 23.—Chinese planes bombed Taiwan.

Feb. 25.—Chinese Government protested to Berlin against Germany's decision to recognize puppet regime in Northeastern Provinces.

Mar. 1.—First Sino-Soviet Credit Loan of US\$50-million concluded.

Mar. 14.—National Government banned private foreign exchange operations. Sales of foreign exchange centralized through Central Bank of China.

Mar. 28.—New puppet regime under Japanese, called "Reformed Government of the Republic of China," established in Nanking.

Mar. 29.—Emergency National Congress of Kuomintang opened in Wuchang, closed April 1.

Apr. 1.—Emergency National Congress elected Generalissimo Chiang Tsungtsai of Kuomintang, and program of armed resistance and national reconstruction adopted. Decision to form Sin Min Chu I Youth Corps and People's Political Council.

Apr. 6.—Fourth Plenary Session of Central Executive Committee of Kuomintang opened at Wuchang, closed on April 8.

Apr. 7.—Gen. Li Tsung-jen reported victory at Taierhchwang.

May 1.—The Ministry of Finance issued 1938 National Defense Loan amounting to CNC\$500-million and 1938 Gold Loan amounting to 100-million Customs

Gold Units (1 CGU=CNC\$20), £10-million and US\$50-million.

May 6.—National Government lodged formal protest with Great Britain against Anglo-Japanese agreement on Chinese Maritime Customs.

May 12.—Japanese troops occupied Amoy.

Germany formally recognized Japanese puppet regime in Northeastern Provinces.

May 14.—The 101st Session of League of Nations Council adopted resolution urging League members to give serious and sympathetic consideration to requests for aid they might receive from China.

May 19.—Chinese troops evacuated Hsuehchow.

May 20.—Chinese planes flew over western Japan and dropped leaflets, the first wartime visit of Japan proper by foreign military planes.

May 21.—Hitler ordered German military advisers serving with Chinese Army to return to Germany.

June 6.—Chinese troops evacuated Kai-feng.

June 7.—Yellow river dikes collapsed below Chengchow as result of hostilities.

June 11.—Chinese Embassy in Tokyo closed by order of National Government.

June 12.—Chinese troops evacuated An-king.

July 1.—Second Sino-Soviet Credit Loan of US\$50-million concluded.

July 3.—French Government announced occupation of Paracel islands, Chinese possession south of Hainan island.

July 6.—First session of People's Political Council opened at Hankow.

July 7.—Chinese Ambassador to France, Wellington Koo, reminded French Foreign Minister Georges Bonnet of Chinese sovereignty over Paracel islands.

July 13.—Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction approved by People's Council.

July 26.—Kiukiang fell.

Sept. 11.—China officially invoked Article XVII of League Covenant.

Sept. 25.—Chinese Delegation at Geneva instructed to demand application of Article XVI of League Covenant.

Sept. 30.—League Council adopted report urging member states to abstain from any action that would weaken China and to consider individually measures to aid China. Members might act according to stipulations of Article XVI of Covenant.

Oct. 12.—Japanese troops landed at Bias Bay off Kwangtung coast.

Sinyang, in southern Honan, fell.

Oct. 21.—Japanese troops entered Canton.

Oct. 25.—Chinese troops evacuated Wuchang and Hankow.

Oct. 27.—Japanese Privy Council confirmed Japanese Government decision to sever relations with League of Nations.

Oct. 28.—Second Session of People's Political Council opened at Chungking, closed November 6.

Nov. 13.—Chinese troops evacuated Yochow, northern Hunan. Huge fire broke out at Changsha.

Dec. 18.—Wang Ching-wei deserted National Government and left Chungking.

Dec. 22.—Japanese Prime Minister Prince Konoye in a statement laid down three points as guiding principles for settlement of Sino-Japanese conflict and establishment of "New Order in East Asia."

Dec. 26.—Generalissimo Chiang reiterated China's determination to carry on war of resistance against Japan. He said Konoye's statement clearly revealed Japan's intention to conquer China.

Dec. 29.—Wang Ching-wei in Hongkong urged "peace" based on Konoye's three-point statement.

1939

Jan. 1.—Wang Ching-wei expelled from Kuomintang.

Sikang provincial government formally established at Kangting with General Liu Wen-hui as governor.

Jan. 20.—League Council adopted resolution requesting member states to hold consultations for taking effective measures to assist China.

Jan. 21.—Fifth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened at Chungking, closed January 30. Decided to create Supreme National Defense Council under chairmanship of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek.

Feb. 2.—Sino-American Tung Oil Loan of US\$25-million concluded.

Feb. 10.—Japanese forces invaded Hainan Island.

Feb. 11.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek declared Japanese occupation of Hainan Island marked turning point in history of the Pacific as beginning of Japan's naval dominance in that ocean.

Feb. 12.—Third Session of People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

Mar. 8.—British Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir John Simon, announced the grant by British banks guaranteed by the British Government, of £5-million credit to China to stabilize Chinese currency.

Mar. 15.—First Sino-British Export Credit Loan, £188,000 concluded.

Mar. 28.—Nanchang fell.

Mar. 31.—Japanese forces occupied Spratley islands in South China Sea.

May 1.—National Spiritual Mobilization Movement initiated.

May 3.—Chungking heavily bombed by Japanese planes.

May 4.—Chungking heavily bombed.

May 12.—Japanese marines landed at Kulangsu near Amoy.

Chungking heavily bombed. *May 3, 4* and 12 bombings caused more than 10,000 casualties.

May 27.—League Council urged member states to continue to aid China individually, and asked that the League be kept informed of Japanese bombings of civilian population in China.

June 1.—The 1939 War Supplies Loan of CNC\$600-million floated.

June 8.—National Government ordered arrest and punishment of Wang Ching-wei.

June 10.—Third Sino-Soviet Credit Loan, US\$150-million, was concluded.

June 14.—Japanese began blockade of British and French concessions in Tientsin.

June 16.—New Sino-Soviet Commercial Treaty signed in Moscow.

June 18.—Remains of Genghis Khan removed from Suiyuan to Kansu.

June 21.—Japanese troops landed at Swatow.

July 15.—Anglo-Japanese negotiations on Tientsin issue began in Tokyo.

July 24.—Generalissimo Chiang stated that Anglo-Japanese accord on China reached in Tokyo would not be valid without China's approval.

July 26.—United States notified Japanese Government of decision to abrogate the American-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

Aug. 14.—Anglo-Japanese negotiations in Tokyo on Tientsin issue discontinued.

Aug. 18.—Second Sino-British Export Credit Loan, £2,859,000 concluded.

Aug. 23.—Pandit Nehru, Indian National Congress Leader, arrived in Chungking on goodwill visit and left on September 5.

Sept. 8.—Joint Board of Four Government Banks established with Generalissimo Chiang as chairman.

Sept. 9.—Fourth Session of People's Political Council opened in Chungking, closed September 18.

Generalissimo Chiang gave reassurance that China would establish a constitutional government.

Oct. 6.—Chinese troops won First Battle of Changsha.

Nov. 12.—Sixth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking, closed November 20. Generalissimo Chiang

appointed president of the Executive Yuan.

Nov. 24.—Nanning fell.

Dec. 14.—China reelected to the League Council by League Assembly.

1940

Jan. 1.—The National Government ordered national adoption of new *hsien* (county) system.

Jan. 21.—Tao Hsi-Sheng and Kao Tsung-wu revealed Wang Ching-wei's secret treaty with Japanese signed in Shanghai on December 30, 1939.

Jan. 23.—Generalissimo Chiang denounced "Japan-Wang secret treaty."

National Government ratified Sino-Soviet Trade Agreement signed in June, 1939.

Feb. 22.—The 14th Reincarnation of the Dalai Lama enthroned at Lhasa.

Mar. 1.—Ministry of Finance issued first instalment of CNC\$1,200,000,000 of the 1940 War Supplies Loan.

Mar. 30.—Wang Ching-wei's puppet regime established at Nanking. The Old "Provisional Government" at Peiping and "Reformed Government" at Nanking superseded by Wang's regime.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs declared Nanking puppet organization illegal and its acts null and void.

American Secretary of State, Cordell Hull, declared United States would not recognize Nanking puppet regime.

Apr. 1.—Fifth session of People's Political Council opened in Chungking, closed April 10.

Apr. 20.—The US\$20-million Sino-American tin loan concluded.

May 1.—The Ministry of Finance issued first instalment of £10-million and US\$50-million 1940 reconstruction gold bonds.

June 12.—Ichang fell.

June 19.—Anglo-Japanese agreement reached in Tokyo on Tientsin issue.

June 20.—Japanese blockade of British and French concessions in Tientsin lifted after 372 days of enforcement.

July 1.—Seventh Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking, closed July 8.

July 18.—Britain closed Burma Road for three months.

July 27.—President Roosevelt ordered embargo on oil and scrap iron shipments to Japan.

July 30.—Executive Yuan decided to establish National Food Administration.

Aug. 19-20.—Japanese bombers raided Chungking. The two days of bombing left four-fifths of Chungking in ruins.

Aug. 27.—Last contingent of British troops left Shanghai.

Sept. 1.—Second instalment of the CNC\$1,200-million 1940 war supplies loan was issued.

Sept. 22.—Japan signed agreement with Indo-China. Japanese troops entered Indo-China in three columns. Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged protest with France.

Sept. 26.—National Government ordered postponement of National Assembly scheduled for November.

Sept. 27.—Japan, Germany and Italy signed Tripartite Pact in Berlin.

Oct. 1.—Chungking officially made auxiliary capital of China.

Oct. 18.—Burma Road reopened after three months closure.

Oct. 29.—Japanese troops evacuated Nanning and southern Kwangsi.

Nov. 1.—Second instalment of the £10-million and US\$50,000,000 1940 reconstruction gold loan was issued.

Nov. 30.—Wang Ching-wei puppet regime concluded "treaty" with Japan giving her virtual control over lower Yangtze, north China and Inner Mongolia.

Dec. 1.—National Government declared treaty signed between Wang Ching-wei and Japanese illegal.

1941

Jan. 18.—National Military Council ordered disbandment of New Fourth Army as measure of military discipline.

Feb. 1.—The first instalment of CNC\$1,200-million 1941 war supplies loan issued.

Feb. 4.—The US\$50-million Sino-American metal loan concluded.

Mar. 1.—First Session of the Second People's Political Council opened in Chungking; closed March 10.

First instalment of CNC\$1,200-million 1941 reconstruction loan issued.

Mar. 24.—Eighth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking; closed April 2.

Mar. 28.—Battle of Shangkao in northern Kiangsi ended.

Apr. 14.—Referring to Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact, signed April 13 in Moscow, Foreign Minister Wang Chung-hui declared Outer Mongolia and Northeastern Provinces Chinese territory and the Soviet-Japanese declaration not binding on China.

Apr. 15.—President Roosevelt announced list of materials for China under Lend-Lease Act.

Apr. 21.—Japanese entered Foochow.

Apr. 25.—In Washington, the United States and Great Britain signed separate

but parallel agreements with China for stabilization of Chinese national currency. The Sino-American agreement provided for American stabilization fund of \$US50-million, while Sino-British agreement provided for a British stabilization fund of £5-million. Chinese banks would raise another US\$20-million for same purpose.

May 13.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced exchange of diplomatic representatives with Australia.

June 1.—Second instalment of CNC\$1,200-million 1941 war supplies loan issued.

June 5.—Third Sino-British export credit loan £5-million concluded.

June 17.—Ministry of Food established under Executive Yuan.

June 18.—Sino-British Yunnan-Burma boundary demarcation agreement signed in Chungking.

July 1.—Second instalment of CNC\$1,200-million 1941 reconstruction loan issued.

Germany, Italy and Rumania recognized Nanking puppet regime.

July 2.—China severed diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy, and on July 10 with Rumania.

July 20.—China severed diplomatic relations with Denmark.

July 25.—Vichy revealed that Indo-China authorities agreed to "Japanese protection of peace" in entire Indo-China.

Great Britain cancelled Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Commerce and Navigation and ordered freezing of Chinese and Japanese assets in British Empire.

United States ordered freezing of Chinese and Japanese assets in America.

July 28.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced China considered entire Indo-China under Japanese military occupation.

Dutch East Indies ordered freezing of Japanese assets, cancelled Dutch-Japanese financial agreement and ordered embargo of Dutch oil to Japan.

Aug. 1.—Thailand recognized puppet regime in Northeastern Provinces and joined Japanese "Sphere of Co-Prosperity in East Asia."

United States ordered oil embargo on Japan.

Aug. 14.—President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill issued joint declaration of "Atlantic Charter."

Aug. 17.—China declared intention to abide by Atlantic Charter.

Aug. 26.—China recognized Czech Government under President Benes.

Aug. 28.—Chinese Goodwill Mission left Chungking for Burma; returned September 8.

Aug. 29.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs

announced exchange of diplomatic representatives between China and Canada.

Sept. 3.—Chinese recaptured Foochow.

Oct. 1.—Third instalment of CNC\$1,-200-million 1941 war supplies loan issued.

Oct. 4.—Chengchow fell.

Oct. 8.—Chinese won second battle of Changsha.

Oct. 9.—American Military Mission under Maj.-Gen. John Magruder arrived in Chungking.

Oct. 31.—Chinese recaptured Chengchow.

Nov. 17.—Second Session of Second People's Political Council opened in Chungking for nine days.

Nov. 28.—Last group of American marines evacuated from Shanghai.

Dec. 8 (U.S. Dec. 7).—Japan declared war on United States and Great Britain, after attacking Pearl Harbor, Hongkong and other American and British bases in Far East, Shanghai, Kulangsu and Tientsin Settlements and concessions occupied by the Japanese.

Great Britain declared war on Japan.

Dec. 9 (U.S. Dec. 8).—China declared war on Japan, Germany and Italy.

United States declared war on Japan.

Dec. 15.—Ninth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking until December 23.

Dec. 17.—London announced formation of British Military Mission to China.

Dec. 20.—The American Volunteer Group of the Chinese Air Force took part in active combat over Kunming.

Dec. 22.—Gen. Sir Archibald Wavell, commander-in-chief of India, and Maj.-Gen. Brett of the American Army Air Corps, arrived in Chungking for two days consultation with Generalissimo Chiang.

Dec. 23.—T. V. Soong appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.

1942

Jan. 1.—Joint declaration of the United Nations signed in Washington.

Jan. 2.—Chinese troops entered Burma.

Jan. 3.—Generalissimo Chiang accepted command of the China Theater of war.

Jan. 15.—Third Battle of Changsha won by Chinese.

Feb. 1.—The 1942 U. S. Government Credit to China, US\$500-million, concluded.

Feb. 4.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang Kai-shek arrived in India, departed Feb. 22.

Feb. 25.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced resumption of diplomatic relations between China and Poland after latter withdrew recognition of puppet regime in Chinese Northeastern Provinces.

Mar. 3.—Generalissimo Chiang arrived in Lashio for military conference with General Wavell.

Mar. 4.—Gen. Joseph Stilwell arrived in Chungking to assume command of all American Armed forces in China, Burma and India.

Mar. 5.—Generalissimo and Madame Chiang returned to Chungking from visit to India and Burma.

Mar. 10.—Gen. Joseph Stilwell appointed chief of staff of the China Theater.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced China and India would exchange resident representatives.

Mar. 12.—Chinese Military Mission headed by Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui, left Chungking for America, arrived April 13.

Mar. 29.—National Mobilization Act promulgated.

Mar. 30.—President Roosevelt announced establishment of Pacific War Council in Washington, comprising China, United States, Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and Netherlands.

Apr. 24.—Generalissimo Chiang received British decoration of Grand Cross of the Bath awarded by King George VI.

Apr. 29.—Chinese troops evacuated Lashio in northeastern Burma.

May 1.—The 1942 Allied Victory Gold Loan, US\$100-million, floated.

Chinese troops evacuated Mandalay in central Burma.

May 3.—Japanese troops advanced into western Yunnan along the Burma Road.

May 5.—National Mobilization Act went into effect.

May 9.—Japanese invading army stopped on the Salween River by Chinese.

May 11.—Tengchung fell.

May 29.—Kinhwa fell.

June 2.—Foreign Minister T. V. Soong and American Secretary of State Cordell Hull signed Sino-American Lend-Lease agreement in Washington.

July 1.—The 1942 Allied Victory Loan of CNC\$1-billion issued.

July 4.—American Volunteer Group of Chinese Air Force superseded by the China Task Force of U. S. Army Air Force.

Aug. 28.—Chinese troops recaptured major part of Chekiang-Kiangsi railway.

Sept. 21.—Generalissimo Chiang concluded month-long trip to northwest. He visited Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai. Madame Chiang visited Sinkiang.

Sept. 29.—Wendell Willkie arrived in Sinkiang from U.S.S.R. He arrived in Chungking October 2 and departed October 9.

Oct. 10.—American and British governments announced intention of relinquish-

ing extraterritorial and other related rights in China.

Oct. 22.—First session of Third People's Political Council convened; adjourned October 31.

Nov. 1.—Japan established Ministry of Great East Asia to rule occupied territories.

Nov. 10.—British Parliamentary Mission arrived in Chungking, departed December 11.

Nov. 12.—Tenth Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking; closed November 27.

Nov. 27.—Madame Chiang arrived in New York for medical treatment.

1943

Jan. 5.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced Chinese participation in United Nations declaration signed in London.

Jan. 11.—New Sino-American and Sino-British treaties concluded. Sino-American treaty signed in Washington, Sino-British treaty in Chungking.

Feb. 5.—Gen. H. H. Arnold, chief of the United States Army Air Force, and Sir John Dill, chief of staff, representing President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill respectively, arrived in Chungking for two-day conference with Generalissimo Chiang.

Feb. 17.—Madame Chiang arrived in Washington as guest of President and Mrs. Roosevelt at White House.

Japanese troops landed at Kwangchowwan.

Feb. 18.—Madame Chiang addressed combined session of U. S. Senate and House of Representatives.

Feb. 19.—American Lend-Lease Administration announced establishment of China Bureau.

Feb. 24.—Chinese Government lodged protest with Vichy regime over Japanese landing at Kwangchowwan.

Feb. 26.—Generalissimo Chiang broadcast to people of Thailand.

Mar. 6.—The 14th Air Force of United States Army began operation in China.

Mar. 15.—Generalissimo Chiang visited Kweichow.

Apr. 4.—Madame Chiang ended official visit to U. S. and returned to New York after visiting Chicago, San Francisco and Los Angeles.

Apr. 22.—Foreign Minister T. V. Soong visited Canada.

May 19.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged protest with Vichy regime over transfer of French Concession and other rights to Nanking puppets.

May 20.—Ratification of new Sino-

American and Sino-British treaties exchanged in Washington and Chungking, respectively.

May 21.—Chinese and American governments exchanged notes in Chungking concerning criminal jurisdiction over American armed forces in China.

June 1.—The 1943 Allied Victory Loan, CNC\$3-billion, issued.

June 10.—Washington announced agreement reached among China, the United States, Great Britain and U.S.S.R. on Inter-Allied Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

June 14.—Battle of western Hupé ended. Japanese retreated to original positions.

June 15.—Madame Chiang arrived in Canada. Addressed joint session of Canadian Parliament July 16.

June 27.—Madame Chiang began journey home.

June 28.—Generalissimo Chiang received Grand Cordon of the Aztec Eagle from Mexican Government.

July 7.—Generalissimo Chiang received Legion of Merit, degree of chief commander, from the U. S. government.

Aug. 1.—Lin Sen, chairman of National Government, died. Generalissimo Chiang appointed acting chairman.

Chinese Government severed diplomatic relations with Vichy regime.

Aug. 22.—Foreign Minister T. V. Soong in Quebec to join Roosevelt-Churchill conference.

Aug. 27.—China recognized French Committee for National Liberation in London.

Sept. 6.—The 11th Plenary Session of Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking; closed September 13. Generalissimo Chiang elected chairman of National Government.

Sept. 18.—Second Session of Third People's Political Council convened in Chungking; closed September 27.

Oct. 10.—Generalissimo Chiang assumed office as chairman of National Government.

Oct. 16.—Lord Mountbatten, supreme commander in Southeast Asia, arrived in Chungking for military conference with Chinese military leaders.

Oct. 30.—Declaration on general security (Moscow Declaration) signed in Moscow by China, United States, Great Britain and U.S.S.R.

Nov. 4.—Chinese-American Composite Wing of Chinese Air Force went into action.

Nov. 9.—United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation agreement was signed in Washington.

Nov. 18.—Goodwill Mission to Great Britain left Chungking for India en route to England.

Nov. 21.—Generalissimo Chiang, Madame Chiang, arrived in Cairo for conference with President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill.

Dec. 1.—Joint declaration of Cairo Conference issued.

Generalissimo and Madame Chiang returned to Chungking from Cairo.

Dec. 3.—Japanese troops entered Changteh.

Dec. 9.—Changteh recaptured.

Dec. 17.—Lieut. - Gen. A. Carton de Wiart, Prime Minister Churchill's personal representative to Generalissimo Chiang, arrived in Chungking.

President Roosevelt signed legislation repealing Chinese Exclusion Act.

Dec. 29.—Chinese Goodwill Mission to Great Britain received by King George VI.

1944

Jan. 25.—British Prime Minister Churchill received Chinese Goodwill Mission.

Feb. 7.—Chinese Military Mission, headed by General Yang Chieh, arrived in London.

Mar. 5.—Chinese troops recaptured Maingkwan in northern Burma.

Mar. 22.—Sino-Canadian Mutual Aid agreement signed in Ottawa.

Mar. 27.—Goodwill Mission to Great Britain returned to Chungking.

Apr. 14.—New Sino-Canadian treaty signed in Ottawa.

Apr. 22.—Joint Statements by experts on the establishment of an international monetary fund of the United and Associated Nations published in Washington, London, and Chungking.

Chengchow fell.

Apr. 23.—China elected to governing body of the International Labor Office.

May 1.—Gen. Z. Pechkoff, representative of French National Liberation Committee, presented credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek.

May 2.—Agreement on fourth Sino-British export credit loan of £50,000,000 signed in London.

Sino - British Lend - Lease agreement signed in London.

May 11.—Chinese forces in western Yunnan established bridgeheads west of Salween river.

May 17.—Chinese and American forces began siege of Myitkyina in northern Burma.

Military Mission headed by Gen. Shang Chen arrived in Washington.

May 20.—The 12th Plenary Session of the Kuomintang Fifth CEC opened in Chungking until May 26.

May 25.—Loyang fell.

June 15.—American superfortresses raided Japan proper for the first time.

June 16.—Kamaing in northern Burma captured by Chinese.

June 17.—Japanese completed occupation of Peiping-Hankow railway.

June 18.—Changsha fell.

June 21.—Henry Wallace arrived in Chungking.

June 23.—Dr. H. H. Kung, vice-president of Executive Yuan, arrived in Washington for United Nations monetary and finance conference.

June 25.—Mogaung, in northern Burma, captured by Chinese.

June 26.—President Roosevelt presented scroll to the men, women, and children of Chungking for bravery under enemy bombing.

July 1.—The 1944 Allied Victory Loan of CN\$5-billion floated.

July 2.—Henry Wallace left for America.

July 9.—Madame Chiang left for America for medical treatment.

Aug. 1.—Regulations for safeguarding the freedom of person were enforced.

Aug. 3.—Organized Japanese resistance at Myitkyina ceased.

Aug. 8.—Hengyang fell.

Aug. 28.—V. K. Wellington Koo, head of the Chinese Delegation to the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, arrived in Washington.

Sept. 5.—Third session of Third People's Political Council opened in Chungking until September 18.

Sept. 6.—President Roosevelt's personal emissaries, Donald Nelson and Maj.-Gen. Patrick Hurley, arrived in Chungking.

Special units from Chinese Expeditionary Force in western Yunnan and Chinese Army in India fighting in northern Burma joined forces at Kaoliangkung pass on Yunnan-Burma border, marking first overland contact between China and Southeast Asia Theater since Japanese occupation of Burma in 1942.

Sept. 14.—Chinese troops recaptured Tengchung city.

Sept. 15.—Gen. Chang Chih-chung, government representative, and Lin Tsu-han, communist representative, reported on the Government - Communist negotiations at People's Political Council.

Sept. 28.—French Government presented the Yangtze river gunboat S.S. *Le Bahny* to Chinese Government. The gunboat was renamed *Fa Ku*.

Sept. 29.—Chinese - American - British phases of Dumbarton Oaks Conference began.

Oct. 5.—Foochow fell.

Oct. 9.—Results of Dumbarton Oaks Conference published. Establishment of general assembly, security council and international court of justice proposed. Chinese-American-British phase of the Conference concluded.

Oct. 14.—Government called 100,000 educated youth to volunteer for military service.

Oct. 23.—China, together with United States, Great Britain, and U.S.S.R., announced recognition of Provisional Government of France.

Oct. 26.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced recognition of Government of Italy.

Oct. 29.—The White House announced recall (October 24) of Gen. Joseph Stilwell. Maj.-Gen. Albert C. Wedemeyer appointed Commanding General of U. S. Forces in China Theater. He was also appointed chief of staff to Generalissimo Chiang, supreme commander of China Theater.

Lieut.-Gen. Daniel I. Sultan was appointed Commanding General of U. S. Army Forces in Burma and India Theater. He was appointed by Generalissimo Chiang as commander of all Chinese forces based in India.

Nov. 3.—Chinese troops recaptured Lungling.

Nov. 10.—Kweilin fell.

Wang Ching-wei died in Japan.

Nov. 11.—Liuchow fell.

Nov. 15.—Ishan fell.

Nov. 16.—Chinese War Production Board established under the direction of Wong Wen-hao.

The Ministry of Conscription organized with Gen. Lu Chung-lin as minister.

Donald Nelson returned to Chungking with American experts to assist Chinese War Production Board.

Nov. 19.—Lieut.-Gen. D. I. Sultan announced construction of oil pipeline from India to China.

Supreme National Defense Council appointed Gen. Chen Cheng, Minister of War; Chang Li-sheng, Minister of Interior; O. K. Yui, Minister of Finance; and Chu Chia-hua, Minister of Education.

Nov. 21.—Chinese Training and Combat Command of the U. S. Forces, China Theater, was established with Brig.-Gen. Frank Dorn as commanding general.

Nov. 29.—United National War Crimes Sub-Commission for the Far East and Pacific formed in Chungking with Wang Chung-hui as chairman.

Dec. 1.—Chinese troops recaptured Che-fang in western Yunnan.

Dec. 4.—T. V. Soong appointed acting president of Executive Yuan.

Dec. 5.—Tushan fell and recaptured on December 8.

Dec. 15.—Chinese troops recaptured Bhamo in northern Burma.

Dec. 25.—Headquarters of Chinese Ground Forces inaugurated in Kunming with Gen. Ho Ying-chin as commander-in-chief.

1945

Jan. 1.—President Chiang Kai-shek promised to call National Assembly to adopt constitution before end of the war.

War Transport Board was formed under the direction of Gen. Yu Fei-peng.

Jan. 8.—Maj.-Gen. Patrick Hurley, U. S. Ambassador to China, presented credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek.

Jan. 15.—Chinese troops recaptured Namkhan in northern Burma.

Jan. 20.—Chinese troops recaptured Wanting on Yunnan-Burma border.

Jan. 21.—Test convoy over the Teng-chung cutoff (from Myitkyina to Kunming) arrived in Kunming.

Jan. 22.—Lieut.-Gen. D. I. Sultan announced that Ledo-Burma Road was entirely cleared of Japs.

Jan. 23.—Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration formally inaugurated with T. F. Tsiang as director.

Jan. 28.—President Chiang broadcast to American and British peoples naming Ledo-Burma road the Stilwell Road in honor of Gen. Joseph Stilwell.

First convoy from India passed Wanting entering Chinese territory. The convoy welcomed by official Chinese delegation headed by T. V. Soong.

Feb. 4.—First convoy over Stilwell Road arrived in Kunming.

Feb. 12.—First regular convoy over Tengchung cutoff arrived in Kunming.

Mar. 1.—President Chiang announced National Assembly would convene November 12 to adopt constitution.

Mar. 5.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced joint invitations to United Nations Conference on International Organization at San Francisco issued by China, U.S.S.R., United Kingdom and United States.

Mar. 7.—Lord and Lady Mountbatten arrived in Chungking.

Chinese troops recaptured Lashio in northern Burma.

Mar. 9.—Japanese troops in Indo-China disarmed all French and Indo-Chinese troops.

Mar. 13.—Japanese troops seized Kwang-chowwan.

Mar. 16.—Hsipaw, west of Lashio, captured by Chinese.

Mar. 20.—Mandalay taken by British.

Mar. 26.—Chinese delegation to San Francisco Conference named. T. V. Soong appointed head.

Mar. 28.—Wilbur Forrest, Ralph McGill, and Carl Ackerman, representatives of American Association of Newspaper Editors, arrived in Chungking on world tour.

Mar. 29.—Siangyang in northwestern Hupeh fell.

Apr. 1.—Japanese Government announced incorporation of Korea and Formosa into Japan Proper.

Apr. 3.—Ratification of Sino-Canadian Treaty, signed on April 17, 1944, exchanged in Chungking.

Apr. 4.—Nanyang in southwest Honan captured by Japanese.

Apr. 5.—U.S.S.R. renounced Soviet-Japanese Neutrality Pact.

Apr. 11.—Laohokow in northwestern Hupeh fell.

Apr. 12.—President Roosevelt died.

Laohokow recaptured by Chinese.

Apr. 16.—Chinese regained Siangyang.

Apr. 22.—U. S. Ambassador Patrick Hurley returned to Chungking from America via London and Moscow.

Apr. 25.—United Nations Conference on International Organization held at San Francisco.

May 5.—Kuomintang Sixth National Conference opened in Chungking until May 18.

May 8.—German unconditional surrender officially announced.

May 17.—President Chiang unanimously reelected *Tsungtsai* of Kuomintang.

May 18.—Chinese recaptured Foochow.

May 20.—Hochih in northern Kwangsi recovered.

India-China oil pipeline completed.

May 21.—Chingchengkiang in Kwangsi recaptured by Chinese.

May 27.—Chinese recaptured Nanning.

May 28.—First Plenary Session of Sixth Kuomintang CEC opened in Chungking until May 31.

May 30.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced establishment of diplomatic relations with Argentina.

May 31.—Kuomintang CEC elected T. V. Soong president and Wong Wen-hao, vice president of Executive Yuan.

June 6.—Chinese crossed border from Kwangsi into Indo-China.

June 8.—Chinese recaptured Lungchow in southwestern Kwangsi.

June 11.—For National Government, H. H. Kung conferred Special Grand Cordon of Pao-ting (Precious Tripod)

upon Admirals of the Fleet William Leahy and Ernest King, and General of the Army Douglas MacArthur.

June 14.—Chinese recaptured Ishan in northern Kwangsi.

June 18.—Chinese regained Wenchow in Chekiang.

June 26.—United Nations Charter signed in San Francisco.

June 27.—T. V. Soong left for Moscow. Chinese troops recaptured Liuchow in Kwangsi.

June 30.—T. V. Soong and party arrived in Moscow and received by Marshal Stalin.

July 1.—Six People's Political Councilors left Chungking for Yen-an to consult with Mao Tse-tung.

July 4.—T. V. Soong received by Kallin.

July 7.—First session of Fourth People's Political Council opened in Chungking.

Sino-British agreement concerning jurisdiction of one nation's armed forces in the territory of the other was signed in Chungking.

July 11.—Maj.-Gen. Claire L. Chennault, retired as commander of the 14th U.S.A.A.F. in Kunming.

July 17.—T. V. Soong arrived in Chungking from Moscow with Soviet Ambassador A. A. Petrov.

July 18.—Big Three Conference of President Truman, Prime Minister Churchill, and Generalissimo Stalin, opened at Potsdam, Germany.

July 25.—O. K. Yui appointed governor of Central Bank of China to succeed H. H. Kung.

July 26.—President Chiang, President Truman, and Prime Minister Churchill issued ultimatum to Japan, ordering her to surrender unconditionally or to face prompt and utter destruction.

July 27.—Chinese troops recaptured Kweilin in Kwangsi.

July 30.—Wang Shih-chieh was appointed minister of foreign affairs to succeed T. V. Soong.

Aug. 2.—Big Three Conference at Potsdam ended. A joint communique published simultaneously in Washington, London and Moscow the next day.

Aug. 5.—T. V. Soong and Wang Shih-chieh left Chungking for Moscow to continue Sino-Soviet negotiations.

Aug. 6.—American superfortress dropped first atomic bomb on Hiroshima.

Aug. 7.—T. V. Soong and Wang Shih-chieh arrived in Moscow.

Aug. 8.—U.S.S.R. declared war on Japan as of August 9,

Aug. 9.—Soviet army entered Manchuria.

Second Atomic bomb was dropped on Nagasaki.

Aug. 10.—Radio Tokyo announced that Japan was ready to accept the Potsdam Declaration. Official statement of Japanese Government made through the Swiss Government.

Aug. 14.—Japan accepted Allied demand for unconditional surrender, the Japanese Emperor to rule country subject to authority of Supreme Allied Commander.

Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance signed in Moscow.

Aug. 15.—Legislative Yuan unanimously approved the United Nations Charter.

President Chiang invited Mao Tse-tung to come to Chungking for conference.

Aug. 16.—T. V. Soong arrived in Washington for conference with President Truman.

Aug. 17.—President Chiang sent a second telegram to Mao Tse-tung inviting him to Chungking for conference.

Aug. 20.—Wang Shih-chieh returned from Moscow.

Aug. 21.—Maj.-Gen. Takeo Imai, representing Gen. Okamura, arrived in Chih-kiang to receive surrender conditions from Lieut.-Gen. Hsiao Yi-shu, chief of staff to Gen. Ho Ying-chin.

American Lend-Lease services were terminated.

Aug. 21.—President Chiang sent third telegram to Mao Tse-tung inviting him to Chungking for conference.

Aug. 24.—President Chiang in a statement clarified China's stand in relation to principle of nationalism and world peace.

Legislative Yuan ratified the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

President Chiang signed the United Nations Charter on behalf of China.

Aug. 26.—Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance published.

Aug. 27.—Lieut.-Gen. Leng Hsin, deputy chief of staff to Gen. Ho Ying-chin, arrived in Nanking with 159 officers and men to establish the forward echelon of headquarters of Chinese Ground Forces.

Allied troops began landing in Japan.

Aug. 28.—Chinese gendarmes entered Shanghai.

Mao Tse-tung arrived in Chungking from Yen-an, accompanied by U. S. Ambassador Patrick Hurley.

Aug. 29.—Gen. Chen Yi appointed governor of Taiwan.

Aug. 30.—T. V. Soong arrived in Ottawa, Canada, for discussions with Canadian authorities.

Aug. 31.—Chinese troops entered Indo-China and liberated Laokai.

Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui appointed director of Generalissimo's headquarters in the Northeastern Provinces.

Three Northeastern Provinces were divided into nine provinces.

Sept. 2.—Instrument for Japanese surrender signed on board U.S.S. Missouri by Shigemitsu and Gen. Umetzu. Gen. MacArthur signed for the Allies. Gen. Hsu Yung-chang represented China.

Sept. 5.—First unit of Chinese New Sixth Army arrived in Nanking by air.

Wang Shih-chieh left Chungking for London to attend Foreign Ministers Conference.

Sept. 6.—First unit of Chinese 49th Army arrived in Shanghai by air.

Sept. 9.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin received formal surrender of Japanese in China from Gen. Okamura in Nanking.

Sept. 12.—Chinese took over Shanghai and completed reoccupation of Canton.

Sept. 14.—Premier T. V. Soong concluded series of conversations with President Truman in Washington.

Sept. 17.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin announced all Japanese civilians in China would be deported to Japan.

Sept. 19.—Premier T. V. Soong declared that China would respect French sovereignty in Indo-China.

Sept. 20.—T. F. Tsiang made known China's request for US\$945-million worth of UNRRA relief.

Sept. 25.—Disarmament of Japanese troops in Nanking completed.

Oct. 3.—Gen. Lu Han appointed governor of Yunnan Province to succeed Gen. Lung Yun.

U. S. Marines landed at Tientsin.

Oct. 6.—Maj.-Gen. Keller E. Rockey, commander of U. S. Marines in north China, accepted surrender of Japanese forces in Tientsin area on behalf of Generalissimo Chiang, supreme commander.

Oct. 10.—President Truman greeted people of China on 34th Anniversary of Chinese Republic and pledged American assistance to accomplish "democratic objectives" of Dr. Sun.

U. S. Secretary of State Byrnes announced he had invited powers interested in Far East to send delegates to Washington for meeting scheduled for October 23 to form an Allied Advisory Commission. (Opening meeting postponed until October 30.)

Oct. 11.—A joint Government-Communist declaration announced agreement had been reached after six weeks of negotiations, unsolved problems to be settled by Political Consultation Conference.

Oct. 14.—Chinese forces landed on Hainan island to disarm Japanese.

Oct. 17.—Chungking announced Russian forces had begun leaving Manchuria and complete withdrawal should be effected by end of November.

Oct. 22.—Lieut.-Gen. Albert C. Wedemeyer, U. S. commander in China, reported in Washington that U. S. troops in China would be cut to 6,000 by January 1, but 53,000 marines would help China repatriate some four million Japanese.

Returns of plebiscite in Outer Mongolia indicated overwhelming vote in favor of independence.

Oct. 28.—Fighting between government and communist forces spread to 11 provinces. Government compromise proposal rejected.

Oct. 29.—Chungking reported Chinese Red troops entrenched in Manchuria along rail lines and behind three ports where U. S. warships were scheduled to land national troops.

Oct. 31.—Gen. Yen Hsi-shan, Shansi governor, reported 100,000 communists attacking Tatung. Government's offer not to fire on Reds, if they withdrew from railroads and allowed national troops to pass, rejected by Yenian.

Nov. 1.—Announcement made that in accordance with terms of Chinese-Soviet treaty, Soviet troops would begin withdrawal from Manchuria November 2 and complete the withdrawal by December 1.

Nov. 2.—Chungking reported 20,000 Chinese Communist troops led by Gen. Ho Lung were besieging Kweisui.

Chungking said Chinese Government had requested creation of a five-year U. S. military mission to train and develop China's armed services.

Nov. 3.—Information Minister K. C. Wu announced that a four-point proposal was sent to Yenian.

Nov. 4.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin in Peiping announced government decision to reopen rail lines through communist-held areas. Reds attacked north Hupeh cities.

President Chiang declared support for a free Korea on the eve of President Kim Koo's departure for Seoul.

Nov. 5.—Information Minister Wu branded as "groundless" charges of Yenian radio and communist paper in Chungking that American armed assistance to Government forces was aimed at Reds. Gen. Wedemeyer denied "clashes" between U. S. Marines and communists.

Chinese Government submitted to Allied Headquarters a list of 300 Japanese war criminals headed by Emperor Hirohito and including every Japanese premier and

foreign minister for past 8 years.

Nov. 7.—Gen. Wedemeyer in Peiping and Secretary Byrnes in Washington announced U. S. Marines would be recalled soon.

Nov. 8.—Soviet troops withdrew from Hulutao and Yingkow, leaving Chinese Reds in control of ports, while national forces remained on U. S. ships offshore.

Nov. 10.—Government troops reported in clashes with communists near Shanhaikwan.

Nov. 11.—Chungking disclosed Chinese-Soviet negotiations permitted flying government troops into Manchuria since communists barred land and sea routes.

Nov. 13.—Chungking said Russia agreed to let government fly 1,500 troops a day into Changchun, Manchurian capital, from Peiping, and Soviet forces were withdrawing toward Vladivostok, northern Korea and Port Arthur.

Chungking reported communist troops surrounded airfields evacuated by Russians, making landing of government troops by air transport impossible.

Nov. 16.—Gen. Tu Yu-ming, commander of government forces, reported capture of Shanhaikwan.

Nov. 17.—Communist forces continued to besiege Paotow and Kweisui.

Nov. 18.—Government forces captured Kuimen pass along the Great Wall and pushed on to Chinhien.

Nov. 22.—Government troops captured Lienshan, 10 miles from Hulutao, and lifted two-week communist siege of Paotow.

Nov. 23.—Government troops penetrated 130 miles into Manchuria, half way to Mukden.

Nov. 25.—Government forces captured Chienshien after 30-mile advance.

Nov. 26.—President Chiang declared at the newly formed Supreme Economic Council: "We shall spare no effort to bring internal order and security to the nation." He revealed 1,000,000 Japanese still in China.

Nov. 27.—Maj.-Gen. Patrick J. Hurley resigned as Ambassador to China. Gen. George C. Marshall appointed U. S. President's special envoy to China with ambassadorial rank.

Chungking reported Russians agreed to help government forces take over Manchuria and had ordered Chinese Communists out of Changchun and Mukden.

Nov. 28.—Far Eastern Advisory Commission announced its decision to visit Japan at end of year.

Dec. 1.—Soviet Union postponed withdrawal of troops from Manchuria until January 3.

Dec. 2.—Government troops reached Tahushan, 65 miles southwest of Mukden, in drive into Manchuria.

Dec. 6.—Government forces halted within 25 miles of Mukden, awaiting negotiations with Soviet Marshal Rodion Y. Malinovsky at Changchun.

Dec. 7.—Over 60 percent of Japanese troops in China were disarmed, Gen. Ho Ying-chin, commander-in-chief of Chinese Army, announced.

Dec. 8.—250 officials in the Japanese-sponsored "North China Government" in Peiping were put under arrest.

Dec. 10.—Attack by 120,000 communists on Lincheng on Tientsin-Pukow railway in Shantung for 13 days.

Dec. 11.—President and Mme. Chiang visited Peiping for first time in ten years.

Dec. 12.—Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer reported 943,000 Japanese soldiers disarmed in China Theater.

Dec. 15.—President Truman issued statement on U. S. policy in China, calling for end of civil strife in China and united government under President Chiang.

Dec. 17.—Seven communist delegates arrived in Chungking to resume negotiations with the government.

Dec. 18.—Siege of Paotow and Kweisui lifted after two months of unsuccessful assaults by communists.

President Chiang arrived by plane in Nanking from Peiping.

Dec. 22.—Gen. George C. Marshall, U. S. Special Envoy, arrived in Chungking by plane from Nanking, and was met by Premier T. V. Soong and Chou En-lai, communist representative.

Dec. 23.—President and Mme. Chiang returned to Chungking after recent visit to Peiping and Nanking.

Gen. Marshall conferred with communist leaders.

Dec. 25.—Gen. Tu Yu-ming, commander of government forces in the northeast, began drive to clear Jehol Province of communist troops.

Dec. 27.—Government and communist delegates resumed discussion of cessation of hostilities and convening of Political Consultation Conference.

Big three Foreign Ministers conference announced series of agreements on the establishment of international control of atomic energy; creation of Far Eastern Commission and Allied Council for Japan; ultimate reestablishment of a Free Korea; and withdrawal of Soviet and U. S. troops from China.

Dec. 29.—Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer announced U. S. troops would help government forces move into Manchuria.

Dec. 31.—Government answered communist truce proposal with three-point plan, proposing Gen. Marshall as mediator.

President Chiang offered other political parties, besides Kuomintang, representation in government but decried autonomous armies.

1946

Jan. 1.—Chinese Navy was placed under direction of the Army.

Jan. 2.—Government troops entered Jehol province.

Jan. 3.—Communists accepted government's proposal to make Gen. Marshall mediator in peace negotiations.

Jan. 4.—Communist party agreed in principle with government that hostilities should be stopped simultaneously with restoration of communications.

Jan. 5.—China recognized independence of Outer Mongolian Republic.

Partial peace settlement granting Kazakhs high degree of autonomy was reached between government and Kazakhs of Sinkiang province.

Jan. 7.—Government and communist leaders held first truce meeting with Gen. Marshall acting as mediator.

Jan. 10.—Cease-fire agreement between Government and communist representatives was announced at Political Consultation Conference (P.C.C.). In opening speech, President Chiang announced government's decision on civil liberties, equality of political parties, local self-government and release of political prisoners.

Jan. 11.—Second P.C.C. session was held with Chang Chun and Chou En-lai, government and communist representatives, respectively, reporting on newly concluded truce discussions.

Jan. 14.—Government forces completed occupation of Sinmin, 31 miles northwest of Mukden.

Jan. 15.—Chang Chun announced setting up of three-man military sub-committee, which held its first meeting on reorganization of communist 18th Group Army and its garrison areas.

Jan. 16.—U. S. transports moved 6,000 New 6th Army men into Manchuria.

Jan. 20.—Mme. Chiang arrived in Peiping enroute to northeast on goodwill mission.

Jan. 21.—National Military Council spokesman said hostilities continued on same scale as before the January 10 truce.

Jan. 23.—Gen. Marshall accepted advisory position on military sub-committee for studying unification of government and communist armies.

Chinese delegation to United Nations

Chief-of-Staff Conference, led by Gen. Shang Chen, former head of Chinese Military Mission in U. S., left for London.

Jan. 27.—Democratic League members withdrew from P.C.C. session in protest against police search in home of one of their delegates.

Jan. 28.—Supreme National Defense Council passed resolution to repeal all laws and decrees restricting fundamental freedoms of people.

Jan. 31.—P.C.C. reached complete agreement on government reorganization on the basis of coalition of political parties. Among important resolutions adopted at final session: expansion of State Council, nationalization and reorganization of armies, appointment of special committee to review Draft Constitution.

Feb. 5.—President Chiang disclosed he had not entertained thought of being a presidential candidate under new regime. Government took over administration of the Pescadores.

Feb. 11.—Washington and London published text of secret Yalta agreement, signed February 11, 1945, by Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin.

The Executive Hdqrs. in Peiping, composed of government, communist and U. S. representatives, announced Government-Communist agreements to restore eight disrupted railways in north China.

President Chiang paid first visit to Shanghai in eight years.

Feb. 13.—China and Mongolian People's Republic concluded amity pact.

Three-man Military Subcommittee held first formal meeting.

Feb. 15.—Military Rehabilitation Conference convoked by Chinese Army Hdqrs. opened in Nanking.

Washington disclosed U. S. had asked Chungking and Moscow in identical notes for information on current Chinese-Soviet talks.

Communists in Yen-an demanded joint control of Manchuria and limitation of government troops sent there.

Feb. 17.—Gen. Tu Yu-ming's forces of the 6th and 13th armies captured Liao-chung near Mukden.

Feb. 19.—Quo Tai-chi was appointed Chinese delegate to United Nations Security Council.

Feb. 21.—Chinese students of 14 educational institutions in and around Chungking started strike in protest against Soviet failure to withdraw from Manchuria.

Feb. 22.—Demonstration by 30,000 Chungking students against Russia and Chinese Communists.

Feb. 23.—Seven members of Control

Yuan protested to Foreign Affairs Ministry against Yalta agreement.

Students in Chungking staged another demonstration against Soviet delay in withdrawing troops from Manchuria.

Feb. 24.—President Chiang returned to Chungking from Shanghai by plane after 14-day tour of Shanghai, Nanking and Hangchow.

A manifesto by 110 professors of National Southwest Associated University in Kunming demanded publication of current negotiations between the Chinese and Soviet governments and the fulfillment of provisions of Chinese-Soviet treaty.

Feb. 25.—Agreement reached by Military Sub-committee for army reorganization and nationalization of communist troops signed.

Supreme National Defense Council passed provisional regulations governing foreign exchange transactions.

President Chiang announced government's three principles in negotiations with Soviet Government.

Feb. 26.—Secretary Byrnes denied knowledge of Big Three agreement that authorized Soviet removal of machinery from Manchuria.

Soviet Supreme military command in northeast announced that Soviet forces would complete evacuation before departure of U. S. troops from China, "or, at any rate, not later than that."

Feb. 27.—China and France signed treaty for relinquishment of French extraterritorial and related rights in China, and agreement on relations in Indo-China.

Feb. 28.—Gen. Marshall, Gen. Chang Chih-chung and Chou En-lai of Military Sub-committee arrived in Peiping on inspection tour of north China.

Mar. 1.—Second Plenary Session of Kuomintang 6th Central Executive and Supervisory committee opened in Chungking.

Mar. 4.—Central Bank of China fixed foreign exchange rate at CN\$2,020 to US\$1.

Mar. 5.—U. S. decided to lend China 100 Liberty ships and 100 landing craft to help repatriate Japanese war prisoners and civilians in China.

Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh told Kuomintang meeting China had rejected Soviet claim to all enterprises in Manchuria that had served Japanese Kwantung army.

Mar. 6.—Information Minister K. C. Wu announced abolition of press censorship in recovered areas.

Liu Chieh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, stated that delay in Soviet with-

drawal was due to technical difficulties which Soviet authorities did not specify.

Mar. 7.—One million people in Hunan reported facing starvation, lack of clothing, and proper medical care.

Mar. 8.—Minister of Communications Yu Fei-peng announced government's program to build 20,000 kms. of highways in three stages beginning this year.

Executive Hdqrs. in Peiping ordered communists in Jehol, who violated truce agreements, to withdraw to northwest of Chihfeng within 24 hours.

Mar. 9.—Chungking reported 22 north-bound trains loaded with Soviet troops had left Mukden since March 7.

Mar. 10.—Executive Yuan instructed Chinese Maritime Customs to permit foreign vessels to sail freely into Chinese harbors until March 31, 1947.

Mar. 11.—Soviet authorities officially notified Chinese Government of withdrawal of Red troops from Mukden.

Gen. Marshall left Chungking for U. S. to report to President Truman.

Mar. 12.—Gen. Chang Chih-chung reported to Kuomintang C.E.C. contents of agreement granting self-government to Kazakhs in Sinkiang.

Chinese forces entered Mukden to assume garrison duties following evacuation of Soviet troops.

Food Minister Hsu Kan declared UNRRA deliveries to China not up to schedule and China's food problem critical.

Mar. 13.—Central News Agency reported Chinese Communists set up puppet regimes in Kirin, Heilungkiang and Hokiang provinces, turning northeast into special area.

Chinese troops moved into Mukden, following complete withdrawal of Soviet forces from city.

Mar. 16.—Kuomintang C.E.C. unanimously ratified P.C.C. agreements and adopted important resolutions on military, rehabilitation, relief, communications and political problems.

Mar. 17.—President Chiang obtained Kuomintang CEC ratification of all agreements for reorganization of government and cooperation with communists. At his insistence a resolution condemning negotiations with the U.S.S.R. was defeated.

Mar. 19.—Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer said U. S. should assist China in repatriation of Japanese war prisoners and civilians in Manchuria.

Chinese Communists threatened to break unity agreement, accusing Kuomintang of failing to relinquish control over government.

Mar. 20.—People's Political Council held first meeting since V-J Day; main

item on agenda was national reconstruction.

U. S. Export-Import Bank granted China US\$33-million cotton credit and authorized in principle a slightly larger loan with which to buy ships and machinery.

Mar. 22.—In accordance with government regulations governing foreign exchange, Central Bank of China designated 27 banks in Shanghai to handle foreign exchange transactions.

Mar. 24.—Moscow confirmed announcement that U.S.S.R. would complete withdrawal of Red troops from Manchuria by end of April.

Mar. 26.—Finance Minister O. K. Yui announced national budget of CNC\$2,-524,900,000,000 at People's Political Council.

Mar. 29.—Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer, on behalf of U. S., presented Generalissimo Chiang the Distinguished Service Medal.

Mar. 30.—Government awarded Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer Order of Blue-Sky-White-Sun for meritorious service.

Apr. 1.—President Chiang told P.P.C. that Chinese Communist demands in Manchuria would not be considered until government completed taking-over control from Russians.

Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer announced U. S. Army in China Theater would disband on May 1.

Apr. 2.—Withdrawal of Soviet troops from Harbin, Manchuria, reported in progress.

Apr. 3.—An estimated 15-million Chinese on the verge of starvation.

P.P.C. closed session with five-point resolution on agreements of Political Consultation Conference.

Apr. 7.—Chungking announced schedule of Soviet evacuation of Manchuria.

Government New First Army reported within 70 miles of Changchun.

Two truce-enforcement teams began work of halting Government-Communist conflicts in Manchuria.

Apr. 9.—Chinese Communist paper made violent personal attack on President Chiang.

Apr. 11.—President Truman reported that Gen. Marshall's conferences in Washington had been very successful and that General Marshall would return to China at once.

Chinese Communists were reported concentrated in Harbin and Changchun regions.

U. S. Army personnel in China reduced to 5,000 to serve with American Military Advisory Group.

Apr. 12.—Death of four leading Chinese Communists in Yen-an-bound U. S. Army plane on April 8 was confirmed; casualties included eight other members of Yen-an delegation to Chungking parley and American crew of 4.

Chen Kung-po, No. 2 puppet, was sentenced to death.

Apr. 13.—Government offered to limit number of troops in Manchuria if Chinese Communists would withhold forces, clear Mukden-Peiping rail line and permit government armies to occupy Changchun and Harbin.

Apr. 15.—Communist Gen. Chou En-lai announced "all-out" hostilities in Manchuria.

UNRRA estimated more than 30 million Chinese starving in 19 provinces; urged quick relief.

New First Army clashed with communist forces in Szepingkai in drive toward Changchun.

Apr. 16.—Two hours before Soviet army completed withdrawal from Changchun, Chinese Communists opened heavy attack on Manchurian capital, seizing three airfields.

Apr. 17.—Chinese Communists captured Changchun.

Apr. 18.—Gen. Marshall, accompanied by his wife, arrived in Chungking.

Apr. 22.—Chu Min-yi, puppet foreign minister, was sentenced to death; Mrs. Wang Ching-wei, widow of puppet president, was given life term for treason.

Apr. 24.—French Goodwill Mission arrived in Nanking from Peiping.

Apr. 25.—President Chiang postponed National Assembly when communists refused to nominate candidates for government posts.

Chinese Communists submitted to Gen. Marshall three proposals as conditions for signing truce.

Apr. 26.—Chinese Communist troops took over Harbin as Russians left.

Apr. 27.—Generalissimo Chiang personally took part in truce negotiations for a speedy settlement, conferred with Gen. Marshall.

Apr. 28.—Chinese Reds controlled Tsihsihar after Russian withdrawal.

Apr. 30.—UNRRA began on final 60-day engineering project to close Yellow river gap before July 1 high flood deadline.

Truce negotiations on Manchuria collapsed when President Chiang rejected latest communist demands.

May 1.—Government officially moved back to Nanking.

Herbert Hoover, President Truman's food investigator, arrived in Shanghai.

May 2.—Gen. Marshall urged Chinese Reds to hand over Changchun to government.

May 3.—Government rejected three-point Manchurian peace proposal by Gen. Marshall.

May 5.—Cease-fire team hurried to Hankow where Government-Communist battle flared.

May 6.—Delayed dispatch from Changchun indicated Chinese Reds claimed control over 70 percent of Manchuria, with local regimes established in most provinces.

May 10.—New truce in central China announced, paving way for further efforts to settle Manchurian conflict.

May 11.—Chinese Government-U. S. Army agreement for repatriation of 1,300,000 Japanese settlers from Manchuria signed in Mukden.

May 12.—Government-Communist truce concluded in Shantung.

May 13.—Gen. Ho Ying-chin resigned as chief of staff of armed forces.

May 14.—Col. R. H. Harrison, President Truman's personal representative in China, reported to UNRRA in Shanghai that Hunan situation had reached critical plight.

May 15.—Government changes: Gen. Pai Chung-hsi, assistant chief of staff, named head of new Ministry of National Defense; Chen Cheng, Minister of War, named chief of staff to replace Gen. Ho Ying-chin; Yu Ta-wei named Minister of Communications to succeed Gen. Yu Fei-peng; Peng Hsueh-pei named Minister of Information; K. C. Wu appointed Mayor of Shanghai; Wang Yun-wu named Minister of Economic Affairs to succeed Wong Wen-hao.

May 16.—Government was advised that all Russian forces had withdrawn from Manchuria except for some troops at Port Arthur and Dairen.

May 19.—Government and communist sources reported that fighting in Shantung, Hopei and Jehol was developing gradually into large-scale conflict.

Admiral Charles M. Cooke, Jr., commander of U. S. 7th Fleet, said U. S. was not planning to develop naval bases in China to compete with Soviet-controlled Port Arthur.

May 20.—Headquarters of Lieut.-Gen. Tu Yu-ming, commander of Government forces in Manchuria, announced capture of Szepingkai.

Hunan delegates in National Assembly reported 20-million victims in 54 of 78 famine-stricken cities in Hunan province.

May 21.—Central News Agency reported Government First Army had

pushed to within 35 miles of Changchun.

May 22.—Moscow radio quoted Tass report that seven American-piloted planes had been shot down in Manchuria while bombing Chinese Communists.

Government forces were reported to have captured communist stronghold of Kungchuling and pushed to within 20 miles of Changchun.

May 23.—Government announced recapture of Changchun, held by Chinese Communists since April 18.

President Chiang left Nanking for Mukden.

U. S. Army and Marine Corps denied Moscow report on downing of American piloted planes in Manchuria.

May 26.—Government troops were reported near Harbin.

May 27.—Government and Chinese Communists resumed truce negotiations.

Government planned to complete repatriation of Japanese war prisoners and civilians before end of June.

May 29.—Spokesman declared government still insistent on establishment of Chinese sovereignty throughout Northeast Provinces.

Government troops captured Kirin east of Changchun.

May 30.—Gen. Marshall warned China was on "the verge of an even greater calamity" than World War.

New armed forces commanders appointed: Army, Ku Chu-tung; Navy, Chen Cheng, chief of staff; and Air Force, Chou Chih-jou.

May 31.—Government troops in Manchuria advanced to Sungari river defense line, 76 miles south of Harbin.

June 1.—Gen. Chang Chih-chung, director of President Chiang's headquarters for the northwest, concluded agreement in Sinkiang with representatives of Moslem Turki tribes.

June 2.—Gen. Marshall proposed new plan for stopping civil war in Manchuria through Government-Communist truce.

June 3.—Chen Kung-po, former Nanking puppet president, executed.

June 4.—President Chiang returned to Nanking from the northeast.

Communists claimed recapture of Anshan and Yingkow in Manchuria.

June 5.—President Chiang agreed with Gen. Marshall to halt government offensive for ten days for negotiation with Chinese Communists. Advance section of Sino-American Executive Headquarters in Peiping was ordered to proceed to Changchun to prepare for "carrying out whatever agreements may be reached for the cessation of hostilities" in Manchuria.

June 6.—President Chiang ordered na-

tional troops in Manchuria to halt "all advances, attacks, and pursuits" during 15-day armistic, as substitute for full truce.

June 8.—Chinese minority parties sought to prolong Manchuria truce with communists, which was to end June 22.

Spokesman of Government Field Headquarters charged communist troops violated 15-day truce agreement within three hours after it came into effect.

June 10.—Moscow radio broadcast Tass dispatch from Shanghai charging U. S. naval and marine units had been "authorized to render every possible assistance to Chinese Government troops operating against communist troops in Manchuria."

June 11.—T. F. Tsiang, CNRRA head, announced government appropriation of CN\$432-million, 50 percent of nation's revenue, for CNRRA operation in 1946.

Semi-official report indicated Communist Gen. Chou En-lai demanded communist participation in government as price for peace.

June 12.—Sinkiang provincial government ordered release of more than 300 political prisoners arrested in connection with Ining incident.

June 14.—President Truman told Congress that China had received \$602,045,000 in lend-lease aid from U. S. since V-J Day and that the assistance was to continue.

June 16.—Chinese Communist spokesman announced signing of new truce, an implementation agreement described as a "step toward a permanent cease-fire in Manchuria."

June 17.—Edwin W. Pauley's reparations mission reported Manchurian industry had been crippled by Soviet removal of vital machinery. Soviet government did not "make exactly a gesture of good-will toward China or other Allied nations entitled to reparations from Japan."

June 18.—Executive Yuan promulgated law giving Sinkiang people voice in administration of province under Urumchi agreement.

June 19.—U. S. Acting Secretary of State Dean Acheson declared reorganization of Chinese Army with help of 1,000 U. S. Army-Navy experts proposed by Gen. Marshall would have far-reaching results in rehabilitation of China.

June 21.—President Chiang extended 15-day truce until June 30 to give Government-Communist negotiators more time to settle differences.

June 22.—Mao Tse-tung demanded U. S. to cease all military aid to Chinese

Government and promptly withdraw U. S. forces from China.

June 25.—U. S. State Department indicated U. S. intended to continue policy of military aid to China at least as long as Japanese troops remained there.

June 26.—American representatives on cease-fire teams in Manchuria were given added power under Government-Communist agreement.

V. K. Wellington Koo was appointed Ambassador to U. S.

June 29.—U. S. State Department issued notice that U. S. guns would go to China if and when its Government and communist armies were merged into a single Chinese Army.

June 30.—Government announced that the twice-extended truce in Manchuria was to be prolonged indefinitely.

July 3.—The Supreme National Defense Council voted to convoke the National Assembly on November 12, 1946, to adopt a constitution.

July 9.—UNRRA Director-General La Guardia announced shipments of supplies other than emergency food to China were suspended until UNRRA goods had been cleared out of coastal ports. President Truman nominated Dr. J. Leighton Stuart U. S. Ambassador to China.

July 11.—Government spokesman said CNRRA had standing order to distribute its relief supplies fairly without regard to politics.

July 12.—T. F. Tsiang, CNRRA director, said poor transportation, not politics, handicapped flow of food to China's starving millions.

July 13.—Seven U. S. Marines guarding munition dumps kidnapped near Chinwangtao by Chinese Communists.

U. S. Army headquarters in Shanghai announced repatriation of Japanese completed in China proper.

July 16.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced appointment of Cheng Tien-hsi as Ambassador to Great Britain to succeed V. K. Wellington Koo.

July 20.—Chinese Government asked UNRRA to resume relief shipments to China, blamed UNRRA itself for delays in the distribution of supplies.

July 21.—Government troops launched all-out campaign to break communist grip on north China railroads.

July 23.—Edwin Pauley reported that Soviet removal of key machinery in Manchuria had "incapacitated" more than US\$2-billion worth of industry there.

July 29.—Four U. S. Marines killed and 16 seriously injured when truck convoy was ambushed by Chinese Commun-

ists 25 miles southeast of Peiping. Four more died after arrival in Peiping.

Aug. 2.—Communist spokesman declared Yen-an would appeal for international volunteer army to fight government forces if present hostilities should become all-out civil war.

Aug. 5.—U. S. State Department spokesman said U. S. Government had no intention of withdrawing marines now stationed in China.

Aug. 9.—A new truce until August 26 was announced. The Executive Headquarters ordered communist and government troops in Hupeh, Honan and Shansi provinces to cease fire and withdraw ten miles from their respective positions.

Aug. 10.—Gen. Marshall and Dr. Stuart, new U. S. Ambassador, declared it "appears impossible" for government and communists to reach settlement on different issues.

U. S. Marine Corps Headquarters announced second clash between marines and Chinese Reds had taken place 60 miles northeast of Tientsin.

Aug. 14.—President Chiang, on first anniversary of Japanese surrender, promised to end one-party rule without further delay.

Aug. 15.—Chinese Communists attacked Gen. Marshall, blaming him for failure to cease hostilities in China.

Aug. 16.—Henry Pu Yi, puppet ruler of "Manchukuo," testified in Tokyo trial.

Aug. 18.—Government announced new foreign exchange rate of CNC\$3,350 to US\$1.

Aug. 19.—Yen-an ordered mobilization of all forces for full-scale civil war against Central Government "to shatter Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's offensive."

Aug. 20.—Gen. Chou En-lai, chief communist negotiator, rejected President Chiang's invitation to submit names of communist candidates for participation in a reorganized government.

Aug. 21.—Communists announced establishment of government in Manchuria under provisional administration of 86 elected delegates.

Aug. 23.—Gen. Marshall flew to Kuling to discuss with President Chiang on the creation of an interim State Council to be composed of representatives of all parties.

Aug. 29.—President Chiang approved creation of committee of five, to be headed by U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart, to pave the way for coalition government.

Aug. 31.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, announced conclusion of surplus property negotiations with U. S.

Government which would enable China to get more than US\$800-million worth of U. S. surplus material in China and western Pacific.

Sept. 1.—Chou En-lai denounced surplus property deal between Chinese and U. S. governments and demanded United States to "suspend assistance to the Kuomintang."

Sept. 4.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh disclosed China would ask a 40 per cent share in the total Japanese reparations pool.

Sept. 6.—Government forces launched two-pronged drive toward Harbin, Manchuria's largest industrial center.

Sept. 8.—Chou En-lai denied Chinese Communist party had "any connection with Moscow," declaring Yen-an would not seek any aid from Russia.

Sept. 9.—Chinese Embassy in Washington disclosed Chinese Government had permitted foreign vessels to call at Nanking, Wuhu, Kiukiang and Hankow within a specified period of time.

Sept. 12.—Communists proposed immediate meetings of the Military Subcommittee to work out quick truce to end civil strife.

Sept. 16.—Chou En-lai left Nanking for Shanghai, ending hopes for a negotiated peace through U. S. Ambassador Stuart's proposed five-man committee.

Sept. 15.—Government forces drove deep wedges between Yen-an and Kalgan.

Sept. 17.—Government forces captured Huaiyin, main communist base in northern Kiansu.

Sept. 18.—Government forces entered Tatung, lifting 45-day communist siege.

Sept. 23.—Andrei Gromyko, Soviet delegate to UN Security Council, said that the presence of U. S. Marines in China might lead to international friction.

Sept. 24.—Premier Joseph Stalin asserted that earliest withdrawal of U. S. armed forces in China would be vital to future peace.

Lieu Chieh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, declared in Nanking that American Marines were in China to assist in the repatriation of Japanese nationals and their presence was with the sanction of the Chinese Government.

Sept. 28.—Communist forces under Gen. Lin Piao launched surprise offensive in Manchuria, directing an attack against Nungan, railway town 35 miles north of Changchun.

Sept. 30.—Three powerful Government columns from Hopei, Jehol and Suiyuan converged on Kalgan, principal communist military center in north China.

Chinese Communist party notified the

government of its refusal to attend National Assembly scheduled for Nov. 12.

Oct. 4.—Communist forces attacked Paoting, capital of Hopei province.

Oct. 6.—President Chiang accepted proposal of Gen. Marshall and Ambassador Stuart for a 10-day truce to pave way for resumption of peace talks.

Oct. 8.—Gen. Marshall and Ambassador Stuart declared in a joint statement that Yen-an had refused to agree to a 10-day truce on the Kalgan drive and Gen. Chou En-lai had refused to return from Shanghai to resume peace negotiations.

Oct. 9.—British Trade Mission, headed by Sir Leslie Boyce, arrived in China.

Oct. 10.—President Chiang urged national unity in Double Tenth message to the Chinese people, emphasizing that "basic conditions for national reconstruction are national unification and social stability."

Oct. 11.—Ministry of National Defense announced the capture of Kalgan by Gen. Fu Tso-yi's troops after a year-long communist occupation.

Oct. 12.—Dr. Sun Fo, president of Legislative Yuan, urged resumption of peace parleys and reorganization of government in accordance with PCC resolutions. He requested all parties to submit immediately names of their delegates to the National Assembly.

Chinese Communists appealed to UN for assistance in effecting withdrawal of U. S. troops from China.

Oct. 15.—Gen. Fu Tso-yi, conqueror of Kalgan, was appointed concurrently governor of Chahar province.

Troops from Outer Mongolia were reported to have invaded northern Manchuria and entered Hulun, capital of Hsingan province.

Oct. 16.—President Chiang set forth eight conditions, declaring that should the communists agree to the terms, the government would issue nation-wide ceasefire order.

Third party leaders approved in principle government's latest proposal.

Oct. 18.—Yen-an issued statement through central committee saying communists would reject the government's latest peace offer unless the government agreed to restore military *status quo* of Jan. 13 and observed PCC resolutions.

Oct. 22.—Gen. Chou En-lai and third parties delegates returned to Nanking. Preliminary peace discussions took place.

President and Madame Chiang left for Taiwan to attend first anniversary of restoration of the island to China.

Oct. 26.—Dr. Sun Fo revealed six points of conflict remained to be thrashed out

before peace negotiations could officially begin.

Oct. 29.—President Chiang exhorted third party members to persevere in their peace efforts.

Oct. 30.—President Chiang offered to issue cease-fire order provided the communists would submit list of delegates to National Assembly.

Oct. 31.—Nationwide celebration marked President Chiang's 60th birthday.

Nov. 4.—U. S. and China signed five-year treaty of friendship, commerce and navigation.

Nov. 5.—Government forces lifted Paoing siege.

Nov. 8.—President Chiang instructed government troops throughout country, beginning noon Nov. 11, to cease fire and remain at their respective positions.

Nov. 9.—William Henry Donald, formerly adviser to President Chiang, died in Shanghai.

Nov. 11.—Communist spokesman Wang Ping-nan declared communist delegation would leave Nanking if government convened National Assembly as scheduled on Nov. 12.

Government decided to postpone National Assembly for three days in last minute effort to find basis for peace with communists.

Nov. 15.—National Assembly officially convened. President Chiang declared in inaugural speech end of Kuomintang tutelage.

Nov. 16.—Large communist forces attacked Langfang on Peiping-Tientsin railway.

Nov. 17.—T. V. Soong announced revised provisional foreign trade regulations giving priority to imports.

Nov. 20.—Supreme National Defense Council decided to reorganize Executive Yuan to include 18 ministries and commissions and to increase members of State Council to 40.

Nov. 21.—National Assembly elected 46 members of 55-man presidium from 178 candidates, reserving nine seats for Communist party and Democratic League.

Nov. 27.—President Chiang introduced draft constitution to National Assembly.

Dec. 2.—Dr. Sun Fo, president of Legislative Yuan, declared "the government is ready at all times to resume negotiations with Communists."

Dec. 6.—Yenan demanded dissolution of National Assembly and restoration of military positions to status of Jan. 13 as conditions for resumption of peace talks.

Dec. 9.—Government announced it was considering sending representatives to

Yenan to reopen peace negotiations with communists.

Dec. 13.—Edwin W. Pauley, U. S. reparations representative, in report to President Truman, declared Manchuria's industrial plants had suffered appalling damages totalling US\$858-million.

Dec. 14.—Chou En-lai accused President Chiang of cooperating with Germany and Italy in early days of Sino-Japanese War and U. S. of harboring imperialistic designs of world domination.

Dec. 16.—Steering Committee of National Assembly, at the request of President Chiang, killed all constitutional amendments proposed by various assembly committees, upheld draft constitution drawn in January by all-party Political Consultation Conference.

Dec. 18.—President Truman, in 3,500 word statement of U. S. policy in China, reiterated that civil war threatening world peace must be ended; adding that U. S. would continue to respect China's sovereignty and help Chinese toward recovery of peace and economy.

Dec. 23.—U. S. State Department announced signing of Chinese-American civil aviation agreement under which airlines of one nation would receive reciprocal landing and transit rights in territory of the other.

Dec. 25.—National Assembly, 41 days after opening session, completed new constitution for China. Assembly rushed through third and final reading of the new national charter and approved it by almost unanimous vote.

Dec. 28.—Crash of three airliners caused by heavy fog near Shanghai, killed 77 persons and seriously injured 22 others.

Dec. 30.—More than 6,000 Peiping university students in street demonstration demanding withdrawal of U. S. Marines because of alleged rape of Chinese co-ed by two U. S. marines on Christmas eve.

Dec. 31.—President Chiang broadcast reiterated policy of continuing attempts to settle disputes with communists through political means.

1947

Jan. 1.—In Shanghai 5,000 university students staged demonstration in protest against alleged Peiping rape case.

Jan. 3.—Marching student demonstrators in Nanking protested alleged Peiping rape case. Students presented list of demands to U. S. Ambassador Stuart.

Jan. 4.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, ordered all local governments and schools to halt anti-American student demonstrations.

Jan. 5.—Tung Pi-wu, chief communist delegate, charged that the proposed closing of breaches in Yellow river dike, near Kaifeng, threatened vast stretches of communist-controlled territory.

Jan. 6.—White House announced Gen. George C. Marshall had been summoned to Washington to report on situation in China.

U. S. State Department announced it had officially requested Soviet Union to turn over control of Dairen to China immediately.

Jan. 7.—Gen. Marshall was appointed American Secretary of State.

Jan. 8.—Gen. Marshall left Nanking by plane for U. S.

Jan. 9.—Information Minister Peng Hsueh-pei declared in formal statement government's willingness to discuss with communists concrete plans for cessation of hostilities and government reorganization.

Jan. 16.—Government named Gen. Chang Chih-chung, governor of Sinkiang province, to visit Yen-an in attempt to renew peace negotiations with communists.

Jan. 18.—Yenan reply rejecting government proposal for new parleys was conveyed to Ambassador Stuart by communists in Nanking.

Jan. 21.—Government announced its readiness to resume peace talks with communists on basis of four points: cessation of hostilities with troops remaining at their present positions, army reorganization, reopening of communications and a "just and equitable solution of problem of regional administration."

Jan. 25.—Charging that by signing the Sino-American Commercial Treaty "the government had sold out the territorial sovereignty of the entire country and the right to existence of the Chinese nation," the communists proclaimed November 4, the day of the signing of the treaty, "National Humiliation Day."

Jan. 29.—U. S. State Department announced abandonment of U. S. effort to mediate between Chinese Government and communists. The decision involved ending of U. S. connection with Committee of Three, Executive Headquarters in Peiping, and withdrawal of all U. S. forces from China.

Soviet newspaper *Izvestia* assailed Edwin W. Pauley's report on Soviet looting in Manchuria as "slanderous."

Jan. 30.—Wang Ping-nan, communist spokesman, announced Yen-an's decision to impose its political demands on government by force of arms and continued harassment of communications.

Feb. 1.—Six thousand Communists cut

Peiping-Tientsin railway as they opened new assault 25 miles southeast of Peiping.

Feb. 2.—Government forces recaptured Tancheng, 28 miles south of communist New 4th Army Headquarters at Lini in Shantung.

Feb. 4.—President Chiang made second flight in three days to Chengchow.

Feb. 5.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, announced subsidy plan of granting 100 percent bonus to exporters as means of lending immediate stimulus to China's export trade.

Feb. 6.—U. S. branch of Executive Headquarters formally closed down.

Feb. 11.—President Chiang ordered drastic measures to break black market and halt inflation. Open market exchange rate closed at CNC\$17,500 to one US dollar.

Feb. 15.—Government forces captured Lini, communist New 4th Army Headquarters in Shantung.

Feb. 16.—All private transactions in gold and foreign currency were banned.

Feb. 18.—Government asked permission of UNRRA to sell US\$200,000 worth of agricultural and industrial goods earmarked for China to buy cereals, grains and cotton to be sold without restriction on open market.

Feb. 20.—T. V. Soong and Maj.-Gen. Lowell W. Rooks, Director-General of UNRRA, denied report that China sought permission to sell UNRRA goods on black market.

Feb. 21.—Twenty communists including Gen. Yeh Chien-yin, communist representative at Executive Headquarters, left Peiping for Yen-an.

Feb. 22.—Government received note from U. S., Great Britain and France, declaring agenda of next month's conference of Big Four Foreign Ministers at Moscow would not go beyond questions of German and Austrian peace treaties without China's consent.

Feb. 23.—Communists resumed offensive along Sungari river.

Feb. 28.—Seventy thousand communists drove south from positions above Sungari river to within eight miles of Changchun.

Rioting broke out in Taipeh, capital of Taiwan, following a clash between police enforcing tobacco monopoly and crowd of several hundred people.

Mar. 1.—T. V. Soong, president of Executive Yuan, resigned.

Supreme National Defense Council named President Chiang concurrently president of Executive Yuan.

Government broadened its legislative, supervisory and deliberate branches and

issued mandate appointing 81 third party representatives to Legislative Yuan, Control Yuan and People's Political Council.

U. S. War Department reported two American army officers were seized by communists in Manchuria.

Tsuyee Pei resigned as governor of Central Bank of China and Chang Kiangau was appointed as his successor.

Mar. 4.—President Chiang announced abolition of Supreme Economic Council and creation of National Economic Council under his chairmanship.

Mar. 10.—Rioting broke out anew in Taiwan.

Soviet Foreign Minister Molotov proposed addition of Chinese problem on agenda of Big Four Foreign Ministers Conference.

Mar. 12.—Liu Chieh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, declared "China will not tolerate her internal affairs being discussed by Moscow conference with or without China's participation."

American liaison group in Yen-an returned to Nanking.

Mar. 15.—Yellow river dike breach at Hwayuankow was closed.

Mar. 16.—National demonstrations were held against foreign intervention in Chinese affairs.

Mar. 19.—Government announced capture of Yen-an.

Mar. 22.—Kuomintang CEC convened on March 15, decided to recall and "severely punish" Chen Yi, governor of Taiwan province.

Mar. 24.—Kuomintang CEC decided to abolish Supreme National Defense Council and create vice-presidency after government reorganizations.

Mar. 26.—Organic law of National Government was revised by Legislative Yuan.

Mar. 30.—Legislative Yuan passed election laws.

Apr. 1.—Communists launched new offensive in Honan, aiming at capture of Sinsiang.

U. S. Navy authorities in China announced that 5,000 Marines would be withdrawn from China to Guam.

Gen. Pai Chung-hsi, Minister of National Defense, issued statement on Taiwan suggesting that the Taiwan Chief Administrator's Office be changed into a provincial government.

Apr. 2.—Government forces captured Taian, major communist base on Tsient-sin-Pukow railway.

Apr. 5.—Communists killed five U. S. marines and wounded 16 others in raid on marine ammunition dump near Tangku.

Apr. 7.—Russia charged that U. S. had failed to withdraw its troops from China.

Apr. 8.—Government published rules concerning sale of state-operated businesses to individuals.

Apr. 9.—China supported American-proposed principle of advance drawing of part of available assets in Japan for reparations.

Apr. 10.—Government decided to distribute U. S. surplus ships secured by China among privately-operated shipping companies.

Apr. 14.—Chinese Government announced that it reserved rights on treaty with Germany.

Apr. 16.—Government announced that henceforth all foreign aircraft flying over country must obtain permission from China.

China suggested that consultations be held among U. S., Britain, U.S.S.R. and China on question of Korea.

Apr. 17.—American Embassy in China denied that Major Robert Riggs and Captain John Colling, assistant military attaches captured by communists, were reconnoitering communist military positions in Manchuria.

Heavy fighting raged near Shihchia-chwang, railway town in western Hopei.

Apr. 18.—Government appointed Gen. Chang Chun president of Executive Yuan and named new state councillors. Dr. Sun Fo was chosen vice-president of National Government.

Apr. 19.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced conclusion of new Sino-Philippine treaty of amity.

Gen. Shang Chen was appointed Chinese representative on Allied Council in Japan.

Apr. 21.—52 barges loaded with UNRRA relief goods left Tientsin for communist territory.

Apr. 22.—Wei Tao-ming, former Chinese Ambassador to U. S., was appointed governor of Taiwan province.

Apr. 23.—Newly formed multi-party State Council met for first time and members of new Executive Yuan were announced.

Government announced dispatching of survey party to Dairen and Port Arthur.

Apr. 24.—Communist forces on Shantung peninsula were ferried to Dairen to obstruct government occupation of port.

Apr. 26.—President Truman ordered transfer of unspecified number of surplus ships to China.

Government forces captured Mengyin in Shantung.

Apr. 29.—Twelve Taiwanese were given high position in new provincial administration. Nepalese Goodwill Mission arrived in Shanghai.

Apr. 30.—Taian fell to the communists again.

May 1.—Premier Chang Chun, reporting on administrative policies at Legislative Yuan, reiterated government's willingness to settle internal strife through political means.

Government announced that foreigners traveling in China would no longer need internal visa.

May 2.—U. S. Secretary of State Marshall announced China had agreed to begin talks on settling its outstanding war accounts with U. S.

May 5.—Soviet Ambassador Petrov conveyed Russian reply to Chinese Government's note regarding procedure on taking over Dairen and Port Arthur.

May 6.—Government troops recaptured Taian.

May 7.—Admiral Charles M. Cooke, Commander of U. S. 7th Fleet, announced withdrawal of U. S. Marines in Peiping and Tsientsin areas would be completed before July 1.

May 8.—Finance Minister O. K. Yui announced that issuance of national currency notes up to the end of April totalled about CN\$6,000-billion.

May 9.—Anyang, 70 miles north of Kaifeng in Honan, besieged by communists.

May 10.—Government troops captured Laiwu, southeast of Tsinan.

May 18.—Chen Chi-tien, secretary-general of Young China party, was appointed minister of economic affairs.

May 19.—Mai Ssu Wu Teh, Kuomintang CEC member from Sinkiang, succeeded Gen. Chang Chih-chung as governor of Sinkiang.

May 26.—Third Plenary Session of 4th PPC, convened on May 20, resolved to invite its communist members to attend session.

May 31.—PPC adopted resolution asking government to initiate negotiations with U. S. for loans to be used exclusively for national rehabilitation.

June 3.—Chinese mission arrived in Port Arthur to investigate conditions in Port Arthur and Dairen.

June 5.—Outer Mongolian cavalry battalion, aided by four planes with Soviet insignia, attacked Chinese defense forces at Peitashan, northeast of Kitai in eastern Sinkiang.

June 11.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced China had lodged protest with Soviet and Outer Mongolian governments on invasion of Sinkiang.

June 12.—Communists rejected peace proposals of PPC.

Peitashan was recaptured from Outer Mongolian troops.

U.N. Economic Commission for Asia and Far East met in Shanghai.

CNAC airliner completing first round trip between China and U. S. returned to Shanghai.

June 18.—Communist troops in Szepeing-kai, north of Mukden, used poison gas against government forces.

June 20.—Vice-president Sun Fo declared immediate Anglo-American aid to China would be necessary if Manchuria was to be saved. Communist troops occupied Tsanghsien on Tientsin-Pukow railway.

June 22.—Outer Mongolian troops renewed attacks on Chinese positions at Peitashan in Sinkiang province.

Heavy fighting continued at Szepeing-kai, north of Mukden.

June 25.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued communique on Soviet Union's repeated attempts to block China's entry into Dairen and Port Arthur.

Government forces recaptured Kung-chuling, north of Szepeing-kai.

June 27.—American State Department announced U. S. would sell 130-million rounds of small-arms ammunition to China at one-tenth of original cost.

Outer Mongolia was reported to have replied on June 22 to China's protest regarding Peitashan incident, putting blame on China.

July 1.—Communist siege of Szepeing-kai, strategic railway hub north of Mukden, was lifted.

July 3.—Communist troops were reported to have crossed Yellow river in Shantung from north bank.

July 7.—Gen. Chen Cheng, chief of general staff, placed total strength of communist forces at more than 1,170,000 men including some 100,000 Japanese prisoners of war.

July 8.—The Executive Yuan passed emergency measures to cope with flood in Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Fukien provinces.

July 9.—Outer Mongolian invaders continued attacks on Peitashan, Sinkiang.

July 10.—Chengteh, capital of Jehol, was recaptured.

July 11.—China lodged fresh protests with Outer Mongolia. Russia issued communique through Tass denying China's right to take over Dairen and Port Arthur.

July 12.—President Truman appointed Lieut.-Gen. Albert C. Wedemeyer head of a fact-finding mission to China and Korea.

July 17.—The Ministry of Interior announced China's population in first half of 1947 at 461,006,285.

Gen. Sun Li-jen was appointed deputy-commander of Chinese Ground Forces.

July 18.—Government adopted plans to mobilize material and manpower to suppress the communist rebellion.

July 22.—Wedemeyer mission arrived in Nanking.

July 23.—T. F. Tsiang, former CNRRA director, was appointed acting Chinese delegate to U.N. Security Council.

July 25.—PPC standing committee approved Chinese participation in preliminary Japanese peace conference but proposed China must retain veto power.

July 28.—China turned down Outer Mongolia's bid for U.N. membership.

July 30.—UNRRA announced in Washington suspension of shipments to both government and communist areas in north China.

Aug. 1.—State Council approved sending a trade mission to Japan.

Aug. 7.—President Chiang flew to Yen-nan, former communist capital, to confer on strengthening government's defenses in the northwest.

Aug. 11.—Government forces captured Yencheng and Chuyeh in southwestern Shantung.

Aug. 12.—Government rejected UNRRA request to guarantee safety of personnel engaged in delivering relief supplies to communist-held areas.

Aug. 13.—Premier Chang Chun expressed welcome of foreign investment in China's industrial and manufacturing enterprises.

Aug. 14.—Government forces lifted communist siege of Yulin in northern Shensi.

Aug. 15.—U. S. turned down Soviet proposal that Japanese peace treaty be written by governments of United States, Soviet Union, Great Britain and China only.

Aug. 16.—Open animosity between Moslems loyal to Central Government and local tribes opposed to Chinese authority was reported to have developed in Sinkiang province.

Aug. 17.—Government announced new foreign exchange policy permitting dealings in foreign exchange by importers and exporters at open market rate; foreign exchange at official rate only for essential imports.

Government forces launched new three-pronged attack to clear communist forces from Tsinan-Tsingtao railway.

Aug. 20.—Executive Yuan ordered closing of Soviet-controlled port of Dairen to all foreign shipping.

Aug. 21.—The U. S. State Department protested to USSR over continued Soviet occupation of Dairen and procrastination

in making port available to world shipping.

Aug. 24.—Concluding his study of China situation, Gen. Wedemeyer issued statement stressing need for "drastic far-reaching political and economic reforms" in Chinese Government.

Aug. 28.—Communist forces under Liu Po-cheng, driven from western Shantung province, cut a wide swath through Honan-Anhwei border area to within 150 miles north of Hankow.

Aug. 31.—Gen. Chen Cheng, chief of General Staff, flew to Mukden to take over government command in Manchuria.

Sept. 2.—Premier Chang Chun declared in an interview that China would not alter her domestic or foreign policy as result of Gen. Wedemeyer's mission.

Sept. 4.—National Economic Council adopted plan under which all Chinese nationals holding private assets abroad would be required to register such assets with Central Bank or be subject to a maximum penalty of five years' imprisonment.

Sept. 5.—Executive Yuan announced new program for reduction of government payroll, conservation of food, cloth and gasoline, stricter rationing of newsprint and other measures to promote austerity and increase government efficiency.

Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh disclosed China had recommended retaining of veto power by Big Four in working out Japanese peace settlement.

Sept. 6.—Gen. Hsiung Shih-hui, former director of the Generalissimo's Northeast Headquarters, revealed government capture of Russian arms from Korean units fighting with Chinese Communists.

Sept. 7.—San Min Chu I Youth Corps, organized in 1938, was due for dissolution before end of month. Its 400,000 members would be absorbed into Kuomintang.

Sept. 10.—Government reached agreement with U. S. on main principles governing use of China's share of US\$350-million U. S. relief appropriation for needy foreign countries.

Sept. 13.—T. V. Soong was appointed governor of Kwangtung.

Sept. 14.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs published text of a statement handed to Lieut.-Gen. Wedemeyer on Aug. 16 relating Chinese Government's work and policy before and after the war.

Communist troops were reported roaming on north bank of Yangtze river about fifty miles from Nanking. Government imposed curfew on Nanking suburbs and river traffic.

Sept. 16.—Legislative Yuan ratified air

pact with Britain and peace treaty with Italy.

Sept. 19.—Chang Chun, president of Executive Yuan, started inspection tour of north China.

Sept. 23.—Resident Committee of PPC adopted 15-point recommendation on Japanese peace treaty to be submitted to government for deliberation.

Sept. 24.—Government troops tightened cordon around communist forces on Honan-Hupeh-Anhwei border.

Sept. 26.—State Council postponed general election for one month because of delay in preparations in some localities.

Oct. 1.—Government troops captured Chefoo.

Hollington K. Tong, director of Government Information Office, condemned Democratic League members for taking part in communist activities.

Oct. 3.—Ministry of Justice reported 22,661 treason cases had been tried.

Oct. 4.—President and Madame Chiang arrived in Peiping.

Oct. 5.—Government naval units captured Weihaiwei.

Oct. 7.—Legislative Yuan ratified Chinese-Canadian agreement on a \$6-million (Canadian dollars) loan to China.

Oct. 9.—British Parliamentary Goodwill Mission arrived in Nanking.

Oct. 13.—William C. Bullitt, former U. S. Ambassador to Russia, in article in *Life* magazine, advocated immediate U. S. aid to China.

Oct. 17.—China donated 2-million c.c. of cholera serum to Egypt and Arabia.

Oct. 20.—Premier Chang Chun, addressing PPC Resident Committee, declared the Liuchius should be returned to China; disclosing only 9.2 percent of Manchuria's total territory and 29.9 percent of Manchuria's total population were under government control.

Oct. 22.—Information Director Hollington K. Tong declared government had no intention of reviving press censorship.

President Chiang returned to Nanking after inspection trip to Kiaotung peninsula.

Oct. 27.—Government outlawed Democratic League on charges of complicity with Chinese Communists.

China signed agreement on distribution of US\$30-million post-UNRRA aid.

Yellow River Conservancy Engineering Administration announced that work to rebuild dikes along lower section of the river could not be completed because of communist obstruction.

Oct. 29.—Executive Yuan endorsed Reparations Commission's plan to allot one-fourth of first instalment of Japanese

reparations to civilian enterprises, three-fourths to government organizations.

Nov. 1.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh, referring to China's claims on Japanese reparations, said "China is entitled to a percentage commensurate with the suffering and losses of her people" during the war.

Nov. 5.—Chang Lan, leader of Democratic League, announced dissolution of league.

Government troops cleared north banks of Yangtze river in central China of communists.

Nov. 10.—Fighting became intensified in outer perimeter of Shihchiachwang in Hopei.

Nov. 13.—Program for Chinese-American agricultural cooperation was approved by Executive Yuan.

Nov. 14.—The 15-day communist siege of Yulin in north Shensi was lifted.

Nov. 15.—Legislative Yuan ratified Sino-American agreement providing relief for China.

Nov. 17.—Chinese Government submitted formal proposals to U. S., Britain and Soviet Union for holding preliminary peace conference on Japan.

Nov. 21.—First general election in China was held.

Nov. 26.—U. S. Embassy spokesman in Nanking denied reports that Washington Congressional committee had suggested Tsingtao be granted to U. S. as a naval base.

Dec. 1.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued statement urging mutually satisfactory solution to question of China-Burma boundary demarcation through proper diplomatic channels in accordance with treaty provisions and international law.

Yin Ju-ken, once head of a puppet "state" east of Peiping, was executed in Nanking.

Dec. 2.—Executive Yuan approved immediate establishment of control offices in Shanghai, Tientsin, Canton and Hankow to prevent banks and business organizations from engaging in speculation and other illegal operations.

Dec. 3.—All government forces in five northern provinces of Shansi, Hopei, Jehol, Suiyuan and Chahar were placed under unified command of Gen. Fu Tso-yi.

Dec. 5.—Preliminary agreement was reached between Chinese Government and liaison representative of United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, regarding half of US\$3,500,000 allocated to China for buying cotton and dyes in U. S.

Dec. 7.—George Yeh, vice-minister of foreign affairs, reiterated China's stand in note to Russia on Dec. 5 concerning composition and voting procedure of preliminary Japanese peace conference.

Dec. 8.—China and U. S. reached agreement regarding transfer of U. S. vessels to China and training of Chinese naval personnel.

Dec. 10.—Communist attempts to set up new base in Tapihshan area were frustrated by government forces in central China.

Dec. 16.—Wong Wen-hao, chairman of National Resources Commission, reported YVA plan was temporarily suspended, not abandoned, because of financial difficulties.

Dec. 22.—Government recalled Gen. Feng Yu-hsiang, who was sent to U. S. to study water conservancy in 1946.

Dec. 25.—National Assembly was postponed owing to delay of some local electoral offices in filing election returns and failure of others to hold election as scheduled.

Government promulgated procedural rules for concluding Kuomintang political tutelage in mandate.

Dec. 26.—Government announced decision to hold National Assembly on March 29 for election of China's new President and Vice-President.

China exchanged notes with U. S., Britain, France, Belgium and the Netherlands, officially abolishing legation quarters in Peiping.

Dec. 29.—Executive Yuan, in 16-point new ruling, restricted all bank loans and remittances, banned black market operations by all banking organizations and forbade acceptance by banks of gold and foreign currencies as securities or deposits.

Government garrison at Mukden fought with communists who had infiltrated into city's western suburbs.

1948

Jan. 3.—Finance Minister O. K. Yui reported to PPC Resident Committee that China's national budget amounted to CNC\$9,300-billion.

Jan. 6.—U. S. challenged USSR in Allied Control Council for Japan in Tokyo on whether Japanese army equipment captured in Manchuria by the Soviet Union had been turned over to Chinese Communists.

Jan. 7.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman announced sending a Chinese technical mission to U. S. for consultation on China-aid program.

Jan. 8.—Feng Yu-hsiang was expelled from Kuomintang.

Jan. 12.—State Council made Peiping China's third auxiliary capital, the other two being Sian and Chungking.

Jan. 13.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh, lodged strong verbal protest to British Ambassador Sir Ralph Stevenson in Nanking against use of armed police force by Hongkong government in evicting Chinese residents in Kowloon city.

Jan. 14.—Tsuyee Pei, former governor of Central Bank of China, left Shanghai as head of Chinese technical mission for Washington to discuss China-aid program.

Jan. 17.—Anti-British demonstrations broke out in Canton and Shanghai.

Jan. 19.—New unified command was created in northeast under Gen. Wei Li-huang.

Jan. 21.—General election of members of Legislative Yuan, China's highest law-making body, was started.

China formally asked British to compensate Chinese residents evicted from Kowloon city.

Jan. 26.—Communist forces renewed attacks in Manchuria after two-week lull and captured Sinlitun, rail junction west of Mukden.

Jan. 28.—Premier Chang Chun announced ten-point government program of "self-help," calling for financial and economic reform measures "to secure the maximum benefit from external aid."

Jan. 29.—Shanghai students, angered by arrests of demonstrators against British eviction of residents in Kowloon, clashed with police.

Feb. 3.—British consulate in Mukden was closed. Six members of the closed American consulate left Mukden for Peiping.

Feb. 7.—Liaoyang, south of Mukden, fell to communists after five days of fighting.

Feb. 9.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh, in report to State Council on Sino-British negotiations concerning Kowloon incident, reiterated China's determination to assert her sovereignty over Kowloon city.

Feb. 16.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced that China and Australia had agreed to raise status of their respective diplomatic missions from legation to embassy.

Feb. 18.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman said China would not recognize any government setup in Korea not in accordance with UN decision or Moscow agreement.

President Truman sent message to Congress requesting US\$570-million for aid

to China until June 30, 1949, of which US\$510-million would be utilized for food and relief and US\$60-million for reconstruction.

Feb. 19.—U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart in Nanking issued "personal message to the people of China" saying that U. S. aid alone would not be enough to bring political stability and economic recovery to China.

Feb. 20.—Soviet Union announced it considered Russo-Chinese Non-Aggression Pact of 1937 automatically extended to 1950 since period for notice of abrogation had passed.

Feb. 21.—U.P. report quoted Ambassador Stuart as saying that best possible solution of China's internal problems would be resumption of Government-Communist peace talks.

Communists captured Anshan, south of Mukden.

Feb. 22.—Ambassador Stuart, in interview with *Central News*, denied earlier statement to *United Press*.

Feb. 27.—Communist forces besieged Yingkow.

China and Italy concluded treaty of amity, replacing all pre-war treaties between the two countries.

Feb. 28.—Government forces withdrew from Kaiyuan, northwest of Mukden.

Feb. 29.—President Chiang assured Manchurian leaders of government's decision to hold northwest.

Mar. 1.—Vice-President Sun Fo, at press conference in Taiwan, charged a U. S. information official with spreading reports of dissension among people of Taiwan against China.

Mar. 3.—Treason charge was filed in Hopei High Court in Peiping against Henry Pu-yi, puppet emperor of "Manchukuo," now in Russian custody.

Mar. 4.—Government reinforcements striking north from Great Wall reached point 30 miles west of Mukden to effect opening of western Liaoning corridor.

Mar. 7.—Government forces breached siege of Szepingkai, between Chungchun and Mukden; communists claimed to have defeated government army in major battle at Ichuan, southeast of Yen-an in Shensi province.

Mar. 10.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs lodged protest with Soviet Embassy in Nanking concerning shooting of air transport plane by two fighter planes bearing Soviet insignia over Gulf of Chili, about 120 miles north of Tientsin, on March 8.

Mar. 11.—Communist troops broke into Loyang.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman

announced China's reply to Outer Mongolian Government's protest of "invasion" of latter's territory by Chinese troops.

Mar. 15.—Government admitted loss of Kirin and Szepingkai in Manchuria.

Mar. 18.—Government forces recaptured Loyang.

Mar. 24.—Fuhsin and Tzechuan in Manchuria fell to communists.

Mar. 25.—Sun Fo announced his candidacy for vice-president under the new constitution.

Mar. 27.—President Chiang asked 300 Kuomintang members, who were elected to National Assembly as independents last November, to give up seats promised to minority parties.

Mar. 29.—China's First National Assembly convened with 1,629 representatives attending opening session. In opening speech President Chiang called it "epoch-making event in the history of China."

Mar. 31.—Ministry of National Defense spokesman announced decision to abandon Lungkow, Penglai and Weihaiwei in eastern Shantung.

Apr. 4.—Speaking before Kuomintang CEC Standing Committee, President Chiang declared he did not choose to run for presidency under constitution and would rather devote himself to unfinished task of suppressing Communist rebellion.

Apr. 7.—Government military spokesman confirmed fall of Loyang, Honan.

Apr. 9.—President Chiang in state-of-the-nation report to National Assembly admitted destruction of government's divisions in north China.

Apr. 14.—Reviewing China's foreign relations before National Assembly, Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh accused U.S.S.R. of having violated 1945 agreements.

Apr. 15.—1,200 National Assembly delegates jointly proposed emergency powers for President during present crisis.

Apr. 16.—President Chiang was nominated candidate for presidency by more than 2,000 delegates despite his earlier declaration that he would not seek the nation's highest post.

Apr. 18.—The National Assembly approved by two-thirds majority vote four temporary provisions in constitution, granting emergency powers to President during the period of communist suppression campaign.

Apr. 19.—Chiang Kai-shek was elected China's first President under new constitution by a vote of 2,430 out of 2,704 in the National Assembly.

Apr. 21.—The National Assembly passed resolution asking U.S.S.R. to abide by

1945 Sino-Soviet treaty and return immediately to China all machinery and materials removed from Manchuria.

Apr. 22.—Yenan fell to communists.

Apr. 24.—Gen. Li Tsung-jen led five other vice-presidential candidates in first ballot in election of China's vice-president.

Apr. 27.—Weihsien in Shantung fell to communists.

Apr. 28.—Executive Yuan approved program submitted by provincial governments to terminate landlordism before 1949 in Kwangsi and Kansu.

Apr. 29.—Gen. Li Tsung-jen was elected vice-president of China on fourth ballot.

Government forces assisted by planes trapped some 50,000 communists around Hsienyang, west of Sian, they also captured Fengsiang and Paoki.

May 1.—President Chiang, officiating at the closing ceremony of National Assembly, called it "the greatest achievement of the Chinese people since the founding of the nation."

May 5.—Premier Chang Chun and his cabinet resigned en bloc to give President Chiang a clean slate to reorganize executive branch of government.

May 8.—New Legislative Yuan session opened with two minority parties boycotting the meeting.

May 13.—Gen. Ku Chu-tung was appointed Chief of General Staff to succeed Gen. Chen Cheng.

May 14.—Gen. Hu Tsung-nan, government commander-in-chief in northwest, announced conclusion of 22-day battle on Shensi-Kansu border which resulted in a major defeat for the communists.

May 17.—Sun Fo and Chen Li-fu were elected president and vice-president, respectively, of Legislative Yuan.

May 20.—President Chiang Kai-shek and Vice-President Li Tsung-jen were inaugurated.

May 24.—Legislative Yuan approved appointment of Wong Wen-hao as premier of new constitutional government.

May 25.—New premier pledged to carry out radical and thorough reforms.

May 31.—President Chiang approved cabinet list submitted by Premier Wong Wen-hao.

Government created Central China Communist Suppression Headquarters with Gen. Pai Chung-hsi as supreme commander.

June 3.—Francis Cardinal Spellman of New York arrived in Nanking for a two-day visit.

June 4.—U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart warned in statement that Chinese student agitation against U. S. policy in

Japan "is seriously damaging the traditional cordiality between the United States and China."

June 5.—Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh declared that China was demanding safeguards against resurgence of Japanese militarism, although China supported the Potsdam Declaration and took cognizance of the necessity of enabling Japan gradually to become self-supporting.

New Control Yuan session convened in Nanking.

June 7.—Roger D. Lapham, chief of China Mission of U. S. Economic Cooperation Administration, arrived in Shanghai.

June 11.—Premier Wong Wen-hao presented administrative program to the Legislative Yuan.

June 22.—President Chiang inspected Honan battle fronts as communists intensified attack on Kaifeng.

June 24.—Wang Chung-hui, elder statesman and world-famous jurist, and Chang Po-lin, noted educator, were appointed presidents of Judicial Yuan and Examination Yuan, respectively.

June 25.—Government troops recaptured Kaifeng, which fell to the communists two days ago.

June 30.—Premier Wong Wen-hao submitted budgetary bill to Legislative Yuan setting the figure of expenditure at one quadrillion Chinese dollars for second half of 1948.

July 3.—Economic Aid agreement between China and U. S. was signed in Nanking.

July 5.—Refugee students from north-east and police clashed in Peiping, resulting in over 20 casualties.

July 6.—Ministry of Industry and Commerce inaugurated.

July 14.—Twelve Grand Justices as nominated by the President were approved by the Control Yuan.

July 22.—President Chiang Kai-shek flew to Taiyuan to direct operations there.

July 23.—Budget submitted by Executive Yuan was approved by the Legislative Yuan with modifications.

July 28.—Premier Wong Wen-hao issued message to the nation, pointing out that Chinese Communists were one branch of international communism and appealing for solidarity to cope with the national crisis.

Aug. 5.—Sino-American agreement for the establishment of a Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction was signed in Nanking.

Government troops recovered Siang-yang, northwestern Hupeh.

Aug. 9.—President and Madame Chiang Kai-shek left Nanking for Kuling.

Aug. 11.—Sino-Italian barter agreement was signed.

Aug. 12.—Foreign Minister Wang Shihsieh announced recognition of the new Korean Government. Liu Yu-wan was appointed Chinese representative to Korea with ambassadorial rank.

Aug. 18.—President Chiang returned to Nanking.

Aug. 19.—By a Presidential mandate, the government adopted a new currency, the Gold Yuan, with the value of one Gold Yuan to three million units of *fapi* (legal tender). Measures for price control, control of gold and foreign exchange, and increase of the salary of government employees were also announced.

Aug. 20.—Economic control supervisory commissioners were appointed for Shanghai, Tientsin and Canton areas.

Aug. 21.—Ex-Premier Chang Chun left for Japan on an inspection tour.

Aug. 23.—Gold Yuan notes were put into circulation.

Aug. 25.—Hsia Wei and Chang Chen were appointed governors of Anhwei and Honan, respectively.

Sept. 1.—Ting Chih-pan was appointed governor of Kiangsu.

Sept. 2.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced the Chinese Government had informed the Soviet Government that China was not prepared to extend the Sino-Soviet Aviation Pact.

Sept. 5.—*Central News* reported from Moscow that Feng Yu-hsiang was killed in a fire on Soviet ship en route to Soviet Union.

Sept. 9.—Committee for the Supervision of Constitutional Government was formed.

Sept. 10.—Chang Chun met General MacArthur in Tokyo for the fourth time since his arrival in Japan. He returned to Shanghai on Sept. 13.

Sept. 13.—Li Liang-yung was appointed governor of Fukien.

Sept. 15.—President Chiang Kai-shek, in a radio broadcast, launched a nationwide austerity movement.

Sept. 26.—Government troops abandoned Tsinan, capital of Shantung.

Sept. 30.—President Chiang flew to Peiping on an inspection tour.

Oct. 2.—President Chiang flew to Mukden, and returned to Peiping the following day.

Oct. 5.—President Chiang arrived in Tientsin, and inspected the Pohai ports on board a warship.

Oct. 8.—President Chiang arrived in Shanghai from Peiping and returned to Nanking the following day.

Oct. 16.—President Chiang arrived in Peiping again after a flying visit to Mukden.

Oct. 18.—President Chiang flew to Mukden again and returned to Peiping after holding a military conference at the airfield.

Oct. 23.—Changchun fell. Paotow, railway city in Suiyuan, and Chengchow, railway junction in Honan, evacuated by government troops.

Oct. 27.—President Chiang paid flying visit to Chengteh, capital of Jehol.

Oct. 30.—President Chiang returned to Nanking.

Oct. 31.—President Chiang told U. S. correspondents that "if China's northeast could not be kept intact, Far Eastern peace would be impossible."

Nov. 2.—Evacuation of Mukden announced.

Nov. 4.—Government forces evacuated Yingkow.

Nov. 9.—Battle of Hsuechow began.

Nov. 10.—Hsu Kan was appointed Finance Minister to succeed Wang Yunwu, who resigned.

Nov. 13.—Chen Pu-lei died.

Nov. 22.—Madame Chiang Kai-shek, in a radio broadcast, appealed to the U. S. for aid.

Nov. 23.—Paoting evacuated.

Nov. 25.—Ambassador Wellington Koo called on President Truman, appealing for U. S. aid.

Nov. 26.—The Legislative Yuan approved President Chiang's nomination of Sun Fo as president of the Executive Yuan to succeed Wong Wen-hao, who resigned.

Chang Chun was appointed secretary-general of the Kuomintang Central Political Council.

Nov. 28.—Madame Chiang Kai-shek left Shanghai for the United States.

Chinwangtao evacuated.

Dec. 1.—Madame Chiang arrived in Washington, D. C.

Dec. 3.—Government troops evacuated Hsuechow.

Dec. 10.—Madame Chiang met President Truman.

Dec. 23.—New Cabinet under Sun Fo inaugurated.

Dec. 24.—Tung Kwan-hsien and Liu Chien-chun elected president and vice-president, respectively, of the Legislative Yuan to succeed Sun Fo and Chen Li-fu, who became premier and minister without portfolio, respectively.

Dec. 25.—Government troops evacuated Kalgan.

Dec. 29.—Gen. Chen Cheng appointed governor of Taiwan.

Dec. 30.—Pao Erh Han (Burhan) appointed governor of Sinkiang.

1949

Jan. 1.—President Chiang expressed his wish for a peaceful settlement of the Government-Communist dispute. If the communists were sincere and a peaceful settlement could be realized, he said, he was not concerned about his own personal position.

Premier Sun Fo, in a radio broadcast, expressed his willingness to strive for a peaceful settlement of the civil war.

Jan. 8.—Deputy Premier and Foreign Minister Wu Te-chen received ambassadors of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union, handing them identical copies of a memorandum to inquire their respective government's attitude toward the question of peaceful settlement of China's civil strife.

Jan. 13.—Chairmen of provincial and municipal councils in north China appealed for cease fire in the Peiping-Tientsin area.

Jan. 14.—Chinese communist party made an eight-point proposal for peace negotiations.

Tientsin fell into communist hands.

Jan. 17.—Delegation left Peiping for communist areas to negotiate local peace for Peiping.

Jan. 18.—Generals Chang Chun, Chu Shao-liang, and Yu Han-mou were appointed pacification commissioners for Chungking, Fukien, and Canton, respectively. Tan En-po and Chen Cheng were made commanders-in-chief for the Nanking-Shanghai-Hangchow area and Taiwan, respectively.

Jan. 19.—Executive Yuan proposed to the communists that both sides to cease fire first and then appoint delegates for peace negotiations.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs informed the various diplomatic missions in Nanking to prepare to move to Canton.

Gen. Chu Shao-liang and Fan Tien were appointed governors of Fukien and Kiangsi, respectively.

Jan. 20.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced that China had received replies from the governments of the United States, Great Britain, France and the Soviet Union to the effect that it was difficult to mediate in the Government-Communist dispute.

S. Y. Liu was appointed governor of the Central Bank of China.

Jan. 21.—President Chiang Kai-shek announced his retirement from the presidency and left for Hangchow. Vice Presi-

dent Li Tsung-jen was to exercise presidential powers.

The Executive Yuan received a reply from the communists insisting peace negotiations to be held first before a cease fire order was issued.

Jan. 22.—The Executive Yuan announced the appointment of Shao Li-tze, Chang Chih-chung, and three others as peace negotiators with the communists.

Local truce for the Peiping area was announced.

General Hsueh Yueh was appointed governor of Kwangtung to succeed T. V. Soong.

Jan. 24.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen ordered the abolition of martial law throughout the country, release of political prisoners, and the end of secret police activities.

Kuomintang Central Political Council decided to continue to evacuate government organizations from Nanking.

Jan. 25.—The Ministry of Foreign Affairs notified foreign diplomatic missions in Nanking to move to Canton.

Jan. 27.—Acting President Li telegraphed Mao Tse-tung, informing Mao that the communist eight-point proposal might be used as a basis for peace negotiation and requesting him to appoint delegates for negotiation.

Jan. 28.—Communist radio demanded the arrest of "war criminals" in the government and the arrest of Okamura, Japanese ex-commander-in-chief in China.

Okamura was sent back to Japan.

Feb. 2.—Sun Fo arrived in Canton.

Feb. 5.—The Executive Yuan started functioning in Canton.

Feb. 9.—Chang Fa-kwei was appointed commander-in-chief of Chinese Army.

Feb. 12.—Tai Chuan-hsien, ex-president of the Examination Yuan, died in Canton.

Feb. 16.—Chou Yen was appointed governor of Kiangsu. Chu Ting-ching was appointed governor of Hupeh.

Feb. 23.—Chen Chi-tang was appointed governor of Hainan island.

Feb. 28.—Premier Sun Fo returned to Nanking.

Mar. 8.—Premier Sun Fo resigned.

Mar. 12.—The Legislative Yuan approved the nomination of Gen. Ho Ying-chin as Premier.

Mar. 15.—The Legislative Yuan adopted a resolution to simplify the government machinery. The Executive Yuan was to have eight ministries and two commissions.

Mar. 17.—The Ministry of National Defense confirmed that the cruiser *Chung-king* had defected to the communist side.

Mar. 20.—Naval Headquarters an-

nounced the bombing of the *Chungking* by Chinese air force.

Mar. 24.—Government peace delegation was reorganized; the five delegates were Shao Li-tze, Chang Chih-chung, Huang Shao-hsiung, Chang Shih-chao, and Li Chen.

Mar. 25.—The Chinese Communist party headquarters was moved to Peiping.

Mar. 26.—Communists announced that peace negotiations would be started in Peiping on April 1. Communist representatives were Chou En-lai, Lin Po-chu, Lin Piao, Yeh Chien-ying and Li Wei-han.

Fighting continued in Anhwei province.

Mar. 31.—Communists proposed all peace negotiations should be held in closed meetings, no news reporting was allowed.

Apr. 1.—Government peace delegation flew to Peiping.

Fu Tso-yi sent circular telegram to entire nation to express his political stand and to admit his past mistakes.

Apr. 6.—Premier Ho Ying-chin arrived in Canton, returned to Nanking on April 8.

Apr. 14.—Hu Lin, general manager of *Ta Kung Pao*, died in Shanghai.

Apr. 16.—Fighting around Taiyuan was resumed.

Apr. 17.—Communists demanded government acceptance of their eight-point proposal by April 20.

Apr. 19.—Government rejected communist demand.

Apr. 20.—British sloop *Amethyst* was fired on by communist artillery on the north shore of the Yangtze river.

Apr. 21.—Communists resumed all-out offensive, and crossed the Yangtze river at Tikang, southwest of Nanking.

Apr. 22.—Government issued order to continue resistance.

Premier Ho Ying-chin was appointed concurrently Minister of National Defense in charge of the direction of all operations.

Apr. 23.—Government forces evacuated Nanking.

Communists occupied Kiangyin, important fort on the Yangtze west of Shanghai.

Premier Ho arrived in Shanghai.

Acting President Li Tsung-jen flew to Kweilin.

Apr. 24.—Communist troops entered Nanking.

Communist troops entered Taiyuan.

Apr. 27.—President Chiang Kai-shek arrived in Shanghai, issued statement reiterating his determination to suppress the communist rebellion.

Government recalled peace delegation from Peiping.

Government troops evacuated Soochow.

Apr. 28.—Government troops evacuated Ishing, Changhsing and Wushing.

President Chiang left Shanghai for Amoy.

Apr. 29.—The Executive Yuan announced all government departments had been moved to Canton.

Apr. 30.—Hangchow was evacuated.

May 4.—Chinese Communists concluded mutual aid pacts with Korean and Burmese Communists.

May 9.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived in Canton from Kweilin.

May 12.—Ministry of Foreign Affairs spokesman stated in Canton that China's foreign policy remained unchanged.

Warships *Tai Hu* and *Tai Chao*, presented to China by the United States, arrived in Taiwan.

May 13.—Legislative Yuan adopted resolution to support the government to continue the war against the communists.

May 15.—Government troops evacuated Hankow and Wuchang.

May 19.—Ma Pu-fang was appointed director of military and political affairs for the northwest.

May 20.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen issued message to entire nation, expressing his determination to lead the nation in the anti-communist war.

Government forces evacuated Sian.

May 21.—Kan Chieh-hou, acting President Li Tsung-jen's personal representative, arrived in San Francisco.

May 27.—Government forces evacuated Shanghai and Woosung.

May 28.—*Shun Pao* and *Sin Wan Pao*, largest daily newspapers in Shanghai, were closed by the communists.

May 30.—Premier Ho Ying-chin resigned. Acting President Li Tsung-jen nominated Chu Cheng as successor.

May 31.—The Legislative Yuan disapproved the nomination of Chu Cheng as premier.

Soviet Ambassador Roschin left Canton for Russia via Paris.

June 1.—Sino-Soviet aviation pact was extended for five years.

June 2.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen nominated Yen Hsi-shan as premier to succeed Gen. Ho Ying-chin.

June 3.—Legislative Yuan approved the nomination of Yen Hsi-shan as premier.

June 4.—Premier Yen Hsi-shan announced that his new cabinet would be a war cabinet.

Government forces evacuated Tsingtao.

June 5.—Premier Yen arrived in Canton from Taipeh.

June 8.—Martial law was declared in Hunan, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung and Kwangsi.

June 12.—George K. C. Yeh was appointed acting foreign minister, pending the return of Hu Shih from the United States. Hu Shih had been appointed foreign minister in Premier Yen Hsi-shan's new cabinet.

June 15.—Taiwan adopted a new currency. The new *Taipei* (New Taiwan Dollar) was linked with the United States currency at the rate of 5 to 1.

The *Shanghai Evening Post and Mercury*, American-owned English-language paper in Shanghai, closed down.

June 20.—The Executive Yuan announced closure of communist-held sea ports, including Shanghai, Tientsin and Tsingtao, as of June 26.

June 22.—Kan Chieh-hou, Acting President Li's personal envoy, called on President Truman.

June 24.—Finance Minister Hsu Kan was appointed concurrently governor of the Central Bank of China.

July 2.—By a Presidential mandate, China adopted a new currency—the Silver Dollar Notes.

July 4.—President Chiang Kai-shek received two U. S. correspondents in Taipei, asserting that as a revolutionary he was determined to fight the communists to the end. He appealed for American aid and pointed out that Chinese Communists were carrying out the policies of international communism.

July 8.—American vice consul Oliver in Shanghai was arrested by the communists, released the following day.

July 10.—President Chiang, in his capacity of *Tsungsai* of the Kuomintang, flew to Baguio to meet President Quirino of the Philippines. The two presidents discussed the formation of a Pacific Union and a Far Eastern anti-communist alliance.

July 12.—President Chiang returned to Taiwan.

July 13.—Chinese legation in the Philippines was raised to the status of embassy. Shih Chueh was appointed garrison commander of the Chusan archipelago.

July 14.—President Chiang arrived in Canton.

July 16.—The Kuomintang Supreme Council was inaugurated under the presidency of Chiang Kai-shek.

July 18.—The standing committee of the Kuomintang adopted President Chiang's program for party reform.

Gen. Chen Cheng was appointed director of military and political affairs for the southeast.

July 21.—President Chiang left Canton for Amoy.

Government forces evacuated Nanchang.

July 22.—President Chiang arrived in Amoy.

Communists closed down the U. S. Information Service Tientsin office.

July 23.—*Coup d'etat* was reported in Lhasa. Government personnel was ordered to leave Tibet.

July 24.—President Chiang returned to Taipei.

July 25.—American-owned Chase Bank in Tientsin was closed down.

July 26.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen left Canton on an inspection tour of the southeast.

July 27.—Acting President Li arrived in Taipei.

Government forces evacuated Chuchow, railway junction in central Hunan.

Ma Hung-kwei was appointed governor of Kansu.

July 30.—Acting President Li returned to Canton.

Government forces evacuated Changteh, northwestern Hunan.

July 31.—British sloop *Amethyst* escaped from the Yangtze river.

Russia concluded trade agreement with the so-called "Manchurian People's Democratic Authorities."

Aug. 1.—The *Tsungsai's* Office of the Kuomintang was established in Taipei.

Aug. 2.—U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart arrived in Okinawa from Shanghai.

Aug. 3.—President Chiang Kai-shek left Taipei for Korea to meet President Syngman Rhee. He stopped at Tanghai for three days.

Aug. 4.—Government ordered arrest of Cheng Chien, pacification commissioner for Hunan and Kiangsi, who defected to the communist side.

Aug. 5.—The United States Government issued a White Paper, called "United States Relations with China."

Hunan Governor Chen Ming-jen defected to the Reds.

Huang Chieh, vice minister of national defense, was appointed governor of Hunan.

Aug. 6.—President Chiang arrived in Chinhaï, South Korea, to confer with Korean President Rhee on the formation of a Pacific alliance.

China protested to Russia against the latter's conclusion of a trade agreement with the so-called "Manchurian People's Democratic Authorities."

Aug. 7.—President Chiang returned to Taipei.

Aug. 10.—Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart arrived in Washington.

Aug. 12.—Wu Te-chen, minister without portfolio, arrived in Tokyo to call on Gen. MacArthur.

Aug. 16.—Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued statement on the United States White Paper.

Aug. 17.—Government forces evacuated Foochow.

Aug. 20.—Wu Te-chen returned to Taipeh.

Aug. 23.—President Chiang Kai-shek flew to Canton to confer with Acting President Li Tsung-jen and Premier Yen Hsi-shan.

Aug. 24.—President Chiang flew to Chungking.

Government announced closure of sea ports north of the estuary of the Min river.

Aug. 25.—Kwan Lin-chen was appointed commander-in-chief of the Chinese Army.

Aug. 27.—Government forces evacuated Lanchow.

Aug. 29.—Communists announced formation of the "Northeast People's Government."

Sept. 2.—Government ordered the arrest of Mao Tse-tung, Chu Teh and other communist leaders.

Sept. 4.—*Coup d'etat* was reported to be taking place in Kunming, capital of Yunnan province. Governor Lu Han was reported to have declared independence.

Sept. 6.—Governor Lu Han of Yunnan flew to Chungking to call on President Chiang Kai-shek.

Sept. 7.—Premier Yen Hsi-shan flew to Chungking.

Sept. 8.—Lu Han, governor of Yunnan, returned to Kunming.

Sept. 9.—Premier Yen Hsi-shan returned to Canton.

Sept. 10.—Government announced the dissolution of the Yunnan Provincial Council because of its anti-government activities. Leftist newspapers were ordered closed. National Yunnan University and other schools were dissolved, to be re-organized by the Ministry of Education.

Sept. 12.—President Chiang Kai-shek flew to Chengtu.

Sept. 15.—British Foreign Office announced recall of Ambassador Sir Ralph Stevenson from Nanking.

Sept. 16.—Communists landed on Pingtan island off Fukien.

Sept. 17.—President Chiang returned to Chungking.

Korean consulate-general opened in Taipeh.

Sept. 21.—Communist Leader Mao Tse-tung announced establishment of the "People's Republic of China" in Peiping.

Sept. 22.—President Chiang returned to Canton via Kunming.

Chinese chief delegate to UN asked

nations to pay due attention to the China situation; accused USSR of undermining peace in the Far East.

Ex-Premier Ho Ying-chin was appointed chairman of the Military Strategy Advisory Committee.

Sept. 27.—China filed complaint in the United Nations General Assembly against the USSR, accusing the latter of aiding the Chinese Communists in the civil war and violating the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 and the Charter of the United Nations.

Oct. 1.—Communists announced establishment of the "People's Republic of China," with Mao Tse-tung as "Chairman" of the "People's Central Government," and Chou En-lai as "premier and concurrently foreign minister."

George K. C. Yeh was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Oct. 2.—USSR announced recognition of the puppet Communist Government in Peiping.

Chief of the General Staff Ku Chu-tung resigned. Hsiao Yi-shu was appointed Acting Chief of the General Staff.

Oct. 3.—Foreign Minister George Yeh announced that China severed diplomatic relations with USSR.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek returned to Taipeh.

Kwan Chi-yu was appointed Minister of Finance, succeeding Hsu Kan.

Oct. 4.—Bulgaria, Rumania and Czechoslovakia recognized the Peiping regime.

U. S. Department of State issued statement, reaffirming U. S. recognition of the National Government as the legal government of China.

Oct. 6.—Government forces evacuated Chintang island, of the Chushan archipelago.

Chinese Ambassador to France Tsien Tai resigned, M. L. Tuan was appointed Minister in charge of the Embassy.

Nationalists scored victory at Ching-shuping in central Hunan.

Yugoslavia recognized the puppet Peiping government.

Oct. 7.—Government troops evacuated Kukong.

Oct. 8.—Government troops evacuated Hengyang.

Oct. 9.—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek issued Double Tenth message, accusing Russian aggression on China and reiterating determination to fight communism to bitter end.

Oct. 10.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen reiterated determination to continue the anti-communist war in an address observing the Double Tenth in Canton.

Soviet Ambassador to the puppet government, Maj.-Gen. R. N. Roschin, arrived in Peiping.

Oct. 12.—A presidential mandate announced the moving of the Central Government from Canton to Chungking.

Oct. 13.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen left Canton for Kweilin.

Oct. 14.—Government troops evacuated Canton.

Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived in Chungking.

Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek returned to Taipei after a three-day inspection tour of Tinghai.

Oct. 16.—Kwangtung Governor Hsueh Yueh arrived in Hoikow, Hainan island.

U. S. Senator Alexander Smith arrived in Taipei; left the following day.

Oct. 17.—Government troops evacuated Amoy.

Central News Agency disclosed that Chinese Communists had concluded secret pacts with Russia in Harbin, giving Russia virtual control of China's political, economic and military affairs.

Outer Mongolia recognized the puppet Peiping regime.

U. S. Charge d'Affairs Robert Strong arrived in Chungking.

Oct. 20.—Six U. S. Congressmen appealed for China aid and non-recognition of Chinese Communist regime.

Communist cabinet was formed in Peiping.

Government troops evacuated Taohua island of the Chushan group.

Oct. 21.—Government troops evacuated Swatow.

Oct. 25.—Taiwan celebrated fourth anniversary of Liberation Day.

Oct. 27.—Communist invasion of Kingmen (Quemoy) island was repulsed.

Oct. 29.—Angus Ward, U. S. consul-general at Mukden, and four of his staff members were imprisoned by the communists.

Nov. 10.—Communist forces pushed to within 150 miles east of Chungking.

Nov. 11.—Eleven planes of the Central Air Transport Corp. and the China National Aviation Corp. were flown by defectors to Peiping from Hongkong.

Nov. 15.—The *S.S. Flying Cloud* was shelled by Chinese naval vessel enforcing closure of Shanghai harbor.

Nov. 16.—U. S. Secretary of State Dean Acheson declared in Washington that U. S. recognition of Chinese Communist regime was out of question as long as the communists continued to hold Angus Ward under arrest.

U. S. protested to government for attack on the *S.S. Flying Cloud*.

Nov. 18.—Communists sent radio message to the United Nations in an attempt to discredit the Chinese delegation.

Nov. 20.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived at Hongkong from Kweilin.

Nov. 22.—Kweilin fell.

Nov. 25.—T. F. Tsiang charged USSR with violating UN Charter and the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 at the opening debate of the Political Committee of the UN General Assembly.

Angus Ward and four of his staff members were convicted by the communists of beating a former Chinese employee. They were given sentences from three to six months imprisonment, which were commuted to deportation.

U. S. Senator William F. Knowland and Maj.-Gen. Claire L. Chennault conferred with Generalissimo Chiang at Chungking.

Nov. 26.—Dr. Tsiang introduced a four-point resolution at the UN Political Committee.

Nov. 27.—Communists ordered deportation of all non-Chinese members of U. S. consulate at Mukden.

Nov. 28.—U. S., together with Australia, Mexico, Pakistan and the Philippines, introduced a draft resolution on China-USSR dispute at UN.

The *S.S. Sir John Franklin* was fired upon by Chinese war vessels enforcing closure of Shanghai harbor.

Nov. 30.—Chungking fell to the communists. Generalissimo Chiang left Chungking for Chengtu.

Dec. 2.—Regarding the *S.S. Sir John Franklin* incident, the U. S. requested China to stop any further attack on American vessels.

Dec. 4.—Generalissimo Chiang announced plans to fly reinforcements from northwest China to defend the southwest.

Dec. 5.—Cuba, Ecuador and Peru sponsored a joint resolution to refer China's case to the U.N. Interim Committee (Little Assembly) for continued examination.

Dec. 6.—Foreign Minister George Yeh, in a verbal reply to U. S. Charge d'Affairs at Hongkong Robert Strong, reaffirmed China's right of closing the communist-held ports.

Dec. 7.—Acting President Li Tsung-jen arrived in New York for medical treatment.

Dec. 8.—The Cuba-Ecuador-Peru resolution, with subsequent amendments submitted by Lebanon and Uruguay, was adopted by the U.N. Political Committee which also accepted the U. S.-sponsored five-power resolution.

Premier Yen Hsi-shan flew to Taipeh from Chengtu.

Communist forces thrust into Yunnan.

Dec. 9.—Cabinet started functioning in Taipeh.

Dec. 10.—Generalissimo Chiang arrived at Taipeh from Chengtu by plane.

Dec. 12.—Angus Ward and party boarded the *S. S. Lakeland Victory* at Tientsin en route to U. S.

Dec. 16.—Mao Tse-tung arrived in Moscow.

Communist troops pushed to Chennankwan on Kwangsi-Indo-China border.

Dec. 17.—Burma recognized Chinese Communist regime.

U. S. State Department classified Shanghai as a "zone of danger" hazardous for American shipping.

Dec. 18.—National Government severed diplomatic relations with Burma.

Maj.-Gen. Claire L. Chennault and his

partner Whiting Willauer bought Chinese Government's interests in the China National Aviation Corp. and the Central Air Transport Corp.

Dec. 21.—K. C. Wu was appointed Governor of Taiwan to succeed General Chen Cheng.

Dec. 23.—V. K. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador at Washington, sent letter to U. S. State Department asking for American assistance to Taiwan.

Dec. 26.—Communist forces entered Chengtu.

Dec. 28.—China extended diplomatic recognition to Indonesia.

Government planes blasted communist shipping along Luichow peninsula coast.

Dec. 29.—Approaches to the Yangtze river and Shanghai within Chinese territorial waters declared mined.

Dec. 30.—India recognized Chinese Communist regime.

CHAPTER 6

CONSTITUTIONAL MOVEMENT

China's constitutional movement dates the war as a bridge to constitutional government, went out of existence on March 29, 1948, when the National Assembly was convened. Many of its members had been elected either as delegates to the National Assembly or as members of the Legislative Yuan.

back to the first Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95. Since then various constitutions have been drafted and adopted. Among these may be mentioned the "Outline" of 1905, the "Nineteen Articles" of 1911, the "Provisional Compact" of 1912, the "Tien Tan (Temple of Heaven) Draft" of 1913, and the so-called "Tsao Kun Constitution" of 1923.

The National Government came into power in 1928 committed to constitutionalism. The three-stage procedure laid down by Dr. Sun Yat-sen in his "Fundamentals of National Reconstruction" of 1924 is its basic program. The fundamentals stipulated that following the unification of the country by military force there should be a period of political tutelage under the Kuomintang. After this period constitutional rule should be instituted.

At the third plenary session of the Kuomintang's fourth Central Executive Committee held in December, 1932, it was resolved that a National Assembly be convened and that a draft constitution be drawn up by the Legislative Yuan. Accordingly, the first draft constitution was completed in 1933, and it was promulgated on May 5, 1936.*

In December, 1935, the Kuomintang's fifth CEC resolved at its first plenary session that the National Assembly be convened on November 12, 1936, and that the election of 1,200 Assembly delegates be completed before October 10, 1936. Vastness of the country and other difficulties delayed completion of the election. Convocation of the National Assembly was postponed to November 12, 1937. War started in July. Convocation of the assembly was again postponed.

POLITICAL COUNCIL

The People's Political Council, which had served successfully during and after

* See *China Handbook*, 1943, for full text.

At the first meeting, held in Hankow in July, 1938, the PPC pledged the undivided support of the whole nation, regardless of political beliefs, to fight on until victory under the leadership of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. The second meeting was held in Chungking in October, 1938. Hankow had just fallen and defeatist talk was being heard throughout China. The council reiterated its determination that under no circumstances would the Chinese people surrender to aggression. The council met for its third meeting in Chungking in February, 1939. Wang Ching-wei, second only to the generalissimo in the Kuomintang, had joined the Japanese and was urging the Chinese to abandon their fight. This council initiated the national spiritual mobilization. There was mass oath-taking, equivalent to a common Chinese contract, to disown the Japanese puppet Wang and his followers.

The council was neither a representative organ, since its members were not popularly elected; nor was it a law-making body, since its powers were restricted to discussion of government policies, submittal of proposals, obtaining of reports, and interpellation of the government.

The council originated in March, 1938, when the Emergency National Congress of the Kuomintang resolved that "the government should set up an organ for participation by the people in public affairs, whereby the services of all persons of outstanding virtues and of great wisdom may be utilized in the formation of state policies." The council had 200 members, seven of whom were from the Chinese Communist party, including Mao Tze-tung, the top Chinese Communist leader.

The organic law of the People's Political Council, promulgated on April 12, 1938, provided that of 200 members 88 be nominated on a regional basis, six from Mongolia and Tibet, six from overseas Chinese communities, and 100 from among persons who had served more than three years in major cultural and economic organizations. All were selected by the Kuomintang and their term of office was two years.

The second PPC, which met early in 1941, had 240 members. Ninety members were elected by the provincial and municipal councils, both on a regional and professional basis. The second PPC, as a new power, could investigate matters entrusted to it by the government. The second PPC held two plenary sessions: the first session, March 1-10, 1941; second session, November 17-26, 1941.

Communist members stayed away from the first session of the second PPC. They criticized the government for disbanding the New Fourth Army on the southern Anhwei-Kiangsu border in January, 1941. They requested but were refused government recognition of the communist regime in the Kansu-Shensi-Ningsia border as a prerequisite to their presence at the council. Aiming to work out a compromise, members of the third PPC proposed on September 14, 1944, to send a five-man inspection group to study actual conditions in Yen-an. Three days later, Generalissimo Chiang, as acting president of the Executive Yuan, promised the councillors an end to the Kuomintang tutelage as soon as practicable.

In 1944, the PPC organic law was again revised, increasing membership to 290. Of these 199 were elected by provincial and municipal councils. The council had the right to deliberate on the national budget and its investigatory powers were further enlarged. The Fourth PPC held three plenary sessions: first session, July, 1945; second session, March, 1946; third session, May, 1947.

On July 1, 1945, five councillors flew back from Yen-an, carrying with them the communists' proposals. They were received by Generalissimo Chiang, who promised to study their proposals. At this time General George C. Marshall came to China to attempt a settlement of the government-communist dispute. Although the Chinese communists resorted to open rebellion, the council did not abandon hope. Even as late as May 26, 1947, at its last plenary session, the council resolved to wire Yen-an urging the communist members to attend its meeting. The

open rebellion made it physically impossible to deliver the message.

In nine years of existence the PPC held 13 plenary sessions. Most of its 2,221 resolutions were accepted and enforced by the government. Although its powers were limited, the council lived up to its avowed purpose as the representative organ of the people. It helped enact many democratic laws and effect many necessary reforms.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

Despite the widespread hostilities, the Kuomintang's fifth CEC at its sixth plenary session held in October, 1939, again decided to call the National Assembly in November, 1940. Severe war-time dislocation in communications prevented assembly delegates from arriving in Chungking in time for the meeting. In August, 1941, the National Assembly Hall in Chungking was destroyed by Japanese bombing, leading to further postponement.

At the eleventh plenary session of the fifth CEC, held in September, 1943, it was decided to convene the National Assembly to adopt a constitution within one year after the end of the war. In May, 1945, the sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang accepted President Chiang Kai-shek's proposal that the National Assembly be convened on November 12, 1945.

Of the 1,200 members of the assembly, 950 were elected in prewar days. Of these, 557 were delegates of the various provinces and municipalities, 311 of vocational organizations, 26 of Mongolia and Tibet, 26 of overseas China communities, and 30 of the armed forces. Delegates yet to be elected numbered 250. By the end of February, 1945, of the elected delegates 161 had either died or lost their status as delegates.

Problems concerning membership of the National Assembly, legality of the delegates elected before the war, duties of the first assembly and other related questions were considered by the Fourth People's Political Council. This was held in July, 1945, in accordance with a resolution passed by the Kuomintang National Congress held in May of the same year.

The PPC adopted the following resolutions on the pending issues concerning the National Assembly:

"1. The date for the convocation of the National Assembly is to be left to the discretion of the government.

"2. The membership of the assembly should be decided with due regard to the legal and practical aspects of the issue

and in such a way as to give the fullest possible representation to all classes of people in the country.

"3. The constitution should be enforced as soon as it is adopted.

"4. Prior to the convocation of the assembly, the government is to continue to employ all available political means for attaining national unity and solidarity; to insure freedom of opinion, of publication, of assembly, of organizing political societies; to enforce the regulations for safeguarding the freedom of the human person; to recognize the legal status of various political parties; and to complete the setting up of people's representative organs in all provinces of Free China in order to lay a solid foundation for local self-government."

For the furtherance of constitutional rule, the Supreme National Defense Council in November, 1943, organized a commission for the inauguration of the constitutional government. The functions of this commission were: (1) to make proposals to the government concerning preparations for the establishment of constitutional government; (2) to investigate the progress of local self-government and to make reports thereon to the government; (3) to investigate the enforcement of laws and regulations concerning constitutional government and to make reports thereon; (4) to serve as a link between the government and the people in connection with the question of constitutional government and related political problems; and (5) to deliberate on matters relating to the constitution as mandated by the government.

The commission was composed of leaders from all walks of life and political parties, with President Chiang Kai-shek as chairman. It was to this commission that President Chiang reported the negotiations between the government and the Chinese Communist party and made the announcement that he would propose to the Kuomintang National Congress to convene the National Assembly on November 12, 1946.

MULTI-PARTY CONFERENCE

The Political Consultation Conference, which met in Chungking in January, 1946, and to which all parties and non-partisan leaders, including the communists, were invited to exchange views on national affairs, had as one of its chief aims the discussion of questions concerning the convocation of the National Assembly. It decided that its authority should be confined to the adoption of a constitution. While the 1,200 delegates already

elected in 1936 were to retain their seats, an additional 150 regional and vocational delegates were to be elected for Taiwan and the northeastern provinces, and an additional 700 seats were allotted to the various political parties and independent social leaders. This brought the total number of delegates in the National Assembly up to 2,050. Distribution of the 700 additional delegates was as follows: Kuomintang, 220; Chinese Communist party, 190; Democratic League, 120; Young China party, 100; and independents, 70.

It did not take the conference long to reach an agreement on the draft constitution, since its adoption was dependent on the National Assembly. It appointed a multi-party Draft Constitution Examination committee to revise the draft constitution along lines indicated by the Political Consultation Conference. When completed, the revised draft was to be presented to the National Assembly for adoption.

The principles recommended by the PCC on the revision of the draft constitution included drastic changes in the May 5 draft. These can be summarized as follows:

(1) The National Assembly as provided under the draft constitution was transformed in such a way that it existed only in name, for it was stipulated that the National Assembly should be the organ whereby the electorates of the entire nation were to exercise their powers of suffrage, recall, initiative and referendum.

(2) The Legislative Yuan should be the highest legislative organ of the state, and it should be directly elected by universal suffrage. Under the draft constitution, the Legislative Yuan was to be elected by the National Assembly. Through this revision, China's constitutional legislature was elevated to a higher position than that provided under the May 5 draft, and was given powers comparable to those of the parliament in other democratic states.

(3) As provided in the draft constitution, the president of the Executive Yuan was to be appointed and subject to removal by the President of the Republic and was responsible only to the head of the state. The PPC principles specified that the president of the Executive Yuan should be nominated by the President and appointed with the concurrence of the Legislative Yuan, thereby holding the executive branch of the government responsible to the legislature. It further prescribed that when the Legislative Yuan expressed a lack of confidence in the

Executive Yuan as a whole, the latter should either resign or ask the President to dissolve the Legislative Yuan. The same president of the Executive Yuan, however, may not ask for dissolution of the Legislative Yuan twice.

(4) Presidential powers under the draft constitution were considerably larger than that granted under the PPC principles. The author of the draft constitution favored election of the President by the National Assembly, and proposed the vesting the President with power to issue emergency decrees in any situation requiring immediate action. This authority would be subject to legislative confirmation within three months after issuance of such decrees. Members of the PPC, on the other hand, thought it advisable to give the President only powers to issue emergency orders for the enforcement of decisions of the Executive Yuan, the President being required to report such action to the Legislative Yuan within one month. On the election of the President, the PCC ruled that until election by universal suffrage could become a fact, the President should be elected by an electoral college to be formed by the central, provincial and hsien councils.

(5) The PCC decision on local administration constituted another broad departure from the draft constitution. The PCC proposed that in the new national charter, a chapter should be added to demarcate the lines of authority between the central and the provincial governments. It also decided that the province should be the highest unit for local self-rule.

Under the draft constitution, the provincial government was to execute the laws and orders of the central government and supervise local self-government, with its governor appointed by the President of the Republic. The PCC principles stipulated that the provincial administration should be elective and authorized the province to have its own constitution provided it did not contravene provisions of the national charter.

(6) On the rights and duties of citizens, the draft constitution ruled among other things that all citizens should have personal liberty and, except in accordance with law, could not be arrested, detained, tried or punished; while by the PCC resolution, all freedoms and rights normally enjoyed by people in a democratic nation are guaranteed and protected by the constitution, and are not subject to illegal infringement.

(7) Under the draft constitution, the power for revision of the constitution was

vested in the National Assembly. The PCC gave this power to the joint meeting of the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan. Constitutional revision, however, must be ratified by the organ that elects the President of the Republic.

These principles for the revision of the draft constitution were discussed by the Kuomintang's sixth CEC in its second plenary session in March, 1946. It found it could not accept some of these principles as they deviated from Dr. Sun Yat-sen's teachings. These views were later submitted to the Draft Constitution Examination committee.

DRAFT CONSTITUTION

At a joint meeting of the PCC steering committee and the Draft Constitution Examination committee on March 15, 1946, agreement was reached on the following three points:

(1) The National Assembly should be a functional one with the authority to elect the President and the Vice President of the Republic.

(2) Deletion of the provision which says: "When the Legislative Yuan expresses a lack of confidence in the Executive Yuan as a whole, the latter shall either resign or ask the President to dissolve the former, but the same president of the Executive Yuan may not request the dissolution of the Legislative Yuan more than once."

(3) Institution of a provincial self-government law instead of a constitution for each province.

It was the decision of the Political Consultation Conference to convene the National Assembly on May 5, 1946, but the violation of the cease-fire order on the part of the communists and their failure to submit the name list of their delegates made it impossible for the government to hold the assembly as scheduled. The assembly was, therefore, postponed to November 12 of the same year, in the hope that differences between the government and the Chinese Communist party could be composed during the intervening months.

As the November 12 dateline approached, the communists' attitude was as obdurate as ever. The communists turned down President Chiang's offer, to issue a fresh cease-fire order if the communists submitted a list of their delegates to the assembly. Nevertheless, the government instructed its troops throughout the country on November 8 to cease fire and remain at their respective positions. In a last-minute effort to find some basis of

peaceful settlement with the communists, the assembly was further postponed for three days.

The attitude of the government won the support of other minority parties, but not of the communists and their close associates. When the assembly was finally inaugurated in Nanking on November 15, the communists and their collaborators were conspicuous by their absence. In the election of the 55-man presidium, however, nine seats were reserved for the Chinese Communist party and the Democratic League. But the communists continued to boycott the assembly.

On November 27, President Chiang introduced the draft constitution, revised in accordance with PCC-approved principles, to the assembly. When the assembly's committees began work on the draft, a large number of dissenting views and amendments were offered. But the assembly's steering committee, at the personal request of President Chiang, ignored all amendments proposed which contravened the principles recommended by the PCC in January.

On December 25, forty-one days after the opening session, the National Assembly rushed through the third and final reading and approved the new national charter. The National Assembly also decided that the new constitution be promulgated on New Year's Day, 1947, to go into effect on December 25 of the same year. Interim measures for the inauguration of the constitutional government were provided in a resolution of the assembly. It was also resolved that the election of delegates to the National Assembly and of members of the Legislative Yuan and Control Yuan must be completed by the end of September, 1947.

By and large, the new national charter of 14 chapters with 175 articles contains the main points agreed upon at the Political Consultation Conference.

Following the adjournment of the National Assembly, the government started to broaden its basis by inviting the minority parties and non-partisan leaders to join the State Council, the Legislative, Executive and Control Yuan, the People's Political Council, and the Commission for the Inauguration of Constitutional Government, despite the continued opposition of the communists and the intensification of their armed rebellion.

The standing committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee adopted at its meeting on February 10 the following resolutions on the broadening of the basis of the administration:

(1) Of the new seats in the Legislative

Yuan, the Control Yuan, and the People's Political Council, half should go to the Kuomintang and non-partisans and half to the Young China party and the Democratic Socialists.

(2) The resident committee of the Commission for the Inauguration of Constitutional Government should be composed of three-fourths of Kuomintang and non-partisan members, and one-fourth of Democratic Socialists and Young China members.

(3) Minority party representatives on the above-mentioned government organizations should be nominated by the respective political parties and approved by the standing committee of the Kuomintang CEC.

GOVERNMENT REORGANIZATION

In a mandate on March 1, 1947, the government expanded its legislative, supervisory and deliberative branches by appointing 81 non-Kuomintang members to the Legislative Yuan, the Control Yuan and the People's Political Council, marking the beginning of the end of the Kuomintang's 20-year-old role as China's political tutor. Fifty new seats were added to the 99-man Legislative Yuan with the following distribution: Kuomintang, 17; non-partisans, 8; Young China party, 13; and Democratic Socialists, 12. The Control Yuan was augmented by 25 seats, bringing the total up to 49 members. The new seats were apportioned as follows: Kuomintang, 9; non-partisans, 3; Young China party, 6; and Democratic Socialists, 7. The PPC membership was increased to include 12 Kuomintang members; 11 non-partisans; and 11 each from the Young China party and the Democratic Socialists.

The Kuomintang Central Executive Committee voted on March 24 to abolish the Supreme National Defense Council, which up to then had been the highest policy-making organ in the government, to make way for the multi-party state council of 40 members. The Kuomintang CEC also decided to create a vice-presidency in the government.

The reorganization of the state council by taking in non-Kuomintang members and the selection of Dr. Sun Fo as the vice-president of China and Chang Chun as president of the Executive Yuan were officially announced on April 17. The changes became effective on the following day, the 20th anniversary of the establishment of the national government in Nanking. Headed by President Chiang Kai-shek the state council was composed

of 17 Kuomintang members, 4 non-partisans, 4 each from the Young China party and the Democratic Socialist party. Nine seats were reserved for the Chinese Communist party and the Democratic League should the communists cease in their attempt to seize power by force, and should the Democratic League stop supporting the communists.

China's multi-party government, which was to rule the nation during the transition from Kuomintang tutelage to constitutionalism, commenced functioning on April 24 with the inaugural meeting of the new State Council. President Chiang presided over the State Council and approved the cabinet list submitted by Premier Chang Chun, which was composed of 16 Kuomintang and 10 non-Kuomintang members. To comply with the wishes of the minority parties, Article 15 of the organic law of the national government was revised, thereby relieving the president of his responsibilities to the Kuomintang CEC and giving the reorganized government a truly coalition character.

On April 1, the national government promulgated six organic and four electoral laws, thus completing the first stage of its preparations for the enforcement of the new constitution scheduled for December 25, 1947. The six organic laws cover the organization of the National Assembly and the five Yuan of the government—Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination, and Control. The four electoral laws are those governing the election of the president and the vice-president, national assembly delegates, and members of the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan.

According to the laws, the President and the Vice-President are to be elected by the National Assembly by a simple majority. Any Chinese citizen, having attained the age of forty and upon the nomination of 100 or more National Assembly delegates, may become a presidential or vice-presidential candidate. Any Chinese citizen, upon attaining the age of twenty-three, is qualified to run for election to the Legislative Yuan and the National Assembly, but the candidate to the former must either be nominated by a political party or by 3,000 voters, and to the latter either through nomination by a political party or by 500 voters.

Under the law, Control Yuan members are to be elected by the provincial and municipal councils, the local district councils of Mongolia and Tibet, and overseas Chinese communities, and they must be above thirty-five years of age.

The National Assembly is to be composed of 3,045 delegates elected according to the geographical division of the nation and on the basis of vocational representation.

The election of National Assembly delegates was held in a three-day period beginning November 21, 1947, throughout the country in areas free from communist disturbances; in a corresponding period two months later, the election of Legislative Yuan members was conducted. In both elections, the Kuomintang scored signal victories, winning 90 percent of the seats in the National Assembly and the National Assembly and the Legislative Yuan.

The National Assembly, originally scheduled to meet on December 25, was delayed at that time because the results of the election held in late November were difficult to determine. In a mandate issued on Christmas Day, the government ordered the enforcement of China's new constitution and convocation of the first elected National Assembly on March 29, 1948, to elect the first President and Vice-President of the Republic under the new constitution. The tenure of the People's Political Council, formed during the war as a deliberate and consultative organ, was extended until the convocation of the National Assembly.

ELECTION OF PRESIDENT

The first session of the First National Assembly opened as scheduled on March 29, 1948. In a month-long session, the National Assembly elected Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek first president under the new constitution and General Li Tsung-jen first vice-president. President Chiang was sworn in on May 20, 1948.

The new Legislative Yuan began its session on May 8, and the nomination of Dr. Wong Wen-hao as president of the Executive Yuan was confirmed by the Yuan on May 24. Seven days later President Chiang approved the cabinet list submitted by Premier Wong. With the convocation of the Control Yuan on June 1, and its subsequent consent to the nomination of Dr. Wang Chung-hui as president of the Judicial Yuan and the nomination of Dr. Chang Po-lin as president of the Examination Yuan, the organization of the constitutional government was completed.

The establishment of the constitutional government brought to a successful conclusion the efforts of the Kuomintang in its fifty years of national revolution. For the realization of constitutional democracy, many revolutionaries under the

leadership of Dr. Sun Yat-sen and President Chiang Kai-shek labored hard and even gave their lives.

In his message to the closing session of the National Assembly on May 1, President Chiang said: "From now on the Government must be guided by the Constitution in all its measures. This shall be done as much for the purpose of exercising governing powers endowed by the national charter, as for the purpose of making our government a government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

(Adopted by the National Assembly on December 25, 1946 and promulgated by the National Government on January 1, 1947, it went into effect on December 25, 1947)

PREAMBLE

The National Assembly of the Republic of China, by virtue of the mandate received from the whole body of citizens, and acting in accordance with the teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, Founder of the Republic of China, and in order to consolidate the authority of the State, safeguard the rights of the people, ensure social tranquility and promote the welfare of the people, hereby adopts this Constitution and causes it to be promulgated for faithful and permanent observance by all in the country.

CHAPTER I

GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article 1.—The Republic of China, founded on the basis of the San Min Chu I (Three People's Principles), shall be a democratic republic of the people to be governed by the people and for the people.

Article 2.—The sovereignty of the Republic of China shall reside in the whole body of citizens.

Article 3.—Persons possessing Chinese nationality shall be citizens of the Republic of China.

Article 4.—The territory of the Republic of China, as represented by her existing geographical areas, shall not be altered except by resolution of the National Assembly.

Article 5.—All component racial groups in the Republic of China shall enjoy equal rights.

Article 6.—The National Flag of the Republic of China shall have a red background with a blue sky and a white sun in the upper left corner.

CHAPTER II

RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF THE PEOPLE

Article 7.—All citizens of the Republic of China, irrespective of sex, religion, race, class or party affiliation, shall be equal before the law.

Article 8.—The people shall be guaranteed freedom of person. Except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto* as otherwise provided for by law, no person shall be arrested or detained except by a judicial or a police organ in accordance with procedure prescribed by law. No person shall be tried or punished except by a law court in accordance with procedure prescribed by law. Any arrest, detention, trial or punishment not in accordance with procedure prescribed by law may be contested.

When a person is arrested or detained on suspicion of having committed a crime, the organ making the arrest or detention shall in writing inform the said person and his designated relative or friend of the reason for his arrest or detention, and shall, within twenty-four hours, turn him over to a competent court for trial. The said person, or any other individual, may petition the competent court that a writ be served within twenty-four hours on the organ making the arrest for the surrender of the said person for trial.

The court may not reject the petition mentioned in the preceding paragraph, nor may it order the organ concerned to make an investigation and report first. The organ concerned may not refuse or delay to execute the writ of the court for the surrender of the said person for trial.

When a person is arrested or detained illegally, he, or any other person, may petition the court for an investigation. The court may not reject such a petition, and shall, within twenty-four hours, pursue the investigation with the organ concerned, and proceed with the matter in accordance with law.

Article 9.—Except those in active military service, no person shall be subject to trial by a military court.

Article 10.—The people shall have freedom of domicile and of changing their domicile.

Article 11.—The people shall have freedom of speech, academic instruction, writing and publication.

Article 12.—The people shall have freedom of secret correspondence.

Article 13.—The people shall have freedom of religious belief.

Article 14.—The people shall have freedom of assembly and freedom to form associations.

Article 15.—The people's right to life, right to work and right to property shall be inviolate.

Article 16.—The people shall have the right to present petitions, file complaints or institute legal proceedings.

Article 17.—The people shall have the rights of election, recall, initiative and referendum.

Article 18.—The people shall have the right to take civil service examinations and to hold public offices.

Article 19.—The people shall have the obligation to pay taxes in accordance with law.

Article 20.—The people shall have the obligation to perform military service in accordance with law.

Article 21.—The people shall have the right as well as the obligation to receive public education.

Article 22.—All other freedoms and rights of the people that do not jeopardize the social order or general welfare shall be guaranteed under the Constitution.

Article 23.—All the freedoms and rights enumerated in the preceding Articles may not be restricted by law, except for reasons of preventing infringement upon the freedoms of other persons, averting an imminent crisis, maintaining social order or advancing general welfare.

Article 24.—Any public functionary who, in violation of law, infringes upon the freedoms or rights of any person shall, in addition to being subject to disciplinary measures in accordance with law, be held accountable under the criminal and civil laws. The injured person may, in accordance with law, ask the State for indemnity.

CHAPTER III

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

Article 25.—The National Assembly shall, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, exercise political powers on behalf of the whole body of citizens.

Article 26.—The National Assembly shall be organized with the following components:

(1) One delegate to be elected by every hsien, municipality or area of an equivalent status. In case its population exceeds 500,000, one additional delegate shall be elected for each additional 500,000. Areas of an equivalent status with the hsien or the municipality shall be prescribed by law.

(2) Delegates of Mongolia shall be elected four for each league and one for each special banner.

(3) The number of delegates to be elected by Tibet shall be prescribed by law.

(4) The number of delegates to be elected by various racial groups in the border regions shall be prescribed by law.

(5) The number of delegates to be elected by Chinese nationals residing abroad shall be prescribed by law.

(6) The number of delegates to be elected by occupational groups shall be prescribed by law.

(7) The number of delegates to be elected by women's organizations shall be prescribed by law.

Article 27.—The functions and powers of the National Assembly shall be as follows:

(1) Election of the President and the Vice-President.

(2) Recall of the President or the Vice-President.

(3) Amendment of the Constitution.

(4) Referendum on amendments to the Constitution proposed by the Legislative Yuan.

With respect to the exercise of the powers of initiative and referendum, in addition to the authority stipulated in the above-mentioned (3) and (4), the National Assembly shall formulate measures pertaining thereto and enforce them, after the said two powers shall have been exercised in one-half of the hsien and municipalities of the whole country.

Article 28.—Delegates to the National Assembly shall be elected every six years.

The term of office of the delegates to each National Assembly shall terminate on the day of convocation of the next National Assembly.

Incumbent government officials may not be elected delegates to the National Assembly in electoral areas where they hold office.

Article 29.—The National Assembly shall be summoned by the President to meet ninety days prior to the date of expiration of each presidential term.

Article 30.—The National Assembly may, in any of the following circumstances, convene an extraordinary session:

(1) When, in accordance with the provisions of Article 49 of the Constitution, a new President and a new Vice-President are to be elected.

(2) When, in accordance with a resolution of the Control Yuan, an impeachment of the President or the Vice-President is to be instituted.

(3) When, in accordance with a resolution of the Legislative Yuan, an amendment to the Constitution is to be proposed.

(4) When a meeting is requested by over two-fifths of the delegates to the National Assembly.

When an extraordinary session is to be called in accordance with the above-mentioned (1) and (2), the President of the Legislative Yuan shall issue the notice of convocation; when it is to be called in accordance with the above-mentioned (3) and (4), it shall be convened by the President of the Republic.

Article 31.—The National Assembly shall meet at the seat of the Central Government.

Article 32.—No delegate to the National Assembly shall be held responsible outside the Assembly for opinions expressed or for votes cast in the Assembly.

Article 33.—While the Assembly is in session, no delegate to the National Assembly shall, except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto*, be arrested or detained without the permission of the National Assembly.

Article 34.—The organization of the National Assembly, the election and the recall of delegates to the National Assembly, and the procedure whereby the National Assembly is to carry out its functions shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER IV

THE PRESIDENT

Article 35.—The President shall be the Head of the State and shall represent the Republic of China in foreign relations.

Article 36.—The President shall command the nation's land, sea and air forces.

Article 37.—The President shall, in accordance with law, promulgate laws and issue mandates with the counter-signature of the President of the Executive Yuan, or with counter-signatures of both the President of the Executive Yuan and of the heads of Ministries or Commissions concerned.

Article 38.—The President shall, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, exercise the powers of concluding treaties, declaring war, and making peace.

Article 39.—The President may, in accordance with law, declare martial law with the approval or confirmation of the Legislative Yuan. When the Legislative Yuan deems it necessary, it may, by resolution, request the President to terminate martial law.

Article 40.—The President shall, in accordance with law, exercise the powers of granting general amnesty, pardons, remission of sentences and restitution of civil rights.

Article 41.—The President shall, in accordance with law, appoint and remove civil and military officers.

Article 42.—The President may, in accordance with law, confer honors and award decorations.

Article 43.—In case of a natural calamity, an epidemic or a national financial or economic crisis that calls for emergency measures, the President, during the Legislative Yuan's recess, may, by resolution of the Executive Yuan Council and in accordance with the Emergency Decrees Act, issue an emergency decree proclaiming such measures as are necessary to cope with the situation. Such decree shall, within one month after issuance, be presented to the Legislative Yuan for confirmation; in case the Legislative Yuan withholds confirmation, the said decree shall immediately become null and void.

Article 44.—In case of any dispute between the various Yuan, unless there are relevant stipulations in the Constitution, the President may call a meeting of the Presidents of the Yuan concerned for consultation with a view to reaching an agreement.

Article 45.—Any citizen of the Republic of China having attained the age of forty years shall be eligible to the office of President or the Vice-President.

Article 46.—The election of the President and the Vice-President shall be prescribed by law.

Article 47.—The term of office of the President and of the Vice-President shall be six years. They may be elected for a second term.

Article 48.—The President shall, at the time of his inauguration, take the following oath:

"I do solemnly and sincerely swear before the people of the whole country that I shall observe the Constitution, faithfully perform my duties and strive to promote the people's welfare and defend the country. Under no circumstances shall I betray the people's trust. Should I break my oath, I shall submit myself to severe punishment by the State."

Article 49.—In the event of the President's office becoming vacant, the Vice-President shall succeed to the Presidency until the expiration of the original presidential term. In case the Presidency and the Vice-Presidency should both become vacant, the President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the

President and, in accordance with the provisions of Article 30 of the Constitution, convene an extraordinary session of the National Assembly to elect a new President and a new Vice-President, and the latter shall hold office until the completion of the term left unfinished by the preceding President.

In case the President should, due to any cause, become incapacitated, the Vice-President shall exercise the functions of his office. In case both the President and the Vice-President should become incapacitated, the President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the President.

Article 50.—The President shall vacate his office on the day his term expires. If by that time the succeeding President has not yet been elected, or if the President-elect and the Vice-President-elect have not yet assumed office, the President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the President.

Article 51.—The period during which the President of the Executive Yuan may exercise the functions of the President shall not exceed three months.

Article 52.—The President shall not, without having been recalled or having vacated his office, be liable to criminal prosecution unless he is charged with having committed acts of rebellion or treason.

CHAPTER V

ADMINISTRATION

Article 53.—The Executive Yuan shall be the highest administrative organ of the State.

Article 54.—The Executive Yuan shall have a President, a Vice-President, a number of heads of Ministries and Commissions and a number of ministers of state without portfolio.

Article 55.—The President of the Executive Yuan shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Legislative Yuan.

If the President of the Executive Yuan should resign or otherwise vacate his office during the recess of the Legislative Yuan, the Vice-President of the Yuan shall exercise his functions, but the President of the Republic shall, within forty days, request a meeting of the Legislative Yuan to confirm his nominee.

Pending such confirmation by the Legislative Yuan, the Vice-President of the Executive Yuan shall exercise the functions of the President of the Yuan.

Article 56.—The Vice-President of the Executive Yuan, the heads of the various

Ministries and Commissions and the ministers of state without portfolio shall be appointed by the President of the Republic upon the recommendation of the President of the Executive Yuan.

Article 57.—The Executive Yuan shall be responsible to the Legislative Yuan in accordance with the following provisions:

(1) The Executive Yuan has the obligation to present to the Legislative Yuan its administrative policies and its administrative reports. Members of the Legislative Yuan have, during sessions of the Legislative Yuan, the right to interpellate the President and the heads of the various Ministries and Commissions of the Executive Yuan.

(2) If the Legislative Yuan does not concur in any important policy of the Executive Yuan, it may, by resolution, ask the Executive Yuan to alter such a policy. With respect to such resolution, the Executive Yuan may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, request the Legislative Yuan to reconsider it. If, after reconsideration, two-thirds of the attending Members of the Legislative Yuan uphold the original resolution, the President of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

(3) If the Executive Yuan deems a statutory, budgetary or treaty bill passed by the Legislative Yuan difficult to carry out, it may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, request, within ten days after the delivery of the said resolution to the Executive Yuan, that the Legislative Yuan reconsider the same. If, after reconsideration, two-thirds of the attending Members of the Legislative Yuan uphold the original resolution, the President of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

Article 58.—The Executive Yuan shall have an Executive Yuan Council to be composed of its President, Vice-President, heads of the various Ministries and the Commissions and ministers of state without portfolio, with the President of the Yuan as chairman.

Prior to submission to the Legislative Yuan of any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning martial law, general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties or other important affairs, or concerning matters of common concern to the various Ministries and Commissions, the President and heads of the various Ministries and Commissions of the Executive Yuan shall present the said bill to the Executive Yuan Council for discussion and decision.

Article 59.—The Executive Yuan shall, three months before the beginning of every fiscal year, present to the Legislative Yuan the budget for the following fiscal year.

Article 60.—The Executive Yuan shall, within four months after the end of every fiscal year, present the budget statement to the Control Yuan.

Article 61.—The organization of the Executive Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER VI

LEGISLATION

Article 62.—The Legislative Yuan shall be the highest legislative organ of the State to be composed of popularly elected Members to exercise the legislative power on behalf of the people.

Article 63.—The Legislative Yuan shall have the power to decide upon any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning martial law, general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties and other important affairs of the State.

Article 64.—Members of the Legislative Yuan shall be elected in accordance with the following provisions:

(1) Those elected by provinces and by municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan shall be five for each province or municipality with a population of less than 3,000,000. In case of a population exceeding 3,000,000, one additional Member shall be elected for each additional 1,000,000 persons.

(2) Those elected by Mongolian leagues and banners.

(3) Those elected by Tibet.

(4) Those elected by various racial groups in the border regions.

(5) Those elected by Chinese nationals residing abroad.

(6) Those elected by occupational groups.

The election of Members of the Legislative Yuan and the number of those to be elected in accordance with the above-mentioned (2) to (6) shall be prescribed by law.

The number of women to be elected in the above-mentioned categories shall be prescribed by law.

Article 65.—Members of the Legislative Yuan shall serve a term of three years, and shall be eligible for re-election. The election of Members of the Legislative Yuan shall be completed not later than three months prior to the expiration of each term of office.

Article 66.—The Legislative Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President to be elected by and from among the Members.

Article 67.—The Legislative Yuan may organize various committees.

Such committees may invite government officials and private individuals concerned to be present at their meetings for consultation.

Article 68.—The Legislative Yuan shall hold two sessions every year, to be convened by itself. The first session shall last from February to the end of May, and the second session from September to the end of December. When necessary, a session may be extended.

Article 69.—In any of the following circumstances, the Legislative Yuan may hold an extraordinary session:

(1) At the request of the President of the Republic.

(2) Upon the petition of more than one-fourth of its Members.

Article 70.—The Legislative Yuan shall not make proposals to increase expenditures listed in the budget presented by the Executive Yuan.

Article 71.—At meetings of the Legislative Yuan, the Presidents of the various Yuan and the heads of the various Ministries and Commissions concerned may be in attendance to present their opinions.

Article 72.—Statutory bills passed by the Legislative Yuan shall be sent to the President of the Republic and to the Executive Yuan. The President shall, within ten days after their receipt, promulgate them. However, the President may proceed with them in accordance with provisions of Article 57 of the Constitution.

Article 73.—No Member of the Legislative Yuan shall be held responsible outside the Yuan for any utterances made or votes cast in the Yuan.

Article 74.—No Member of the Legislative Yuan may, except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto*, be arrested or detained without permission of the Legislative Yuan.

Article 75.—No Member of the Legislative Yuan may concurrently hold a government post.

Article 76.—The organization of the Legislative Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER VII

JUDICIARY

Article 77.—The Judicial Yuan shall be the highest judicial organ of the State and shall have jurisdiction over civil, criminal and administrative cases and over

cases concerning disciplinary punishment of public functionaries.

Article 78.—The Judicial Yuan shall have the power to interpret the Constitution and also the power to unify the interpretation of laws and decrees.

Article 79.—The Judicial Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President, who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

The Judicial Yuan shall have a number of Grand Justices to attend to matters stipulated in Article 78 of the Constitution, who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

Article 80.—Judges shall be above party affiliations and shall, in accordance with law, hold trials independently and free of any interference.

Article 81.—Judges shall hold office for life. No judge may be removed from office unless he has been found guilty of criminal offenses or subjected to disciplinary punishment, or declared legally incompetent. No judge may, except in accordance with law, be suspended, transferred or have his salary reduced.

Article 82.—The organization of the Judicial Yuan and of the law courts of various grades shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER VIII

EXAMINATION

Article 83.—The Examination Yuan shall be the highest examination organ of the State and shall attend to matters such as examination, appointment, registration and ranking, checking of records, salary scales, promotion and transfer, safeguarding of tenures, commendation, compensation, retirement, and pension.

Article 84.—The Examination Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President and a number of Members who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

Article 85.—In the selection of public functionaries, a system of competitive examination shall be enforced, quotas of candidates shall be prescribed severally according to provinces and areas, and examinations shall be held by regions. No person may be appointed to a public office unless he has qualified through examination.

Article 86.—The following qualifications shall be determined through examinations to be held by the Examination Yuan in accordance with law:

(1) Qualifications for appointment as public functionaries.

(2) Qualifications for practice in specialized professions and as technicians.

Article 87.—The Examination Yuan may, with respect to matters under its charge, present statutory bills to the Legislative Yuan.

Article 88.—Members of the Examination Yuan shall be above party affiliations and shall, in accordance with law, independently carry out their functions.

Article 89.—The organization of the Examination Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER IX

CONTROL

Article 90.—The Control Yuan shall be the highest organ of control of the State and shall exercise the powers of consent, impeachment, censure and auditing.

Article 91.—The Control Yuan shall be composed of Members to be elected by provincial and municipal councils, the local councils of Mongolia and Tibet, and Chinese nationals residing abroad. Their numbers shall be determined in accordance with the following provisions:

(1) Five Members from every province.

(2) Two Members from every municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan.

(3) Eight Members from Mongolian leagues and banners.

(4) Eight Members from Tibet.

(5) Eight Members from Chinese nationals residing abroad.

Article 92.—The Control Yuan shall have a President and a Vice-President, to be elected by and from among its Members.

Article 93.—Members of the Control Yuan shall serve a term of six years and shall be eligible for re-election.

Article 94.—When the Control Yuan exercises the power of consent in accordance with the Constitution, it shall do so by resolution of a majority of the attending Members.

Article 95.—The Control Yuan, in the exercise of its powers, may send for orders issued by the Executive Yuan and its Ministries and Commissions and for other relevant documents for perusal.

Article 96.—The Control Yuan, taking into account the functions of the Executive Yuan and its various Ministries and Commissions, may accordingly set up a number of committees to investigate their measures with the view to ascertaining

whether they have violated any law or have been derelict in the performance of their duties.

Article 97.—The Control Yuan may, on the basis of the investigations and resolutions of its committees, propose corrective measures and forward them to the Executive Yuan and its appropriate Ministries and Commissions with request that improvements be effected.

When the Control Yuan deems a public functionary in the Central or a local government derelict in the performance of duty or when it deems there has been violation of law, it may institute an indictment or an impeachment. If it is a criminal offense the case shall be turned over to a law court.

Article 98.—Any impeachment by the Control Yuan of a public functionary in the Central or a local government shall be instituted upon the proposal of more than one Member of the Control Yuan and the endorsement, after due consideration, of more than nine other Members.

Article 99.—In instituting impeachments of personnel of the Judicial Yuan or of the Examination Yuan for dereliction in the performance of duty or for violation of law, the provisions of Articles 95, 97 and 98 of the Constitution shall be applicable.

Article 100.—Any impeachment of the President or the Vice-President of the Republic by the Control Yuan shall be instituted upon the proposal of more than one-fourth, and the endorsement, after due consideration, of the majority of the Members of the Control Yuan, and the same shall be presented to the National Assembly.

Article 101.—No Member of the Control Yuan shall be held responsible outside the Yuan for opinions expressed or for votes cast in the Yuan.

Article 102.—No Member of the Control Yuan may, except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto*, be arrested or detained without the permission of the Control Yuan.

Article 103.—No Member of the Control Yuan may concurrently hold a public office or engage in professional practices.

Article 104.—In the Control Yuan, there shall be an Auditor-General, who shall be nominated and appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Legislative Yuan.

Article 105.—The Auditor-General shall, within three months after the presentation of the budget statement by the Executive Yuan, complete the auditing thereof in accordance with law, and submit an auditing report to the Legislative Yuan.

Article 106.—The organization of the Control Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER X

POWERS OF THE CENTRAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Article 107.—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the Central Government:

- (1) Foreign affairs.
 - (2) National defense and military affairs concerning national defense.
 - (3) Nationality law, and criminal, civil and commercial laws.
 - (4) Judicial organization.
 - (5) Aviation, national highways, State-owned railways, navigation, postal and telegraph services.
 - (6) Central Government finance and national revenues.
 - (7) Demarcation of national, provincial and hsien revenues.
 - (8) State-operated economic enterprises.
 - (9) Currency system and State banks.
 - (10) Weights and measures.
 - (11) Foreign trade policies.
 - (12) Financial and economic matters affecting foreigners or foreign countries.
 - (13) Other matters of the Central Government as stipulated in the Constitution.
- Article 108.*—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the Central Government, which may delegate their execution to the provincial and hsien governments:

- (1) General rules governing provincial and hsien self-government.
- (2) Division of administrative areas.
- (3) Forestry, industry and mining, and commerce.
- (4) Educational system.
- (5) Banking and stocks and commodities.
- (6) Navigation and deep sea fishing enterprises.
- (7) Public utilities.
- (8) Cooperative enterprises.
- (9) Water and land communication and transportation affecting two or more provinces.
- (10) Water conservancy, waterways and agricultural and pastoral enterprises affecting two or more provinces.
- (11) Registration and ranking, appointment, supervision and protection of officials in the Central and local governments.
- (12) Land legislation.
- (13) Labor legislation and other social legislation.
- (14) Eminent domain.

(15) Census-taking and compilation of statistics.

(16) Immigration and land reclamation.

(17) Police system.

(18) Public health.

(19) Ordinary relief, compensation, and unemployment relief.

(20) Preservation of ancient books, articles and monuments of cultural value.

With respect to the above-mentioned matters, the provinces may enact separate laws and rules, provided these do not contravene national laws.

Article 109.—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the provinces, which may delegate their execution to the hsien:

(1) Provincial education, public health, industries and communications.

(2) Management and disposal of provincial property.

(3) Administration of municipalities under provincial jurisdiction.

(4) Province-operated enterprises.

(5) Provincial cooperative enterprises.

(6) Provincial agricultural, forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry and public works.

(7) Provincial finance and revenue.

(8) Provincial debts.

(9) Provincial banks.

(10) Enforcement of provincial police administration.

(11) Provincial charitable and public welfare enterprises.

(12) Other matters delegated to the provinces in accordance with national legislation.

Except as otherwise provided for by law, any of the above-mentioned matters which concern two or more provinces may be undertaken jointly by the provinces concerned.

When any province, in undertaking matters in (1) of this Article experiences financial difficulties, it may, by resolution of the Legislative Yuan, receive a subsidiary from the National Treasury.

Article 110.—The following matters shall be legislated upon and executed by the hsien:

(1) Hsien education, public health, industries and communications.

(2) Management and disposal of hsien property.

(3) Hsien-operated enterprises.

(4) Hsien co-operative enterprises.

(5) Hsien agriculture and forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry, and public works.

(6) Hsien finance and revenue.

(7) Hsien debts.

(8) Hsien banks.

(9) Administration of hsien police and defense.

(10) Hsien charitable and public welfare enterprises.

(11) Other matters delegated in accordance with national legislation and the Provincial Self-Government Law.

Any of the above-mentioned matters covering more than two hsien may, except as otherwise provided for by law, be undertaken jointly by the hsien concerned.

Article 111.—Should there occur any matter not enumerated in Articles 107, 108, 109 and 110, the same shall fall within the jurisdiction of the Central Government if it is national in nature, of the province if it is provincial in nature, and of the hsien if it is hsien in nature. Any dispute over jurisdiction shall be settled by the Legislative Yuan.

CHAPTER XI

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

SECTION 1

THE PROVINCE

Article 112.—A province may convene a Provincial Assembly to enact, in accordance with the General Principles of Provincial and Hsien Self-Government, a Provincial Self-Government Law, provided the same does not contravene the Constitution.

The organization of the Provincial Assembly and the election of the Representatives shall be prescribed by law.

Article 113.—The Provincial Self-Government Law shall, *inter alia*, provide for the following:

(1) In each of the provinces, there shall be a Provincial Council. Members of the Provincial Council shall be elected by the people of the province.

(2) In each of the provinces there shall be a Provincial Government with a Provincial Governor, to be elected by the people of the province.

(3) Relationship between the province and the hsien.

The legislative power of the province shall be exercised by the Provincial Council.

Article 114.—The Provincial Self-Government Law, after enactment, shall be immediately submitted to the Judicial Yuan. The Judicial Yuan, if it deems any part thereof unconstitutional, shall declare null and void such Article or Articles as contravene the Constitution.

Article 115.—In the enforcement of the Provincial Self-Government Law, should a serious obstacle arise on account of any of its articles, the Judicial Yuan

shall first summon the parties concerned to present their views. Then the Presidents of the Executive Yuan, Legislative Yuan, Judicial Yuan, Examination Yuan and Control Yuan shall form themselves into a committee, with the President of the Judicial Yuan as chairman, to propose formulas for a solution.

Article 116.—Provincial laws and regulations that are in contravention of national laws shall be null and void.

Article 117.—In case of any doubt as to whether or not a provincial law or regulation contravenes a national law, an interpretation thereon shall be made by the Judicial Yuan.

Article 118.—The self-government of municipalities under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan shall be prescribed by law.

Article 119.—The local self-government system of the Mongolian leagues and banners shall be prescribed by law.

Article 120.—The self-government system of Tibet shall be safeguarded.

SECTION 2

THE HSIEN

Article 121.—The hsien shall enforce hsien self-government.

Article 122.—The hsien may convene a hsien assembly and enact, in accordance with the General Principles of Provincial and Hsien Self-Government, a Hsien Self-Government Law, provided the same does not contravene the Constitution or the Provincial Self-Government Law.

Article 123.—The people of the hsien shall, in accordance with law, exercise the rights of initiative and referendum in matters pertaining to hsien self-government, as well as the rights of election and recall of the magistrate and other hsien self-government officers.

Article 124.—In each hsien, there shall be a hsien council. Members of the hsien council shall be elected by the people of the hsien.

The legislative power of the hsien shall be exercised by the hsien council.

Article 125.—Hsien laws and regulations that are in contravention of national laws or provincial laws and regulations shall be null and void.

Article 126.—In each hsien, there shall be a hsien government with a hsien magistrate, to be elected by the people of the hsien.

Article 127.—The hsien magistrate shall attend to the enforcement of hsien self-government and to the execution of matters delegated by the Central and provincial governments.

Article 128.—The provisions governing the hsien shall apply *mutatis mutandis* to the municipality.

CHAPTER XII

SUFFRAGE, RECALL, INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM

Article 129.—The elections stipulated in the Constitution, except as otherwise provided for by the Constitution, shall be by universal, equal, and direct suffrage and by secret ballot.

Article 130.—Any citizen of the Republic of China having attained the age of twenty years shall have the right of suffrage in accordance with law. Except as otherwise provided for by law and by the Constitution, any citizen having attained the age of twenty-three years shall have the right to be elected to office in accordance with law.

Article 131.—All candidates in the elections prescribed in the Constitution shall openly campaign for election.

Article 132.—Intimidation and material inducements shall be strictly forbidden in elections. Election disputes shall be settled by the courts.

Article 133.—After being elected, a person may, in accordance with law, be recalled by his constituency.

Article 134.—In the elections, the minimum number of women to be elected shall be decided upon, and measures pertaining thereto shall be prescribed by law.

Article 135.—Regarding the number and election of Representatives for interior areas where a different mode of living obtains, necessary measures shall be prescribed by law.

Article 136.—The exercise of the rights of initiative and referendum shall be prescribed by law.

CHAPTER XIII

FUNDAMENTAL NATIONAL POLICIES

SECTION 1

NATIONAL DEFENSE

Article 137.—The National defense of the Republic of China shall have as its object the safeguarding of national security and the preservation of world peace.

The organization of national defense shall be prescribed by law.

Article 138.—The land, sea and air forces of the whole country shall be above personal, regional or party affiliations, and shall be loyal to the State and protect the people.

Article 139.—No political party or faction or private individual may make use of armed force as an instrument in the struggle for political power.

Article 140.—No person in active military service may concurrently hold a civil office.

SECTION 2

FOREIGN POLICY

Article 141.—In its external relations, the Republic of China shall, in keeping with a spirit of independence and on the basis of the principles of equality and reciprocity, cultivate good neighborliness with other nations, respect treaties and the United Nations Charter, protect the rights and interests of Chinese nationals residing abroad, promote international co-operation, and advance the cause of righteousness among nations and of world peace.

SECTION 3

NATIONAL ECONOMY

Article 142.—National economy shall be based on the Principle of the People's Livelihood and seek to effect equalization of land ownership and control over private capital in order to attain fair distribution and sufficiency in national economy.

Article 143.—All land within the territory of the Republic of China shall belong to the whole body of citizens. Private ownership of land, acquired by the people in accordance with law, shall be protected and restricted by law. Land owned by private individuals shall be liable to taxation, or government purchase, according to its value.

Mineral deposits and natural power which may be economically utilized for the public benefit shall belong to the State and shall in no way be affected by the people's acquisition of the right of ownership over the land in question.

If the value of any piece of land shall have increased not through the exertion of labor or the employment of capital, the State shall levy thereon an increment tax, the proceeds of which shall be used for public welfare.

In the distribution of land and adjustment of title deeds the State shall, as a matter of principle, assist tiller-owners and persons who make use of the land themselves, and shall also regulate the size of land appropriate for cultivation and other purposes.

Article 144.—Public utilities and other enterprises of a monopolistic nature shall, as a matter of principle, be under public

operation. They may, if permitted by law, be operated by the people.

Article 145.—With respect to private wealth and privately-operated enterprises, the State shall restrict them by law if they are deemed prejudicial to a balanced development of the national economy.

Cooperative enterprises shall receive the encouragement and assistance of the State.

Private productive enterprises and foreign trade shall receive the encouragement, guidance and protection of the State.

Article 146.—The State shall, by the use of scientific technique, undertake water conservancy projects, increase the productivity of land, improve agricultural conditions, plan the utilization of land, and develop agricultural resources in order to hasten the industrialization of agriculture.

Article 147.—The Central Government, in order to attain a balanced economic development of the provinces, shall give appropriate aid to economically poor provinces.

The provinces, in order to attain a balanced economic development of the hsien, shall give appropriate aid to economically poor hsien.

Article 148.—Within the territory of the Republic of China, goods of all kinds shall be permitted to move freely from place to place.

Article 149.—Financial institutions shall, in accordance with law, be subject to State control.

Article 150.—The State shall establish throughout the country special financial institutions to aid the unemployed.

Article 151.—With respect to Chinese nationals residing abroad, the State shall foster and protect the development of their economic enterprises.

SECTION 4

SOCIAL SECURITY

Article 152.—The State shall give adequate opportunity of employment to people who are capable of work.

Article 153.—The State, in order to improve the livelihood of laborers and farmers and to improve their productive skill, shall enact laws and carry out policies for their protection.

Women and children engaged in labor shall, according to their age and physical condition, be accorded special protection.

Article 154.—Capital and labor shall, in accordance with the principle of harmony and cooperation, promote productive enterprises. Mediation and arbitration of

disputes between capital and labor shall be prescribed by law.

Article 155.—The State, in order to promote social welfare, shall put into operation a Social Insurance System. To the aged, the infirm and the disabled among the people who are unable to earn a living, and to victims of natural calamities, the State shall give appropriate assistance and relief.

Article 156.—The State, in order to consolidate the foundation of national existence and development, shall protect motherhood and carry out the policy of promoting the welfare of women and children.

Article 157.—The State, in order to improve national health, shall extend throughout the country public health and medical services and the State Medicine System.

SECTION 5

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Article 158.—The nation's educational and cultural services shall have as their aim the development among the citizens of national characteristics, a democratic spirit, traditional morality, good physique, scientific knowledge and the ability to earn a living.

Article 159.—All citizens shall have an equal opportunity to receive education.

Article 160.—All children of school age, to wit, those from six to twelve years, shall receive free primary education. Those from poor families shall be supplied with textbooks at the expense of the government.

All citizens above school age who have not received primary education shall receive such education free of charge, and shall likewise be supplied with textbooks at the expense of the government.

Article 161.—Governments of various grades shall create scholarships to assist students of good scholastic standing and of exemplary conduct who lack the means to continue their school education.

Article 162.—All public and private educational and cultural institutions in the country shall, in accordance with law, be subject to State supervision.

Article 163.—The State shall pay due attention to the balanced development of education in different regions and shall promote social education in order to raise the cultural standard of the citizens in general. The National Treasury shall give cash grants to border regions and economically poor areas to help them meet their educational and cultural expenses. The Central Government may itself undertake the more important edu-

cational and cultural enterprises in such regions or give them financial assistance.

Article 164.—Expenditures for educational programs, scientific studies and cultural services shall be, in respect of the Central Government, not less than 15 percent of the total national budget; in respect of the provinces, not less than 25 percent of the total provincial budget; and in respect of the municipality or hsien, not less than 35 percent of the total municipal or hsien budget. Educational and cultural foundations established in accordance with law shall, together with their property, be protected.

Article 165.—The State shall safeguard the livelihood of those who work in the fields of education, sciences and arts, and shall, in accord with the development of the national economy, increase their remuneration from time to time.

Article 166.—The State shall encourage scientific discoveries and inventions and shall protect monuments and articles of historical, cultural or artistic value.

Article 167.—The State shall give encouragement or subsidies to the following enterprises or individuals:

(1) Private educational enterprises in the country which have a good record.

(2) Chinese educational enterprises abroad which have a good record.

(3) Persons who have made discoveries or inventions in the fields of learning and technology.

(4) Persons who have rendered long and meritorious service to the cause of education.

Article 168.—The State shall accord legal protection to the status of racial groups in the border regions, and shall give them special assistance in their local self-government undertakings.

Article 169.—The State shall positively undertake and foster the development of education, cultural services, communications, water conservancy, public health and other economic and social enterprises for the benefit of racial groups in the border regions. With respect to the utilization of land, the State shall, after taking into account local climatic conditions and the nature of the soil, and in the light of the living habits of the local people, adopt measures to protect the land and to assist in its development.

CHAPTER XIV

ENFORCEMENT AND AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION

Article 170.—The term "Law," as used in the Constitution, denotes any legislative bill that shall have been passed by the

Legislative Yuan and promulgated by the President.

Article 171.—Laws that are in contravention of the Constitution shall be null and void.

In case of any doubt as to whether or not a law is in contravention of the Constitution, interpretation thereof shall be made by the Judicial Yuan.

Article 172.—Ordinances that are in contravention of the Constitution or laws shall be null and void.

Article 173.—Interpretation of the Constitution shall be done by the Judicial Yuan.

Article 174.—Amendments to the Constitution shall be made in accordance with one of the following procedures:

(1) An amendment may be made upon the proposal of one-fifth of the total number of the delegates to the National Assembly and by a resolution of three-fourths of the delegates present at a meeting having a quorum of two-thirds of the entire Assembly.

(2) An amendment may be drawn up and submitted to the National Assembly for referendum upon the proposal of one-fourth of the Members of the Legislative Yuan and by a resolution of three-fourths of the Members present at a meeting having a quorum of three-fourths of the Members of the entire Yuan.

Such a proposed amendment to the Constitution shall be published at least six months before the National Assembly convenes.

Article 175.—Whenever necessary, enforcement procedures in regard to any matter prescribed in the Constitution shall be separately provided by law.

The preparatory procedure for the enforcement of the Constitution shall be decided upon by the same National As-

sembly which shall have adopted the Constitution.

TEMPORARY PROVISIONS DURING THE PERIOD OF NATIONAL CRISIS

*(Adopted by the National Assembly
on April 18, 1948)*

In accordance with the procedure stipulated in Paragraph 1 of Article 174 of the Constitution, the following temporary provisions to be effective during the period of national crisis are hereby enacted:

The President during the period of national crisis may, by resolution of the Executive Yuan, take emergency measures to avert imminent danger to the security of the State or of the people or to cope with any serious financial or economic crisis, without being subject to restrictions stipulated in Article 39 or Article 43 of the Constitution.

The emergency measures mentioned in the preceding paragraph may be modified or abrogated by the Legislative Yuan in accordance with Paragraph 2 of Article 57 of the Constitution.

The period of national crisis may be declared terminated by the President on his own initiative or at the request of the Legislative Yuan.

The President shall call an extraordinary session of the First National Assembly not later than December 25, 1950 to discuss all proposals pertaining to amendments to the Constitution. If at that time the period of national crisis has not yet been declared terminated in accordance with the foregoing provisions, the extraordinary session of the National Assembly shall decide whether or not the temporary provisions are to remain in force or to be abrogated.

CHAPTER 7

GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE

THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

The existing Chinese Government derives its mandate from the National Assembly, which, according to the constitution, exercises political powers on behalf of the people.

The National Assembly is composed of 3,045 delegates elected in November, 1947, on the basis of regional and vocational representation. Its powers are: (1) election of the President and the Vice-President; (2) recall of the President or the Vice-President; (3) amendment of the constitution, and (4) ratification of constitutional amendments proposed by the Legislative Yuan.

Delegates to the National Assembly serve for six years. They meet in the national capital 90 days prior to expiration of the President's term of office. Extraordinary sessions may be called (1) to hold a supplementary presidential election; (2) to institute an impeachment; (3) to act on constitutional amendments proposed by the Legislative Yuan, and (4) upon the petition of more than two-fifths of its delegates.

The first session of the Assembly was held in Nanking and lasted 34 days beginning March 29, 1948. On April 19, the Assembly elected Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek President of the Republic of China by 2,430 out of 2,761 votes. Chu Cheng, the only other candidate, received 296 votes. Thirty-five ballots were declared void.

The vice-presidential election required four ballotings for six candidates: Sun Fo, then president of the Legislative Yuan; General Li Tsung-jen, director of the President's office in Peiping; General Cheng Chien, director of the President's office in Hankow; Yu Yu-jen, president of the Control Yuan; Mo Teh-hui, non-partisan state councillor; and Hsu Fu-lin, a Democratic Socialist Party leader. The final ballot took place on April 29. General Li won with 1,438 votes against Dr. Sun's 1,295. The other candidates were

eliminated in the first three ballots. General Li was thus elected China's first vice-president under the new constitution.

President Chiang and Vice-President Li were inaugurated on May 20, 1948.

From April, 1947, to May, 1948, China was governed by a multi-party state council. This interim administration came into being exactly 19 years after the national government was established by the Kuomintang in Nanking. In this highest policy-making body, the Kuomintang had 12 seats; Democratic Socialists, four; the Young China party, four; and non-partisans, four. The presidents of the five Yuan were ex-officio members. The Chinese Communist party and their close associates in the Democratic League refused to join the state council, which was to have 40 members.

The executive branch, headed by General Chang Chun, had 14 ministers, three commission chairmen, and seven ministers without portfolio. The party line-up in this cabinet was as follows: Kuomintang, 14; Young China party, four; Democratic Socialists, two; and non-partisans, four. Representatives of the different groups were likewise elected to the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan.

THE PRESIDENCY

The President of the Republic of China, under the new constitution, wields such powers and performs such functions as are usually granted to the chief executive of a republic. He is the head of state and represents the nation in official foreign relations. He commands the land, sea and air forces; and, subject to the restraints of the Legislative Yuan, he exercises the powers of conclusion of treaties, declaration of war, and making of peace. Except as otherwise stipulated by law, he appoints and removes civil and military officers. He exercises the power of granting general amnesties, pardons, remission of sentences and restitution of civil rights in accordance with law. Also according to

law, he confers honors and awards decorations. His tenure of office is six years and is eligible only for a second term.

The temporary provisions adopted by the first session of the first National Assembly on April 18, 1948 granted the President emergency powers in the period of national crisis. (See text Chapter VI)

In the *Tsungtungfu* (President's Office), which was established to enable the President to discharge his duties in accordance with law, there are a secretary-general and a personal chief-of-staff of the President. Under them are six bureaux to attend to routine functions in the *Tsungtungfu*.

The organic law of the *Tsungtungfu* also provides that it shall have a number of *Chihcheng* (senior political advisors) to be chosen by the President from among persons of outstanding achievements and reputation, who may make recommendations to the President on major policies concerning affairs of the state.

In the *Tsungtungfu*, there are three committees, namely, the National Policy Advisory committee, the Military Strategy Advisory committee and the Decorations Examination committee. The Academia Sinica (National Academy of China), the National Institute of History, and the Sun Yat-sen Mausoleum committee come under the *Tsungtungfu*.

THE FIVE YUAN

The new Chinese Constitution is in essence based on Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Three People's Principles and the Five-Power System of Government. In his "Principle on the People's Rights," Dr. Sun pointed out that in order to exercise effective control over the government, the people should possess four political rights—namely, suffrage, recall, initiative and referendum. In the local government, these four rights are to be exercised directly by the people; while in the Central Government they are exercised indirectly through the National Assembly.

As to the system of government, Dr. Sun advocated that in addition to the executive, legislative and judicial powers, there should be the powers of examination and of control. The former refers to a system of open, competitive examination for aspirants to public offices, professional practitioners and technical personnel; the latter, a system of impeachment and of supervision of public functionaries. The five branches of the Chinese Government, which are in the form of five *Yuan* (councils), are independent of though coordinated with one another.

THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

Under the new constitution, the Executive Yuan is the highest administrative organ of the state. It has a president, a vice-president, 15 ministers, three commission heads and seven ministers without portfolio. The president of the Executive Yuan, whose position is comparable to that of a premier in other constitutional democracies, is appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Legislative Yuan. The vice-president, heads of the various ministries and commissions and ministers without portfolio are appointed by the President of the Republic upon the recommendation of the president of the Executive Yuan. They form the Executive Yuan Council with the yuan president as chairman.

The 15 ministries and three commissions are as follows:*

- (1) Ministry of the Interior;
- (2) Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
- (3) Ministry of National Defense;
- (4) Ministry of Finance;
- (5) Ministry of Education;
- (6) Ministry of Justice;
- (7) Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
- (8) Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
- (9) Ministry of Communications;
- (10) Ministry of Social Affairs;
- (11) Ministry of Water Conservancy;
- (12) Ministry of Land;
- (13) Ministry of Health;
- (14) Ministry of Food;
- (15) Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics;
- (16) National Resources Commission;
- (17) Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission;
- (18) Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission.

Directly under the Executive Yuan is a Government Information Office. The Executive Yuan, upon resolution by the Executive Yuan Council and the Legislative Yuan, may establish new ministries, commissions or other subordinate organs or abolish and amalgamate the existing ones. When necessary, it may also set up special committees.

Each ministry has a minister, a political vice-minister and an administrative vice-minister; each commission, a chairman and a vice-chairman; and the Government Information Office, a director and one or two deputy-directors. Weekly

* They were reduced to eight ministries and two commissions in October, 1949, because of expansion of communist control on the mainland.

meetings of the Executive Yuan Council are attended by all ministers with or without portfolio.

The duty of the Executive Yuan is to direct, coordinate and keep under constant review the work of its ministries, commissions and other subordinate organs, and either directly or through them, to exercise general supervision over the administration of the provinces and special municipalities. It also has the duty to regulate the inter-relations between the various ministries and commissions, and to examine their budgets, appointments and policies. Pending the establishment of local self-governments, it is to supervise the provincial and special municipal governments, review their progress, issue instructions on matters which they cannot decide for themselves, eliminate the overlapping of functions and prevent the shifting of responsibility.

In the discharge of his duties, the president of the Executive Yuan is assisted by a secretary-general and a deputy secretary-general who, with the assistance of secretaries and counsellors, dispose of routine matters. Important questions are always reserved for discussion at the Executive Yuan Council meetings. It is stipulated in the constitution that before submitting to the Legislative Yuan any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning the declaration of martial law, granting of general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties or other important affairs, or matters of common concern to the various ministries and commissions, the Executive Yuan shall present the said bill to the Executive Yuan Council for discussion and decision.

According to the constitution, the president of the Executive Yuan is responsible to the Legislative Yuan in the following manner:

(1) The Executive Yuan is required to submit to the Legislative Yuan its administrative policies and reports. Members of the Legislative Yuan, at its sessions, have the right to interpellate the president and the heads of the various ministries and commissions of the Executive Yuan.

(2) If the Legislative Yuan does not concur in any important policy of the Executive Yuan, it may, by resolution, ask the Executive Yuan to alter it. However, the Executive Yuan may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, ask the Legislative Yuan for its reconsideration. If after a reconsideration two-thirds of the attending members of the Legislative Yuan uphold the original reso-

lution, the president of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

(3) If the Executive Yuan deems a resolution passed by the Legislative Yuan or a statutory, budgetary or treaty bill too difficult to carry out, it may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, ask the Legislative Yuan for a reconsideration within ten days after the delivery of the said resolution to the Executive Yuan. If, after reconsideration, two-thirds of the attending legislators uphold the original resolution, the president of the Executive Yuan shall either abide by the same or resign.

THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

The Legislative Yuan, the highest legislative organ of the land, has 773 popularly elected members. It has a president and a vice-president elected by and from among its members, who serve a term of three years and are eligible for re-election.

Members of the present Legislative Yuan were elected in January, 1948. A total of 622 members was elected on a regional basis; 62 were chosen by Chinese nationals residing abroad and by those living in Tibet, Mongolia and other border regions, and 89 by various vocational groups.

As it is now constituted, the Legislative Yuan has 21 committees in charge of (1) domestic affairs and local self-government, (2) foreign affairs, (3) national defense, (4) economic affairs and national resources, (5) finance and banking, (6) budget, (7) education and culture, (8) agriculture, forestry and water conservancy, (9) communications, (10) social affairs, (11) labor, (12) land administration, (13) public health, (14) frontier affairs, (15) overseas Chinese affairs, (16) maritime affairs, (17) food administration, (18) civil code, (19) criminal code, (20) commercial code, and (21) law codification.

Each of these committees has an unspecified number of members. Each member of the Legislative Yuan may serve on as many as three committees at the same time.

The Legislative Yuan has the power to decide upon any statutory or budgetary bill or any bill concerning martial law, ment officials as well as private citizens general amnesty, declaration of war, conclusion of peace, treaties and other important affairs of the state. At its meetings the presidents of the various yuan concerned and the heads of the various ministries and commissions may be

enjoined to answer questions or to present their views on bills under discussion. Its various committees may summon government to appear at their meetings for interpellation and consultation.

According to the constitution, the Legislative Yuan shall hold two regular sessions a year, to be convened by itself. The first session shall last from February to the end of May, and the second session from September to the end of December. Whenever necessary, a session may be extended. It may convene an extraordinary session at the request of the President of the Republic or upon the petition of more than one-fourth of its own members.

Bills passed by the Legislative Yuan are sent to the President of the Republic and to the Executive Yuan. The President shall, within 10 days after their receipt, promulgate them. In case of a difference of opinion concerning questions of major policy and legislation, the president of the Executive Yuan may, with the approval of the President of the Republic, ask the Legislative Yuan for a reconsideration. If the latter upholds its earlier resolution by a two-thirds vote at a meeting attended by three-fourths of its entire membership, the president of the Executive Yuan must either abide by the resolution or resign.

Bills presented to the Legislative Yuan are first examined by the relevant committees before they are brought up before the full yuan meeting for deliberation. In case of an emergency, the bills go directly to a yuan meeting of the whole. Bills initiated by its own members are first discussed by a yuan meeting of the whole and usually goes through three readings. The first reading is more or less a formal procedure. The second reading is more important because then discussions and debates take place. At the third reading, the discussion and amendments are limited to the phraseology of the articles and clauses or to other technicalities. Finally a vote is taken. A simple majority of the members present decides the issue. In case of a tie, the presiding officer casts the deciding vote. The president usually presides. In case he is absent, the vice-president acts on his behalf.

The Legislative Yuan has been one of the five branches of the Chinese Government since 1928. Until its reorganization in May, 1948, it exercised limited powers. It had the power to deliberate on national budgets, general amnesty, declarations of war, the negotiation of peace and other important affairs of the state. Basic policy in these matters, however, were decided by the Kuomintang's Political Committee

before the war, by the Supreme National Defense Council during the war, and by a State Council in the first three years after the war. Whenever a bill was introduced, the old Legislative Yuan could only change its contents, but not its principles. On matters of foreign policy and treaty-making, the Legislative Yuan was only an advisory body on technicalities and had no power to make final decisions.

THE JUDICIAL YUAN

The Judicial Yuan is the highest judicial organ of the state and has jurisdiction over the enforcement of civil, criminal and administrative laws and over disciplinary cases involving public functionaries. It has a president and a vice-president appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

The president of the Judicial Yuan is assisted by a secretary-general in the disposal of Yuan affairs and supervision of subordinate officials, and by eight counsellors in the drafting of bills and decrees.

The Judicial Yuan is composed of a Council of Grand Justices, a Supreme Court, an Administrative Court and a Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

The Council of Grand Justices, over which the president of the Yuan presides, has 17 members appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan. The Grand Justices are vested with the power to interpret the constitution and to unify the interpretations of laws and decrees. By September, 1948, 12 Grand Justices had been duly appointed.

The Ministry of Justice, which used to be a part of the yuan, was transferred to the Executive Yuan in January, 1943, following the abrogation of extraterritoriality once enjoyed by foreign nationals in China.

Because of their eminent position, the organic law of the Judicial Yuan is most specific and exacting regarding the qualifications of the Grand Justices. To qualify for office, one must have served as a Supreme Court judge for at least 10 years, or as a Legislative Yuan member for at least nine years, or as a judge in the Permanent Court of International Justice, or must have written authoritative works on public law or comparative law. Other qualifications which count toward an appointment are experience in teaching courses of jurisprudence in national universities for at least 10 years, experience in the practice of law, or in political affairs. Those qualifying under any one

group of prerequisites should not exceed one-third of the total number of the Grand Justices. The Grand Justices serve a term of nine years.

On September 16, 1948, the Judicial Yuan announced a set of regulations governing the Council of Grand Justices which specify, among other things, that at least a majority of the Grand Justices must be present to constitute a quorum for business. All resolutions must also be approved by a majority of the attending Grand Justices.

The regulations further provide that any resolution pertaining to the interpretation of the constitution or concerning cases in which laws or local self-government laws are found to be in conflict with the national charter must have the approval of more than one-half of the entire council. Any central or local organ may request an interpretation of a point in law, whether it be a point in the application of the constitution or on a law or decree in contravention of the constitution.

From 1945 to June, 1948, the Judicial Yuan disposed of 1,295 cases involving the interpretation of laws and decrees. Parties requesting such interpretations included judicial organs and representative bodies of the people. Most of the points in dispute concerned criminal laws and regulations.

(For details on Chinese courts and prisons, see chapter on "Judicial Affairs and Police").

THE EXAMINATION YUAN

The Examination Yuan is entrusted with the power of conducting civil service examinations and of determining the qualifications of professional practitioners and technical personnel. Its president, vice-president and 19 commissioners are appointed by the President of the Republic with the consent of the Control Yuan.

The Examination Yuan Council, which is composed of the president and the vice-president of the Yuan and the commissioners, has overall charge of matters pertaining to examinations. The commissioners are independent of party affiliations and, in accordance with law, have independence in the exercise of their functions. Their term of office is six years.

The Examination Yuan has two organs, namely, the Ministry of Examinations and the Ministry of Personnel. Each is headed by a minister and two vice-ministers. The former attends to matters pertaining to the examination of public functionaries, professional practitioners and technical personnel. The latter is in

charge of registering public functionaries, checking their service records, determining their qualifications for proper ranking and promotion, demotion, transfer, discharge, service security, and retirement.

There are three kinds of examinations: the high examination, the ordinary examination, and special examination. The Ministry of Examination is in charge of all administrative work concerning these examinations. When an examination is about to take place, two special organs are set up: a supervisory committee to prepare questions, to grade examination papers and to pick the successful candidates; and a business department to look after routine affairs such as arranging examination halls and the custody of examination papers.

The ordinary examination is conducted once or twice a year in the national capital, in the various provinces, or in regions designated by the Examination Yuan. The high examination takes place either once a year or once every two years in the national capital and in such regions as may be designated by the Examination Yuan. Special examinations are held occasionally to meet the demand of certain specific services under the central or local governments. Successful candidates are referred to the Ministry of Personnel for registration and appointment.

The difference between the ordinary and high examinations lies in the fact that the former is to select civil servants for delegated appointments, while the latter is to select officials of recommended appointments.*

The number of persons who have passed public examinations can be seen from the table on page 161.

Any citizen who is in good physical condition, has not been deprived of his civil rights, has not misappropriated public funds, is not facing corruption charges, and is not addicted to opium or other narcotics, is entitled to participation in civil service examinations. However, more specific qualifications are required for special examinations. For instance, candidates for the ordinary examination, besides meeting the above general qualifications, must fulfill one of the following prerequisites:

(1) Graduation from a government or a private middle school approved by the government and must have its diploma;

(2) An education equivalent to that of the above-mentioned middle school, and

* Appointments in the civil branch of the Chinese Government are in the following orders: special, selected, recommended and delegated.

Kind of Examinations	Successful Candidates
Examination of Candidates for Public	
Elective Posts (1941-47)	2,733,738
1st Class	583,124
2nd Class	2,150,614
Examination of Candidates for Government	
Appointment (1931-1947)	155,691
High Examination	3,746
Ordinary Examination	5,352
Special Examination	146,593
Examination of Professional and Technical	
Personnel (February, 1942-47)	35,536
Lawyers	1,775
Accountants	1,167
Agricultural Technicians	1,045
Industrial Technicians	2,478
Mining Technicians	58
Medical Personnel	11,441
Herb Doctors	17,572
Total	2,924,965

Source: Examination Yuan

must pass the regional preliminary test;

(3) Service as a hired clerk for the government for a period of not less than three years.

In regard to higher examination, one of the following prerequisites will suffice:

(1) Graduation from a college or technical school of university standing (either in China or abroad) approved by the Ministry of Education;

(2) An education equivalent to that stated in (1);

(3) Technical knowledge equivalent to the above gained through experience as indicated in writing, which has been approved by the Ministry of Examination;

(4) Successfully passing the ordinary examination four years previously, or by a delegated appointment, or fulfillment of a similar post for not less than three years.

The Examination Law for Technical Personnel, promulgated by the National Government on September 24, 1942, applies to professional and technical personnel of the following five categories:

(1) Lawyers and accountants;

(2) Agricultural, industrial and mining technicians;

(3) Doctors, pharmacists, dentists, veterinarians, midwives, nurses, and assistant pharmacists;

(4) Maritime and river navigators, steamship pilots and aircraft pilots;

(5) Other professional and technical men and women, who, according to law, must have government certificates.

THE CONTROL YUAN

The Control Yuan is the highest supervisory organ of the state and exercises the powers of consent, impeachment, censure and auditing. It is composed of 223 members elected by provincial and municipal councils, the local district councils of Mongolia and Tibet and overseas Chinese communities.* Its president and vice-president are elected by and from among its members, whose term of office is six years, and are eligible for re-election. During their term of office, members of the Control Yuan are not allowed to hold any other public office or to participate in private practice.

In exercising its right of consent to the appointments of the presidents and the vice-presidents of the Examination Yuan and the Judicial Yuan, 17 Grand Justices and 19 Examination Commissioners, the Control Yuan decides by a majority vote of the attending members. In exercising the power of impeachment, the Control Yuan may make inquiries and look into the files of government organs.

Public functionaries of all ranks, guilty of a breach of law or dereliction of duty, come within the power of impeachment of the Control Yuan. When the Control Yuan finds a public functionary in the central or local government to be guilty

* The allotment of seats in the Control Yuan is as follows: each province, five; each municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the central government, two; Mongolian Leagues and Banners, eight; Tibet, eight; and Chinese nationals residing abroad, eight.

of dereliction of duty or to have violated a law, it may propose corrective measures or institute an impeachment. If the criminal law is involved, the case will be turned over to a law court.

The Control Yuan has 10 committees. They are: domestic affairs and land administration, foreign relations and overseas Chinese affairs, national defense, finance and food, economic affairs and national resources, education, communications, judicial affairs, social affairs and public health, and Mongolian and Tibetan affairs. They are to check on the various government organs to see whether they have failed in their duties or committed any act in violation of law. On the basis of the investigations and the resolutions of its committees, the Control Yuan may propose corrective measures to the Executive Yuan and its ministries and commissions concerned, with the request that improvements be effected. If a criminal law is involved, the case will be turned over to a law court.

According to the constitution, any impeachment of a public functionary in the central or local government should be instituted upon the recommendation of more than one member of the Control Yuan and endorsed by at least nine or more members. An impeachment of the President or the Vice-President of the Republic should be instituted upon the proposal of more than one-fourth of the entire membership of the Control Yuan and subject to the approval of a clear majority. The impeachment must be brought before the National Assembly for deliberation.

The country is divided into 16 supervisory districts, each administered by three commissioners elected by and from among members of the Control Yuan. They are: (1) Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai, (2) Honan, Shantung, (3) Shansi, Shensi, Suiyuan, (4) Yunnan, Kweichow, (5) Kwangtung, Kwangsi, (6) Hupeh, Hunan, (7) Anhwei, Kiangsi, (8) Fukien, Taiwan, (9) Kiangsu, Chekiang, (10) Hopei, Jehol, Chahar, (11) Szechwan, Sikang, (12) Liaoning, Antung, Liaopei, (13) Sinkiang, (14) Kirin, Sunkiang, Hokiang, (15) Nunkiang, Heilungkiang, Hingan, (16) Tibet.

Individual members of the Control Yuan may bring written charges against any functionary. Such a charge must be accompanied by a statement of the case and supporting evidence. Upon receipt of such a charge nine members of the Control Yuan are assigned to investigate. If a majority agree to the charges, the accused is either disciplined by competent authori-

ties or tried according to law. If a majority adjudges the accused innocent, and if the supervisory member of the Control Yuan, who is the plaintiff, disagrees, the Control Yuan may assign nine other supervisory members to review the case and make a final decision. The president of the Control Yuan has no right to interfere in such decisions.

The supervisory members may either base their impeachment charges on their own information or on accusations of the people. Complaints may also be lodged by any government office against any public official. In either case, the Control Yuan will appoint nine members to conduct an investigation.

Although the Control Yuan has power to impeach any public functionary, it possesses no judicial power. When an impeachment is instituted, its prosecution is referred either to disciplinary or judicial authorities for action according to the nature of the offense. The president of the Control Yuan is responsible only for the administrative work of the Yuan. He cannot interfere with the discharge of duties by the individual members of the Yuan.

POWER OF AUDIT

The Control Yuan exercises power of audit through the Ministry of Audit, which has 12 provincial departments which enjoy a status similar to that of supervisory commissioners' offices. It also maintains auditing offices in all governmental organs which deal with financial matters. The power of audit includes (1) supervising the execution of budgets, (2) examining orders for receipts and disbursements, (3) checking preliminary and final accounts, and (4) investigating questionable financial procedures.

The auditors have the power of investigation, before and after public money is spent. The ministry, with the assistance of provincial auditing departments and visiting auditors, may select any government office for supervision and auditing. They have the right to demand the surrender of books, vouchers, and documents at any time. Before payments can be made orders issued by financial organs for the payment of funds, and receipts and requisition statements of all government organs must be signed by the auditors in accordance with their budgetary estimates.

As the Ministry of Audit functions under the jurisdiction of the Control Yuan, any breach of law, negligence of duty, or irregularities in financial matters must be brought to the attention of the Yuan for impeachment or other disciplinary action.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF THE CONTROL YUAN
(July, 1937 - December, 1947)

Year	Impeachment		Censure		Recommendation		Supervision of Examination	Petitions Received from the People
	Number of Cases	Number of Persons Impeached	Number of Cases	Number of Persons	Number of Cases	Number of Items		
July-Dec.								
1937.....	46	71	44	64	44	54	..	1,427
1938.....	32	48	65	118	143	145	59	1,680
1939.....	50	92	84	124	108	129	79	1,424
1940.....	56	111	75	106	88	90	111	2,533
1941.....	45	69	109	171	159	202	132	2,454
1942.....	57	107	166	273	162	170	128	4,804
1943.....	53	78	79	163	130	130	67	5,265
1944.....	51	88	110	241	82	105	42	3,190
1945.....	82	150	214	413	137	149	74	4,650
1946.....	153	217	228	453	144	185	147	6,733
1947.....	163	300						14,096
TOTAL.....	788	1,331	1,174	2,126	1,197	1,359	839	48,256

Source: Control Yuan

DEMARCATON OF POWERS

The demarcation of authority between the province and the Central Government, based on the principle of equal distribution, is carefully defined by the constitution. It may be summarized as follows:

(1) Matters that should be governed and executed by the Central Government include: foreign affairs, national defense, nationality law, civil, criminal and commercial laws, judicial system, weight and measures, policies on international trade, currency system and state banks, national finance and revenue, state-operated enterprises, financial and economic matters of an international nature, aviation, national highways, state-owned railways, navigation, postal service and telegraph service, and those mentioned in the constitution.

(2) Matters that should be passed upon and executed either by the Central Government or delegated to the provincial and *hsien* governments include: general rules governing provincial and *hsien* self-government, division of administrative areas, forestry, mining and commerce, educational system, banking and exchange systems, shipping and coastal fishery, public utilities, cooperative enterprises, water conservancy, inter-province communication and transportation, land legislation, labor legislation, census-taking, civil service, eminent domain, immigration and land reclamation, police system, public health, general relief, compensation and unemployment relief, and preservation of ancient books, articles and landmarks of cultural value.

(3) Matters to be decided and executed by the provincial government or delegated to the *hsien* government for execution, besides those granted by the national government, include: provincial education, public health, industries and communications, management and disposal of provincial property, provincial and municipal administration, province-operated enterprises, provincial cooperative enterprises, provincial agriculture, and forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry and provincial public works, provincial finance and revenue, provincial banks, provincial debts, enforcement of provincial police administration, provincial charitable and public welfare enterprises.

(4) Matters that should be passed upon and executed by the *hsien* include: *hsien* education, public health, industries, and communications, management and disposal of *hsien* property, *hsien*-operated enterprises, *hsien* agriculture and forestry, water conservancy, fishery and animal husbandry and *hsien* public works, *hsien*

finance and revenue, *hsien* debts, *hsien* banks, administration of *hsien* policing and defense, *hsien* charitable and public welfare enterprises and those delegated by national legislation and the provincial laws.

All other matters not mentioned above shall fall within the jurisdiction of the Central Government if they are of a national nature, to the provinces if they are of a provincial nature, and to the *hsien* if they are of a *hsien* nature.

LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Administratively, China is divided into 35 provinces and the territory of Tibet each with its local government. Pending the establishment of popularly elected provincial governments in accordance with the new constitution, the present local administrations are based on the "Revised Organic Law of the Provincial Governments," promulgated by the National Government on March 23, 1931.

The provincial government administers all those affairs within its boundaries in accordance with the fundamentals of national reconstruction and the laws and mandates of the national government. It has the power to issue such ordinances and regulations necessary for the administration of its affairs so long as they do not conflict with the laws of the national government. Ordinances and regulations restricting the people's freedom and increasing the people's tax burden may not be enforced without the approval of the national government. It has the authority to rescind and nullify orders and measures enacted by its subordinate organs if it should deem them contrary to existing laws and orders, exceeding the jurisdiction or competence of the organizations in question, or unconstitutional.

Each provincial government has from seven to nine members, all appointed by the national government, who form the provincial commission. The chairman (governor) of the provincial government is appointed by the national government from among members of the provincial commission. Neither the chairman nor the members of the provincial commission may hold concurrent posts in another province. The provincial commission may decide on the following matters:

(1) Enactment of ordinances and regulations necessary for the welfare of the provinces and passing upon orders and measures issued by its subordinate organs;

(2) Increasing or decreasing the people's tax burden;

(3) Setting up of administrative districts;

(4) Preparing budgetary estimates;

(5) Disposing of public property and planning of provincial enterprises;

(6) Execution of matters assigned to it by the national government;

(7) Supervision of local self-government;

(8) Provincial administrative measures or alterations;

(9) Transfer of national troops from one part of the province to another and the supervision of local armed units for the maintenance of peace and order;

(10) Appointment and removal of all officials in and under the provincial government upon the approval of the national government;

(11) Other matters which fall within the province of the provincial commission.

The chairman of the provincial government has the following powers:

(1) To summon and preside over provincial commission meetings;

(2) To execute decisions of the provincial commission on behalf of the provincial government;

(3) To supervise the functions of all administrative organs in the province;

(4) To handle routine and emergency matters of the provincial government.

The provincial government has the following departments: (1) secretariat; (2) civil affairs; (3) finance; (4) education; (5) reconstruction.

Whenever necessary, it may organize an industry department and other special offices. The secretariat is run by a secretary-general under orders from the chairman of the provincial government. Each of the regular departments has a commissioner, to be selected from among members of the provincial commission by the national government on recommendation of the Executive Yuan. In case of departmental dispute over the question of competence, the provincial government refers the matter to the Executive Yuan for a settlement. By-laws of the various departments are reviewed by the provincial commission.

THE MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

The existing "Organic Law of the Municipalities" was promulgated by the national government on May 20, 1930, and revised in 1947. In accordance with this law, there are two kinds of municipalities, special and ordinary. Special municipalities, so called because they are under the direct control of the Executive Yuan, comprise (1) the national capital, (2)

cities that have a population of 1,000,000 or more; and (3) cities that possess special political, economic and cultural importance. There are at present 12 special municipalities—namely, Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Chungking, Dairen, Harbin, Hankow, Canton, Sian and Mukden.

Ordinary municipalities, which are under the jurisdiction of their respective provincial governments, comprise (1) seats of provincial governments, (2) cities that have a population of over 200,000 and (3) cities that possess special political, economic and cultural importance, and have a population of over 100,000. There are at present 55 ordinary municipalities.*

Municipalities, special and ordinary, are divided into a number of *chu* (districts). In theory, a *chu* comprises 10 to 30 *pao*, a *pao* consists of 10 to 30 *chia*, and a *chia* 10 to 30 households. The borders of municipal areas are decided, in the case of special municipalities, by the central government at the instance of the Executive Yuan; those of the ordinary municipalities, by the central government at the instance of the Executive Yuan and upon the recommendation of the provincial governments concerned.

Within the scope set by laws and orders issued by the central government and their superior organs, the municipality may undertake the following matters:

(1) Census-taking and personnel registration;

(2) Relief of orphans, the aged, paupers and victims of floods, famines and other calamities;

(3) Storage and regulation of food supplies;

(4) Agricultural, industrial, and commercial reform and protection;

(5) Labor administration;

(6) Afforestation, reclamation, animal husbandry, fishing and hunting, and measures for their protection and the suppression of harmful practices;

(7) Supervision of privately-owned public utilities;

(8) Organization and direction of co-operatives and mutual-help enterprises;

* The 55 ordinary municipalities are: Hsuehchow, Lienyun, Hangchow, Pengpu, Nanchang, Wuchang, Changsha, Hengyang, Chengtu, Tzeliutsing, Foochow, Amoy, Taipei, Keelung, Hsinchu, Taichung, Changhua, Chiayi, Tainan, Kaohsiung, Pingtung, Swatow, Chankiang (Kwangchowwan), Kweilin, Kunming, Kweichow, Tangshan, Shihchiachuang, Tsinan, Chefoo, Waihaiwei, Taiyuan, Lanchow, Sining, Paotow, Shenpa, Kweisui, Kalgan, Chinchow, Yingkow, Anshan, Lushun (Port Arthur), Tunghua, Antung, Szepingkai, Kirin, Changchun, Mutankiang, Yenki, Kiamussu, Peian, Tsitsihar, Hailar, Tihwa, and Yingchuan.

- (9) Customs reform;
- (10) Educational and other cultural activities;
- (11) Public safety;
- (12) Fire prevention service;
- (13) Public health;
- (14) Establishment of hospitals, marts, abattoirs and places of public amusements;
- (15) Compilation of financial receipts and expenditures, preliminary and final budgetary estimates;
- (16) Management of public property and its disposal;
- (17) Undertaking and management of public enterprises;
- (18) Land administration;
- (19) Building of public houses, parks, public athletic grounds and public cemeteries and their maintenance;
- (20) Assisting the people in house-construction and the suppression of illegal practices;
- (21) Building of roads, bridges, sewage systems, embankments and other public works of civil engineering;
- (22) Management of rivers, harbors, and navigation;
- (23) Functions assigned by superior organs;
- (24) Other duties which, according to the constitution, should be undertaken by the municipality.

The revenues of the municipality shall be derived from the following sources:

- (1) Land tax; (2) House tax; (3) Business tax; (4) License tax; (5) Advertising tax; (6) Income from public property; (7) Income from public enterprises; (8) Other taxes and levies authorized by law.

In the first two items of income, various stipulations of law shall be adhered to. The municipality may issue reconstruction bonds in accordance with law.

The municipal government is headed by a mayor. In a special municipality, the mayor is appointed by the central government at the instance of the Executive Yuan. In an ordinary municipality the mayor is appointed by the Central Government at the instance of the Executive Yuan upon the recommendation of the provincial government concerned.

The municipal government has a secretary-general, two counsellors and the following bureaus, each headed by a director: (1) Social Welfare; (2) Police; (3) Finance; (4) Public Works.

Whenever necessary, the municipal government, upon approval by its superior organ, may have the following additional bureaus: (1) Education; (2) Public Health; (3) Land; (4) Public Utilities; (5) Harbor; (6) Civil Affairs.

It may also employ a number of technical personnel.

THE *Hsien* GOVERNMENT

The organization of the *hsien* government and its component parts is stipulated in the "Organic Outline of Various Units in the *Hsien*," generally known as the "New *Hsien* System," which was promulgated by the national government in September, 1939. But because of the Sino-Japanese War and the subsequent communist rebellion, not all of the nation's 2,023 *hsien* have adopted the new system.

The *hsien* (county) is the basic unit of local self-government. It is rapidly becoming more representative of the people. Each *hsien* in turn may be broken into classes, depending on its area, population, economic conditions, cultural status, and communication facilities. There are the *hsiang* (rural areas) or *chen* (urban areas). The *hsiang* and *chen* are further divided into *pao* (borough) and *chia* (ward). If a *hsien* is unusually large, it may be divided into a number of *chu* (district).

Each *hsien* government has a magistrate, who administers all its affairs as well as orders of the central government and the provincial government. Under his supervision are bureaus to handle matters of civil affairs, finance, education, economic reconstruction, military affairs, land administration and social welfare.

The *hsien* that has adopted the new system also has a representative council formed by delegates from each *hsiang* (or *chen*), and from its professional groups. The delegates from professional groups shall constitute about three-tenths of the entire membership of the council.

In August, 1947, when the communists launched their all-out armed rebellion, the central government circulated an order among all the *hsien* in the country relieving the magistrates of the obligation to take orders from local military commanders, and limiting the maximum number of concurrent posts that a magistrate might hold. At the same time, the Executive Yuan ordered them to increase their sources of revenue so as to place themselves on a more self-supporting basis.

An experimental *hsien* was founded in north China by Dr. James Yen, internationally-known proponent of mass education, and Liang Su-ming, a noted scholar. Both Yen and Liang believe that the task of rebuilding the nation should start from the village up. Hence, they sought to promote mass education and develop the rural economy as a step toward administrative reforms in the local government.

With public and government support before the war, Yen and his associates selected Tinghsien in Hopei for their experiment, while Liang started his work in 1933 in Tsouping and Hotze in Shantung. In 1937 the central government undertook similar work in 17 *hsien* in 11 provinces.

In an experimental *hsien*, which is usually larger in area than an ordinary one, its magistrate is given a wider scope of power. He is free to disregard any instructions from his superiors if he deems them inimical to local interests. Financially, such a *hsien* is better off because of its own special funds.

The preparatory *hsien* is a transitional administrative unit. It assumes the status of a full-fledged *hsien* after it attains a certain degree of progress and development. It is often found in the interior where conditions are still largely primitive. Its establishment or abolition is decreed by the Executive Yuan upon the recommendation of the provincial government concerned.

OFFICE OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE COMMISSIONER

Most of China's provinces are large in size. In order to facilitate their control, the office of administrative commissioner was created in 1936 to provide an additional link between the provincial government and its *hsien* governments. The number of such offices in a province is determined by its size and population.

The administrative commissioner, who commands the police and peace preservation corps in his area, is appointed by the Executive Yuan for the provincial government. He is empowered to investigate, direct and supervise the functioning of his *hsien* government. He has the power to suggest reforms to the provincial government to improve conditions under his jurisdiction. He may also submit reports to the provincial government on developments.

He is required to make frequent tours to the various *hsien* under his control. He is authorized to convene conferences of magistrates, functionaries of local self-governing organs and representatives of public bodies to discuss ways and means of improving the local administration.

LOCAL REPRESENTATIVE BODIES

THE PROVINCIAL COUNCIL

In September, 1938, two months after the first People's Political Council held its inaugural session, the national govern-

ment promulgated a set of regulations governing the organization of provisional provincial councils. The regulations for provincial councils were promulgated on April 14, 1941.

According to the new regulations, all Chinese over 25 years of age, regardless of sex, who have had a middle school education or its equivalent, are eligible to become councillors. They must fulfill either of the following two qualifications: (1) they must be natives of the province concerned, and have served with distinction for more than two years in public or private organizations in that province; (2) if they are not natives they must have served with distinction for more than two years in an important cultural and economic organization in the province. The councillors are chosen on geographical and vocational basis, the ratio for the two being 6 to 4. Candidates of the former group are nominated by the *hsien governments* after consultation with leading civic bodies.

The term of office of the councillors is one year, and their tenure may be prolonged whenever the Executive Yuan deems it necessary. They meet once every six months, each session lasting for two weeks. The Council has a speaker and a deputy speaker. More than half of the councillors constitutes a quorum. A majority vote of those present is necessary to pass a resolution.

During its recess, the Council maintains a resident committee of five to nine members, elected from among themselves, to hear official reports and to supervise the enforcement of its resolutions by the provincial government.

Before executing any important administrative measures, the provincial government is required to present it to the provincial council for discussion and decision. If the council is in recess, the provincial government must obtain approval from the Executive Yuan for any emergency action and report the matter to the body at its next session. The council has power to make proposals to the provincial government, to hear reports and interpellate members of the provincial government. If the provincial government should find any resolution of the council impossible to execute, it may ask for a reconsideration at its next session. If two-thirds of the councillors present upholds the original decision, the provincial government, unless authorized by the Executive Yuan to do otherwise, is obligated to enforce the measure.

Up to the end of 1948, provincial councils had been established in 21 provinces,

while nine other provinces had set up provisional provincial councils. The Szechwan Provincial Council is the largest with 80 councillors. Those in Ningsia, Chinghai and Suiyuan are among the smallest, each having only 20 councillors.

THE MUNICIPAL COUNCIL

Up to August, 1948, municipal councils had been established in nine cities: Nanking, Shanghai, Chungking, Tsingtao, Hankow, Sian, Peiping, Mukden and Tientsin, and a provisional municipal council in Canton. Their organization was based on the regulations enacted by the government in September, 1938, and revised on April 14, 1941. These regulations were essentially the same as those governing the organization of provisional provincial council.

There are three differences: the size of the municipal council is fixed at 25; the number of councillors which the Executive Yuan may appoint, other than candidates submitted by the municipal government, must not exceed 10 percent of the entire council, and the ratio of councillors chosen by the citizens at large and those representing the vocational groups must be 7 to 3.

THE *Hsien* (COUNTY) COUNCIL

As of August, 1948, there were 1,789 *hsien* councils throughout the country, established in accordance with regulations promulgated on August 9, 1941. Each council, as the representative organ of the people in the *hsien*, has the power to examine and pass on its budgetary estimates; decide on ordinances and regulations, taxes, bonds, and other matters concerning the increase of the *hsien* revenue, suggest new projects and reforms and hear administrative reports and interpellate members of its *hsien* government.

The *hsien* council is composed of delegates elected by the *hsiang* (or *chen*) councils in the *hsien*. Each *hsiang* (or *chen*) elects one delegate. The vocational groups in the *hsien* may also elect their own delegates but their number must not exceed 30 percent of the entire *hsien* council. The term of office of councillors is two years, and they are eligible for re-election. Their original electorate, the *hsiang* (or *chen*) council or vocational groups, may recall them by a two-thirds vote at a meeting attended by more than half of the members. The *hsien* council's speaker and deputy-speaker are elected by secret ballot by its members from among themselves.

The council meets once every three months for three to seven days; the session may be prolonged whenever necessary. A majority of the membership constitutes a quorum. A majority vote is required to pass a motion. The council may ask the magistrate, secretary or section chiefs in the *hsien* government to be present at its session to render reports or to answer interpellations. Its councillors are not to be held responsible for their utterances or votes in the council, and, without the consent of the *hsien* council, no councillor may be arrested or detained.

The council forwards its decisions to the *hsien* magistrate for enforcement. If there is a delay in their enforcement or if they are improperly enforced, the council may demand an explanation. If the magistrate's explanation is considered unsatisfactory, it may submit the matter to the provincial government for decision. On the other hand, if the magistrate deems any resolution by the council as improper, he may state his reasons and ask the council for its reconsideration. If he considers the result still improper after the reconsideration, he may petition the provincial government for instructions. If the council passes any resolution contradictory to the Three People's Principles, or the national policy, the provincial government may submit the case to the Ministry of Interior. With the approval of the Executive Yuan, it may dissolve the council and order the election of a new council.

Residents of a *hsien* above 25 years of age, upon passing the examination for council candidates or who qualify by other means, are eligible to serve as *hsien* councillors. Ineligible for such office are: students, public functionaries in the *hsien*, and those in active military or police service.

THE *Hsiang* (OR *Chen*) COUNCIL

On August 9, 1941, the Government promulgated regulations governing the organization of the provisional *Hsiang* (or *Chen*) Council. Each *hsiang* (or *chen*) shall have a representative council to be composed of two delegates from each component *pao*, elected by its residents. Up to August, 1948, 31,072 such councils had been established throughout the country. Their powers and functions limited to *hsiang* (or *chen*) matters are as follows:

- (1) To examine and decide budgetary estimates;
- (2) To decide on the management and disposal of public property and public enterprises;

(3) To decide on local self-government rules and regulations;

(4) To decide on agreements with other *hsiang* (or *chen*);

(5) To decide on suggestions of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chiefs;

(6) To elect or recall the *hsiang* (or *chen*) chiefs;

(7) To elect or recall its delegates to the *hsien* council;

(8) To hear reports from the *hsiang* (or *chen*) office and to interpellate members of the *hsiang* (or *chen*) office;

(9) To decide on new projects and reforms for the *hsiang* (or *chen*).

The term of office of its councillors is two years. They are eligible for re-election. If they violate any laws or are negligible in their duty, they may be recalled by their original electorate. The council meets once every two months. Half of the councillors constitutes a quorum. All resolutions must be carried by a majority vote. In recalling a *hsiang* (or *chen*) delegate from the *hsien* council, however, a two-thirds vote of those present shall be required. The qualifications and election of *hsiang* (or *chen*) councillors are the same as those of *hsien* councillors.

THE *Pao* GENERAL COUNCIL

Each *pao* shall have a council to be composed of one delegate from each of its component households. Its functions and powers shall be:

(1) To decide on *pao* and *chia* regulations within its jurisdiction;

(2) To decide on agreements with other *pao*;

(3) To act on suggestions of its chief or those raised by five or more of its residents;

(4) To draft or recruit people for labor;

(5) To elect or recall delegates to the *hsiang* (or *chen*) council;

(6) To elect or recall its chief and deputy chiefs;

(7) To hear reports and interpellate the *pao* office;

(8) To decide on new *pao* projects or reforms.

The council meets once every month, and must be attended by more than half of its councillors. Its resolutions must be approved by a majority vote of those present. As of August, 1948, there were 393,824 such councils in the country.

THE *Chia* COUNCIL

The *chia* has two representative organs. First is the council, which meets once a

month, and is composed of the various household heads. Its functions and powers are:

(1) To elect and recall the *chia* chief;

(2) To enforce law and order;

(3) To inspect and report census changes in the *chia*;

(4) To decide on sanitation and health matters;

(5) To suggest new projects or reforms in the *chia*.

The other is the *chia* residents' meeting. Whenever its chief deems it necessary, or whenever more than ten residents so request, the residents may be summoned to a meeting to decide on important projects or to effect essential changes in its administration.

LOCAL SELF-RULE

Under the new constitution a province is entitled to enact, in accordance with the "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government," a provincial charter which, however, must not contravene the constitution.

This provincial charter shall provide for the election of a governor and a provincial council, and define the relationship between the province and the *hsien*. It vests all legislative powers in the province to the provincial council.

After its enactment, the charter must be submitted immediately to the Judicial Yuan for approval. Provincial laws and regulations that are in contravention of national laws are null and void. In case of doubt as to whether or not a provincial law or regulation contravenes a national law, interpretation is left to the Judicial Yuan.

Similarly, a *hsien* may convene an assembly to adopt its charter in accordance with the "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government" law, but the same shall not contravene either the constitution or the provincial charter. Each *hsien* shall have a popularly elected council and a popularly elected magistrate. The legislative power of the *hsien* shall be exercised by its council. The magistrate shall enforce its charter and execute matters delegated by the central or the provincial government.

People in a *hsien* have the rights of initiative and referendum, and may elect and recall their magistrate and other *hsien* officials. *Hsien* laws and regulations that are in contravention of national or provincial laws and regulations are null and void.

The same provisions of *hsien* self-government shall apply to the ordinary

municipalities. The self-government system of Tibet, the Mongolian Banners and Leagues, and of the special municipalities under the direct control of the Executive Yuan shall be prescribed separately by law.

The "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government" were still in the process of legislation as of September, 1948. The Legislative Yuan selected one of four different drafts for publication early in August.

The general rules contain 77 articles, grouped under seven chapters: general provisions, residents and citizens, self-government affairs, self-government organization, self-government finances, supervision over self-government, and by-laws.

The first chapter covering general provisions states among other things that self-governments at all levels are juristic persons. They may administer local affairs in accordance with law and attend to matters assigned to them by their superior government organs.

The second chapter defines the rights and duties of the residents and the citizens. All citizens of the Republic of China residing in a province or *hsien* are residents of that province or *hsien*. Only those who have attained the age of 20 years, who are bona fide citizens of the state, and who have resided continuously for six months, or established their domiciles for more than a year, in a province or a *hsien* are citizens of the said province or *hsien*. All residents are entitled to the use of public utilities, educational facilities, and the privileges provided by the local government, but only citizens have the right of election, recall, initiative and referendum.

The powers of a provincial government and those of a *hsien* government are enumerated in the third chapter. They are essentially the same as those provided in Article 108 of the constitution, which clarifies the powers of the central and the local governments.

The fourth chapter has six sections, each covering a separate local self-government machine:

(1) **The Provincial Council:** The provincial council shall be composed of one delegate from each *hsien* or municipality, elected by the people thereof for a term of three years. Where the population of a *hsien* or a municipality exceeds 500,000, an additional delegate shall be elected. If necessary, a specified number of councillors shall be women or representatives of the vocational groups or minority racial groups.

The provincial council has the power to enact provincial laws and regulations, to decide provincial budgetary matters, taxes, bonds, ways and means to increase revenue, management and disposal of provincial public property and public enterprises, hear its administrative reports and interpellate the members of its local government.

(2) **The Provincial Government:** The provincial government shall be headed by a governor elected by the people of the province for a term of four years. He is subject to recall and removal by the central government if he violates the constitution or national laws and regulations. He may be removed from his post if he wilfully disobeys, or totally neglects, to carry out government assignments.

(3) **The *Hsien* Council:** The *hsien* council shall be composed of one delegate from each *hsiang* or *chen*, elected by the people thereof for a term of two years. Where the population of a *hsiang* or *chen* exceeds 30,000, one additional delegate shall be elected. A specified number of these councillors may be women or representatives of the vocational groups or minority racial groups.

The *hsien* council has the power to enact *hsien* laws and regulations, decide on budgetary estimates, taxes, bonds, methods to increase the revenue, management and disposal of property and public enterprises, hear its government reports and interpellate members of its government and to hear the appeals of its people.

(4) **The *Hsien* Government:** The *hsien* government shall have a magistrate elected by its people for a three-year term, subject to recall by the people and removal by its provincial government for transgression in any one of the following:

1. He continues to violate the constitution or national laws and regulations despite a Judicial Yuan edict forbidding him to do so;

2. He is convicted of a criminal offense;

3. He wilfully disobeys, or totally neglects, to carry out central government or provincial government assignments.

(5) **The *Hsiang* (or *Chen*) Council:** The *hsiang* (or *chen*) council shall be composed of one delegate from each *pao* elected by the people of the *hsiang* or *chen* for a term of one year. The *hsiang* or *chen* council shall have the power to decide on its budgetary estimates, local self-government rules and regulations; agreements with other *hsiang* or *chen*; hear reports from the *hsiang* or *chen* office; and other local matters.

(6) **The *Hsiang* or *Chen* Office:** The *hsiang* or *chen* office shall have a chief

elected by the people of the *hsiang* or *chen* for a one-year term to carry out its local self-government affairs and matters assigned by the *hsien* government.

The chapter on self-government finance lists in full the sources of revenue for the local governments of all levels. The provincial government shall receive all revenues derived from the business tax, 40% of the receipts from the tax on native wines and tobaccos, 20% of the stamp tax collections, proceeds from province-owned public property and from province-operated enterprises, 50% of the land tax (or farm tax) and other taxes raised in accordance with the laws and subsidies granted by the central government.

The *hsien* government shall be allocated 50% of the receipts of the land tax (or farm tax), 50% of the inheritance tax, 40% of the tax on natives wines and tobaccos, 30% of the stamp tax, the entire receipts of the title deeds tax, butchery tax, license fee, feasting tax, amusement tax, and proceeds from *hsien*-owned public property and *hsien*-operated public enterprises, and receipts of other taxes raised in accordance with law and subsidies designated by the Central and the provincial governments.

The *hsiang* or *chen* office shall derive its main source of revenue from tax receipts allocated by the *hsien* council, proceeds from the *hsiang* or *chen* public property and public enterprises, and taxes created by the *hsiang* or *chen* council with the approval of the *hsien* government.

The sixth chapter states that the Executive Yuan shall be the supervisory organ of the provincial self-government; and the provincial government shall be that of the *hsien* self-government; and the *hsien* government, that of the *hsiang* or *chen* self-government.

The chapter also declares that if the governor or the *hsien* magistrate should deem any resolution by the provincial or *hsien* council as improper, he may submit his reasons to the provincial or *hsien* council concerned for a reconsideration within 15 days after the resolution is passed. If the latter upholds its earlier decision by a two-thirds vote of members present, he has to abide by the resolution. Disputes between the *hsiang* or *chen* council and the *hsiang* or *chen* chief shall be settled by the *hsien* government.

The last chapter provides for the amendment of the laws of the provincial and *hsien* self-governments. Such an amendment may be made upon the suggestion of one-fourth of the total number of members of the provincial or *hsien* council, and by a resolution carrying a vote of

three-fourths of the delegates present at a meeting attended by a quorum of three-fourths of the entire council.

The domestic affairs and local self-government committee of the Legislative Yuan also had under study a bill on the law enforcement procedures of the provincial and *hsien* self-government. Among its provisions are:

(1) Within three months after the promulgation of the "General Rules of Provincial and *Hsien* Self-Government," the organic laws of their assemblies and their election by-laws, the provincial and *hsien* governments shall order separate elections of their assembly delegates.

(2) Within one month after the elections are held, the provincial and *hsien* governments shall summon their assemblies to meet to adopt their provincial and *hsien* self-government laws.

(3) Within three months after these provincial and *hsien* self-government charters are adopted, the provincial and the *hsien* governments shall order separate elections of the councillors, the governor and the *hsien* magistrate.

(4) Within two months following the election of the provincial councillors, the provincial government shall summon its council to meet.

Within one month after the election of the *hsien* councillors, the *hsien* government shall summon its council to meet.

(5) Within one month after the inauguration of the provincial and the *hsien* councils, the governor and the magistrate shall assume office to form their popularly elected governments.

(6) In provinces and *hsien* where local self-rule cannot be established within the time prescribed because of unstable conditions, the inauguration of local self-rule in said provinces or *hsien* may be postponed by permission of the higher authorities.

GOVERNMENT DIRECTORY October 1949

President of the Republic of China:
Chiang Kai-shek (elected March, 1948)

Vice-President: Li Tsung-jen*

Yuan Presidents:

Executive: Yen Hsi-shan
Legislative: Tung Kwan-hsien
Judicial: Wang Chung-hui
Examination: Chang Po-ling
Control: Yu Yu-jen

The Executive Yuan (Cabinet)

President: Yen Hsi-shan

Vice-President: Chu Chia-hua

* Acted for President Chiang from January 21, 1949, to February 28, 1950.

Ministers without Portfolio:

Chang Chun, Wu Te-chen, Chen Li-fu,
Hsu Yung-chang, Huang Shao-ku,
Wang Ssu-tseng, Wan Hung-tu

Ministers:

Interior: Li Han-huen
Foreign Affairs: George K. C. Yeh
National Defense: Yen Hsi-shan
Finance: Kwan Chi-yu
Economic Affairs: Liu-Hang-shen
Communications: Tuan-mu Chieh
Education: Han Lih-wu
Justice: Chang Chih-pen

Chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs
Commission: Chou Kun-tien

Chairman, Overseas Chinese Affairs

Commission: Tai Kwei-sheng

Military and Political Affairs Director-General:

For Central China: Pai Chung-hsi

South China: Yu Han-mou

Northwest: Ma Pu-fang

Southwest: Chang Chun

Southeast: Chen Cheng

APPENDIX*The Organic Laws of the Tsungtungfu
and the Five Yuan***THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE*****Tsungtungfu*****(The Office of the President)**

Article 1—To enable the President of the Republic to discharge his duties in accordance with the Constitution, a *Tsungtungfu* shall be established.

Article 2—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a number of advisors, to be chosen by the President of the Republic from among persons of outstanding achievement and high reputation. They may make recommendations to the President on major policies concerning affairs of the State and shall be ready for consultation by the President.

Article 3—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a secretary-general with the special appointment rank. He shall, under the direction of the President, have general charge of the affairs of the entire *Tsungtungfu* and shall also direct and supervise its staff members.

The *Tsungtungfu* shall also have a deputy secretary-general with the selected appointment rank to assist the secretary-general in handling affairs in the *Tsungtungfu*.

Article 4—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a Director-General of Military Affairs with the special appointment rank, who under the direction of the President, shall be in charge of military affairs in the *Tsungtungfu*.

Article 5—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have the following bureaus and offices:

1. The First Bureau shall attend to promulgating laws, decrees and other public announcements, drafting and safe-keeping official documents, and shall have custody of seals and conference minutes.

2. The Second Bureau shall attend to drafting confidential documents, examining, initiating and forwarding confidential matters, and studying and organizing research materials.

3. The Third Bureau shall attend to promulgating military orders, forwarding military documents and other matters concerning military dispatches.

4. The Fourth Bureau shall attend to arranging ceremonies, reviewing troops, conducting presidential tours, awarding decorations, undertaking protocol activities and receiving foreign dignitaries.

5. The Fifth Bureau shall attend to the making of official seals, the making and distribution of decorations, medals, pennants and memorial badges, the compiling and publishing of laws and regulations promulgated by the *Tsungtungfu* the compiling and distribution of official bulletins, rosters and the standardization of forms to be used in official business.

6. The Sixth Bureau shall attend to general affairs, finances, registering guests, public relations, and other matters concerning transportation, public health and medicine.

7. The Code Office shall attend to the sending and receiving of confidential telegraphic messages.

8. The Office of Guards shall attend to guard duties.

Article 6—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a Presidential Seal Keeper, an office to be held concurrently by the director of the First Bureau, who shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, keep custody of the National Seal.

Article 7—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have from 12 to 18 secretaries with the selected appointment rank, who shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, draft and check important documents and undertake other special assignments.

Article 8—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have from four to six counsellors with the selected appointment rank, who shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, draft mandates, study plans and programs and deliberate on matters specially assigned to them. If necessary, the *Tsungtungfu* also shall have from three to seven special consultants either with the selected appointment rank or the recommended appointment rank to help attend to their duties.

Article 9—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have 14 editors, of whom four may have the

selected appointment rank, and the rest the recommended appointment rank. The editors shall, under the direction of the secretary-general, examine and edit regulations and by-laws submitted to the *Tsungtungfu* for registration and the administrative reports of the various government organizations.

Article 10—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have from 10 to 15 military aides to be appointed from among officers of the general rank in active service in all three branches of the armed forces. They shall, under the direction of the Director-General of Military Affairs, handle military matters and undertake special assignments.

Articles 11-19—[Stipulate in greater detail the number of officials, their functions, ranks and positions in the six bureaus, the Code Office and the Office of Guards.]

Articles 20-23—[Stipulate that in the *Tsungtungfu*, there shall be a personnel office, an accounting office, a statistics office, a contingent of guards, and a band.]

Article 24—The *Tsungtungfu* shall have a number of councillors to be appointed by the President.

Article 25—In the *Tsungtungfu*, there shall be a National Policy Advisory Committee and a Military Strategy Advisory Committee, the organization of both of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 26—In the *Tsungtungfu*, there shall be a Merits Examination Committee, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 27—The Academia Sinica, the Institute of National History, and the Sun Yat-sen Mausoleum Administration shall be subordinate to the *Tsungtungfu*. Their organization shall be prescribed by law.

Article 28—Administrative rules and regulations of the *Tsungtungfu* shall be drafted by the secretary-general and submitted to the President for approval and enforcement.

Article 29—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree.

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE EXECUTIVE YUAN

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 61 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Executive Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—The Executive Yuan shall establish the following ministries and commissions:*

- (1) The Ministry of the Interior;
- (2) The Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
- (3) The Ministry of National Defense;
- (4) The Ministry of Finance;
- (5) The Ministry of Education;
- (6) The Ministry of Justice;
- (7) The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
- (8) The Ministry of Industry and Commerce;
- (9) The Ministry of Communications;
- (10) The Ministry of Social Affairs;
- (11) The Ministry of Water Conservancy;
- (12) The Ministry of Land;
- (13) The Ministry of Health;
- (14) The Ministry of Food;
- (15) The National Resources Commission;
- (16) The Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission;
- (17) The Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission;
- (18) The Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics.

The organization of the various ministries and commissions shall be prescribed by law.

Article 4—The heads of all the ministries and commissions of the Executive Yuan shall be Ministers of State. The Executive Yuan shall have from five to seven Ministers of State without portfolio.

Article 5—The Executive Yuan shall establish a Government Information Office, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.**

Article 6—The Executive Yuan, upon resolutions by the Executive Yuan Council and the Legislative Yuan, may establish new ministries, commissions or other subordinate organs or abolish and amalgamate the existing ones.

Article 7—The president of the Executive Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the entire yuan and supervision over all its subordinate organs. In case the President of the yuan should be unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 8—At Executive Yuan Council meetings, officials concerned may be invited to be present for consultation.

* In March, 1949, the Ministries of Agriculture and Forestry, Social Affairs, Water Conservancy, Land, Health, and Food, and the National Resources Commission were abolished in accordance with a policy of retrenchment. The Ministry of Industry and Commerce was reorganized into the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

** The Government Information Office was reorganized in March, 1949, into a much smaller office, and the director of the office no longer holds a ministerial rank as he did when the office was first established in 1947.

Article 9—In the Executive Yuan there shall be a secretary-general of the special appointment rank and a deputy secretary-general of the selected appointment rank. The secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer yuan affairs and direct and supervise the subordinate officials. The deputy secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president, assist the secretary-general in administering yuan affairs. The secretary-general and the deputy secretary-general shall be present at Executive Yuan Council meetings.

Article 10—In the Executive Yuan, a secretariat shall be formed to attend to the following matters:

- (1) Keep conference minutes;
- (2) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;
- (3) Distribute, draft and organize official documents;
- (4) Keep custody of official seals;
- (5) Attend to finance and general affairs.

Article 11—In the Executive Yuan there shall be: from 16 to 20 secretaries, of whom 10 shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest of the recommended appointment rank; from 15 to 20 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 50 to 80 section members of the designated appointment rank, of which 20 to 30 may be of the recommended appointment rank; and from 30 to 40 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 40 to 50 employees.

Article 12—In the Executive Yuan there shall be from 8 to 12 counsellors of the selected appointment rank who shall attend to the following matters:

- (1) Draft bills and decrees;
- (2) Examine administrative rules and regulations;
- (3) Examine administrative programs and work reports of subordinate organs;
- (4) Conduct investigations;
- (5) Make plans and edit and translate materials.

To assist the counsellors in attending to the matters mentioned in the preceding sections, there shall be from 10 to 20 editors of the recommended appointment rank and from 10 to 20 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 15 to 25 employees.

Article 13—The Executive Yuan, to handle cases of petition, shall establish a Petitions Examination Committee, members of which shall be designated by the president of the yuan from among the yuan staff members of the selected appointment rank.

Article 14—The Executive Yuan may form committees to attend to specific matters.

Article 15—In the Executive Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office and a personnel office to attend to budgets and accounts, statistics, and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

In the accounting office there shall be: a chief accountant of the recommended appointment rank; from 6 to 8 section members of the designated appointment rank; and from 2 to 4 clerks. In addition, there may be from 2 to 4 employees.

In the statistics office there shall be: a chief statistician of the recommended appointment rank; from 3 to 5 section members of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be 2 to 3 employees.

In the personnel office there shall be: a director of the recommended appointment rank; from 8 to 11 section members and from 3 to 6 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 1 to 3 employees.

Article 16—Procedural by-laws of the Executive Yuan Council and administrative regulations of the yuan shall be prescribed by the yuan.

Article 17—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a government mandate on May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence with the appointment of the president of the Executive Yuan under the new constitution.)

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE LEGISLATIVE YUAN

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 76 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Legislative Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—The Legislative Yuan shall have the following committees:

- (1) Domestic Affairs and Local Self-Government;
- (2) Foreign Affairs;
- (3) National Defense;
- (4) Economic Affairs and National Resources;
- (5) Financial Affairs and Money and Banking;
- (6) Budget;
- (7) Education and Culture;
- (8) Agriculture, Forestry and Water Conservancy;
- (9) Communications;
- (10) Social Affairs;

- (11) Labor;
- (12) Land Administration;
- (13) Public Health;
- (14) Frontier Affairs;
- (15) Overseas Chinese Affairs;
- (16) Maritime Affairs;
- (17) Food Administration;
- (18) Civil Code;
- (19) Criminal Code;
- (20) Commercial Laws;
- (21) Law Codification.

When necessary, additional or special committees may be formed in the Legislative Yuan.

Article 4—The various committees in the Legislative Yuan shall be composed of people from among the Legislative Members. Each Legislative Member may serve on three committees at the same time.

Article 5—The various committees in the Legislative Yuan shall each have conveners; their number and the method of their selection shall be determined by the Legislative Yuan.

Article 6—Each of the committees in the Legislative Yuan shall have from one to three technical consultants of the Selected Appointment rank to attend to the study and drafting of legislative bills.

Article 7—The organization of committees in the Legislative Yuan shall be determined by law.

Article 8—Bills initiated by government organs in accordance with provisions of the constitution should first be examined by the relevant committees before they are presented before the yuan meeting for deliberation. If necessary, however, these bills may be directly presented to the yuan meeting for deliberation.

Bills initiated by Legislative Members shall be first introduced to the Yuan meeting for deliberation.

Article 9—Any bill presented to the Legislative Yuan in accordance with provisions of the constitution, pending resolutions thereupon, may be amended or withdrawn by the party which presented it.

Article 10—No Legislative Yuan meeting shall be convened unless it is attended by one-fifth of the entire membership of the yuan.

Article 11—Legislative Yuan meetings shall be presided over by the president of the yuan.

Article 12—Resolutions at Legislative Yuan meetings, except as otherwise stipulated in the constitution, shall be adopted by a simple majority of the members present. In case of a tie, the president of the yuan shall make the final decision.

Article 13—No Legislative Member may move to oppose any resolution adopt-

ed in his absence at a yuan or a committee meeting.

Article 14—Legislative Members shall abstain from voting when they themselves are the subjects of bills under discussion.

Article 15—Any statutory bills proposed for deliberation must have the joint signature of at least 30 Legislative Members.

Article 16—The Legislative Yuan shall hold open sessions. But upon the proposal of the presiding officer or that of more than one-tenth of the attending members, it may hold secret sessions.

The president of the Executive Yuan may also request the holding of a secret session.

Article 17—Order at Legislative Yuan meetings shall be maintained by the presiding officer. In case any Legislative Member violates the rules of procedure or otherwise obstructs the order of the meeting, the presiding officer may warn the said member or forbid him from making further utterances. Punishment shall be meted out to offenders in more serious cases.

Such punishment shall be deliberated upon by a disciplinary committee formed by the conveners of the various committees and shall be submitted to a Legislative Yuan meeting for final decision.

Article 18—The President of the Legislative Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the entire yuan.

In case the president of the Legislative Yuan is unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 19—In the Legislative Yuan, there shall be a secretary-general with the special appointment rank and a deputy secretary-general with the selected appointment rank, to be recommended by the president of the yuan from among persons other than members of the yuan for appointment.

The secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the Legislative Yuan, administer the yuan affairs and direct and supervise the subordinate officials. The deputy secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, assist the secretary-general in the administration of the yuan affairs.

Article 20—The Legislative Yuan shall have a secretariat composed of several divisions to attend to the following matters:

- (1) Arrange the agenda for yuan meetings;
- (2) Keep records of yuan meetings;
- (3) Send, receive and file correspondence and documents;

(4) Distribute, draft and compile correspondence and documents;

(5) Keep custody of official seals;

(6) Administer finance and general affairs;

(7) Maintain guard duties.

Article 21—[Stipulates the personnel composition of the secretariat.]

Article 22—The Legislative Yuan shall have an editorial department to attend to the following matters:

(1) Compile and publish laws and regulations of the nation;

(2) Compile and translate the laws of other countries;

(3) Gather reference materials;

(4) Handle special editorial assignments;

(5) Maintain library service.

Article 23—[Stipulates the personnel composition of the editorial department.]

Article 24—[Stipulates that in the Legislative Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office and a personnel office.]

Article 25—The Legislative Yuan may have from 16 to 24 technical experts.

Article 26—Rules of procedure and administrative regulations of the Legislative Yuan shall be prescribed by the Legislative Yuan.

Article 27—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a Government mandate of May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence on May 8, 1948.)

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE JUDICIAL YUAN

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 82 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Judicial Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—In the Judicial Yuan, there shall be a Council of Grand Judges to be composed of 17 members and to exercise the functions of interpreting the Constitution and unifying the definition of laws and ordinances.

The Council of Grand Judges shall be presided over by the president of the Judicial Yuan.

Article 4—The Grand Judges must have one of the following qualifications:

(1) Have served as Supreme Court judges for no less than 10 years;

(2) Have served as Legislative Members for no less than 9 years;

(3) Have taught principal courses of jurisprudence in national universities for no less than 10 years;

(4) Have served as judges in the Permanent Court of International Justice or have written authoritative works on public law or comparative laws;

(5) Have studied law, are rich in political experience and are widely known for their achievements.

The number of those who fulfill only one of the preceding qualifications shall not exceed one-third of the total number of Grand Judges.

The Grand Judges shall each serve a term of nine years.

Article 5—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be a Supreme Court, an Administrative Court and a Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries.

The organization of the above-mentioned Courts and Commission shall be determined by law.

Article 6—The president of the Judicial Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the entire yuan, and have supervision over its subordinate organs.

In case the president of the Judicial Yuan is unable to attend to office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 7—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be a Secretary-General. He shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer the yuan affairs and supervise the subordinate officials.

Article 8—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be a secretariat to attend to the following matters:

(1) Keep conference minutes;

(2) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;

(3) Distribute, draft and organize official documents;

(4) Keep custody of official seals;

(5) Attend to financial and general affairs.

Article 9—In the secretariat there shall be from 8 to 12 secretaries, of whom six shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest of the recommended appointment rank; from 3 to 6 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 30 to 50 section members of the designated appointment rank, 15 of whom may be of the recommended appointment rank; three stenographers of the designated appointment rank; from 25 to 35 clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 25 to 35 other employees.

Article 10—In the Judicial Yuan there shall be from 6 to 8 counsellors of the selected appointment rank to draft and supervise bills and decrees.

Article 11—In the Judicial Yuan there

shall be an accounting office, a statistics office, and a personnel office to attend to budgets and accounts and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

In the accounting office there shall be a chief accountant of the selected appointment rank. The offices of statistics and personnel shall each have a chief of the recommended appointment rank. Other officials shall be decided by the president of the yuan, together with the organs concerned, from among the personnel allotted by Article 9 of this law.

Article 12—The administrative regulations of the Judicial Yuan shall be prescribed by the Yuan.

Article 13—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a government mandate of May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence with the appointment of the president of the Judicial Yuan under the new constitution.)

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE EXAMINATION YUAN

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 89 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Examination Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—In the Examination Yuan there shall be 19 Examination Commissioners, whose term of office shall be 6 years.

Article 4—The Examination Yuan Council, to be composed of the president and the vice-president of the yuan and the Examination Commissioners, shall have overall charge of matters pertaining to examinations. The president of the yuan shall preside over the council meetings.

Article 5—In the Examination Yuan there shall be a Ministry of Examinations and a Ministry of Personnel Registration.

Article 6—The Ministry of Examinations shall attend to the following matters:

- (1) Hold examinations for public functionaries;
- (2) Hold examinations for professional practitioners and technical personnel;
- (3) Organize examination committees;
- (4) Compile names of successful candidates for approval;
- (5) Arrange details relating to the holding of examinations.

Article 7—The Ministry of Personnel Registration shall attend to the following matters:

- (1) Registration of public functionaries;
- (2) Registration and classification of candidates successful in examinations;

(3) Checking and registering work records of public functionaries;

(4) Appointment and discharge of public functionaries;

(5) Promotion, demotion and transfer of public functionaries, and the determination of their qualifications for proper ranking;

(6) Checking and registering salaries and commendations of public functionaries;

(7) Protection, compensation, retirement, and pension of public functionaries;

(8) Supervision over the personnel offices of various government organizations.

Article 8—The organization of the Ministry of Examinations and the Ministry of Personnel Registration shall be prescribed by law.

Article 9—The president of the Examination Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the yuan and have supervision over its subordinate organs. In case the president of the yuan is unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 10—The term of office of the president and the vice-president of the Examination Yuan shall be six years.

Article 11—In the Examination Yuan there shall be a secretary-general of the special appointment rank, who shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer the Yuan affairs and direct and supervise the subordinate officials.

Article 12—In the Examination Yuan there shall be a secretariat to attend to the following matters:

- (1) Keep conference minutes;
- (2) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;
- (3) Distribute, draft and compile official documents;
- (4) Keep custody of official seals;
- (5) Attend to financial and general affairs.

Article 13—In the secretariat there shall be from 8 to 12 secretaries, of whom six shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest, of the recommended appointment rank; from 5 to 7 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 45 to 60 section members of the designated appointment rank, of whom 6 to 10 may be of the recommended appointment rank; from 5 to 10 clerks of the designated appointment rank; from 20 to 30 assistants of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 30 to 40 other employees.

Article 14—In the Examination Yuan there shall be from 6 to 8 counsellors of the selected appointment rank to draft

and supervise bills and decrees relating to examinations and rank classification.

Article 15—In the Examination Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office, and a personnel office to attend to budgets and accounts, statistics and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

The offices of accounting, statistics and personnel shall each have a chief of the recommended appointment rank. Other officials shall be decided by the president of the yuan, together with the organs concerned, from among the personnel allotted by Article 13 of this law.

Article 16—When necessary, the Examination Yuan may organize various committees, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 17—The Examination Yuan may establish in each province a department of personnel registration, the organization of which shall be prescribed by law.

Article 18—While holding examinations, the Examination Yuan may obtain the service of personnel from other government organizations on a loan basis.

Article 19—In the appointment of public functionaries, except as otherwise provided by law, the Examination Yuan may, without going through the procedure of disciplinary action, recommend demotion or discharge of any official found deficient in his prescribed qualifications.

Article 20—Rules of meetings and administrative regulations of the Examination Yuan shall be prescribed by the Yuan.

Article 21—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a Government mandate of May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence with the appointment of the president of the Examination Yuan under the new constitution.)

THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE CONTROL YUAN

Article 1—This law is enacted in accordance with Article 106 of the constitution.

Article 2—The Control Yuan shall exercise such powers as are authorized by the constitution.

Article 3—The Control Yuan may organize various committees, the organization of which shall be separately prescribed by law.

Article 4—In the Control Yuan there shall be a Ministry of Audit to attend to the following matters:

(1) Supervision over the execution of budgets by all government organs in the country;

(2) Ratification of orders of receipt and payment of all government organs;

(3) Examination of the preliminary and final budgetary statements of all government organs;

(4) Investigation of violations of fiscal measures or malfeasance of duties on the part of any government organ in the country.

The organization of the Ministry of Audit shall be prescribed separately by law.

Article 5—The Auditor-General shall have general charge of the affairs of the Ministry of Audit.

Article 6—The president of the Control Yuan shall have general charge of the affairs of the yuan and have supervision over its subordinate organs.

In case the president of the Control Yuan is unable to attend office due to any cause, the vice-president of the yuan shall act in his place.

Article 7—The Control Yuan Council shall be composed of the president and the vice-president of the yuan and all the Control Members with the president of the yuan as its chairman.

Article 8—The Control Yuan may, in case of necessity, divide the country into zones and establish provisional offices therein. The organization of these offices shall be prescribed separately by law.

Article 9—In the Control Yuan there shall be a secretary-general of the special appointment rank, who shall be selected by the president of the yuan from among persons other than Control Members for appointment by the government.

The secretary-general shall, under the direction of the president of the yuan, administer the affairs of the Control Yuan and direct and supervise all its subordinate officials.

Article 10—In the Control Yuan there shall be a secretariat to attend to the following matters:

- (1) Keep conference minutes;
- (2) Undertake investigations and collect relevant data;
- (3) Send, receive and safekeep official documents;
- (4) Distribute, draft and compile official documents;
- (5) Keep in custody official seals;
- (6) Attend to finance and general affairs.

Article 11—In the Control Yuan there shall be from 4 to 6 counsellors to draft and supervise bills and decrees relating to control affairs.

Article 12—In the Control Yuan there shall be: from 8 to 12 secretaries, of whom six shall be of the selected appoint-

ment rank and the rest, of the recommended appointment rank; from 8 to 16 investigators, of whom six shall be of the selected appointment rank and the rest, of the recommended appointment rank; from 4 to 6 section chiefs of the recommended appointment rank; from 2 to 4 stenographers, of whom two shall be of the recommended appointment rank and the rest, of the designated appointment rank; from 40 to 50 section members of the designated appointment rank, of whom 12 may be of the recommended appointment rank; from 20 to 40 clerks and from 20 to 40 junior clerks of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 40 to 60 other employees.

The Control Yuan may also have from 6 to 12 technical consultants.

Article 13—In the Control Yuan there shall be an accounting office, a statistics office and a personnel office, to attend to budgets and accounts, statistics and personnel affairs, respectively, in accordance with law.

In the accounting office there shall be a chief accountant of the selected appointment rank; two section chiefs of the

recommended appointment rank; from 4 to 6 section members of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 4 to 6 other employees.

In the statistics office there shall be a chief statistician of the recommended appointment rank; from 2 to 4 section members of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be from 4 to 6 other employees.

In the personnel office there shall be a chief of the recommended appointment rank; from 3 to 6 section members and from 2 to 4 assistants of the designated appointment rank. In addition, there may be 1 to 2 other employees.

Article 14—Rules of procedure for the Control Yuan Council and administrative regulations of the Yuan shall be prescribed by the Control Yuan.

Article 15—The date for the enforcement of this law shall be determined by decree. (According to a Government mandate dated May 1, 1948, the date of enforcement is to commence from the day of convocation of the Control Yuan under the new constitution.)

CHAPTER 8

NATIONAL DEFENSE

THE MINISTRY OF NATIONAL DEFENSE

The Ministry of National Defense was established on June 1, 1946, to replace the National Military Council and the Ministry of War.

Up to then, the National Military Council, created in March, 1932 to unify the various military organs, had been exercising all military powers. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was the chairman of the council. Under him were a chief-of-staff and two deputy chiefs-of-staff who assisted him in directing the work of its numerous boards, commissions and departments. The Ministry of War and the Ministry of Conscription, which was established on November 16, 1944, were subject to orders of the chairman of the National Military Council.

Following the establishment of the Ministry of National Defense, the Minister came directly under the Premier as all other ministers of the Executive Yuan. In the ministry are six divisions: (1) personnel, (2) intelligence, (3) planning and operation, (4) supplies, (5) training, (6) technical studies. Bureaus within the ministry are: Information and Civil Affairs, Budgets, Historical Data, Supervision, Conscription, Reserve Officers, Surveys, Security, Courts-Martial, Adjutant Affairs, General Affairs. Departments are: Budget and Finance, Laws and Regulations, Military Personnel, Civil Personnel, Manpower, Industrial Mobilization, Purchasing, Engineering, Land and Construction, Secretariat, Aides, General Affairs, Army Headquarters, Naval Headquarters and Air Force Headquarters. Assisting the Minister are three vice-ministers and a chief-of-staff and three deputy chiefs-of-staff. The National Defense Science Commission comes directly under the minister.

ARMY

I. BEFORE THE WAR

After the completion of the Northern Expedition in 1928, the government set up

a demobilization committee to reduce the size of the armed forces. A series of revolts, and seizure of the Northeastern Provinces by the Japanese in September, 1931, compelled the government to shelve its disbandment program.

In 1933, a military conference was convened in Nanchang, capital of Kiangsi province, to deal with the communist situation. By that time communist insurgents had entrenched themselves in regions in Kiangsi and several other provinces.

In 1936, with the steadily increasing Japanese pressure in the north, it was decided to re-equip 20 divisions each year for three years. This plan was only partially realized when Japan attacked in July, 1937.

Meanwhile, training corps were created to familiarize army officers with principles of modern warfare and to imbue them with the spirit of resistance. The first of its kind was opened at Kuling, Kiangsi, in February, 1933, the second at Mount Omei in Szechwan in 1935, and the third again at Kuling in the summer of 1937.

In view of the vulnerability of the coastal provinces, the government strengthened its defense works along the coastline in general and the estuaries of the Yangtze and the Yellow rivers in particular. Fortifications were erected at Kiangyin, Chinkiang and Nanking on the Yangtze and at other strategic points in Shantung, Honan, Shansi and Suiyuan. A strong defense line was built from Soochow to Kashing on the Chekiang-Kiangsu border. All these preparations later contributed to slowing down the enemy advance in the first few months of the war.

China's conscription law, promulgated in 1933 and enforced on March 1, 1936, provided universal military service for all able-bodied men between 18 and 45 years of age. Prior to that, the Chinese Army was raised through recruitment.

The government also began stockpiling vital war materials. Following the Mukden "Incident" of 1931 arsenals in China

were steadily expanded. In 1936, a five-year program for the expansion of arsenals and storing up of munitions was mapped out. It stipulated that during the first half of 1937, the amount of munitions thus manufactured and stored should be sufficient to equip 30 divisions, one model brigade, and one heavy artillery regiment. This part of the program had been largely carried out when Japan struck. In the ensuing years China's arsenals could produce almost all types of light weapons.

II. DURING THE WAR

The first shot of World War II was actually fired in Mukden on September 18, 1931, when Japan began to seize China's Northeastern Provinces.

Early in 1932, the Chinese resisted the Japanese in a short but bitter battle in Shanghai, resulting in the creation of a demilitarized zone around the port city. In 1933 Japan seized Jehol, and created a demilitarized zone in eastern Hopei, following the "Battle of the Great Wall" early in the year. Another "incident" in 1935, resulted in the Japanese military control over northeastern Chahar. An abortive invasion of Suiyuan was attempted by Japan in 1936. Meanwhile, from 1933 to 1937, Japan intensified political and economic exploitations in north China with the object of placing all Chinese provinces north of the Yellow river under her control.

All these acts of aggression precipitated the eight-year Sino-Japanese War that started on July 7, 1937, and ended on September 3, 1945. During the war, China fought a total of 22 major battles, 1,117 sizable and 38,931 minor engagements.

The war began when the Japanese troops demanded entrance to Wanping, county seat at the southern end of Lukou-chiao (Marco Polo Bridge), south of Peiping, on the pretext of searching for a missing soldier. The demand was rejected by the Chinese garrison. The Japanese opened fire, and the Chinese resisted.

CHINA'S STRATEGY

China's strategy, as decided by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, was based on China's vast territory and extensive manpower. The war may be divided into three periods. The first period began with the outbreak of the war and ended with the conclusion of the Battle of Hankow and Wuchang (July 7, 1937—October 25, 1938). In this period space was traded for time to enable China to build up her

strength. The Japanese were made to pay heavily for every advance.

The second period began with the fall of Hankow and Wuchang (October 25, 1938). The strategy of "magnetic warfare" was employed to attract the advancing Japanese troops to specific points where they were subjected to flanking attacks and encirclements.

The third period, which was to be a general counter-offensive, was obviated by the Japanese surrender on August 15, 1945. The Chinese armed forces were ready at the time to launch a major counter-offensive on enemy-held Canton from bases in western Hunan.

Each of the first two periods of the war may be divided into three phases as follows:

(1) First Period: July 7, 1937 (Lukou-chiao "Incident")—October 25, 1938 (Fall of Hankow).

(a) First Phase: July 7, 1937—December 13, 1937 (Fall of Nanking).

(b) Second Phase: December 13, 1937—May 19, 1938 (Evacuation of Hsuehchow).

(c) Third Phase: May 19, 1938—October 25, 1938 (Fall of Hankow).

(2) Second Period: October 25, 1938 (Fall of Hankow)—September 1945.

(a) First Phase: October 25, 1938—February 24, 1940 (Southern Kwangsi Battle).

(b) Second Phase: February 24, 1940—December 8, 1941 (Pearl Harbor Attack).

(c) Third Phase: December 8, 1941—September 1945.

MILITARY STRENGTH COMPARED

At the outset of war, Japan's military strength, including the standing army and

TABLE 1—INCREASE OF JAPANESE STRENGTH

Year	Men
1936 (July-Dec.)	832,000
1938	976,000
1939	1,120,000
1940	1,120,000
1941	1,168,000
1942	1,360,000
1943	1,840,000
1944	1,856,000
1945	1,516,000

Source: Ministry of National Defense

reserves, was estimated at 4,480,100 men, as against China's 1,700,000 regulars and 518,400 reservists; Japan's naval power was estimated at 1,900,000 tons as against China's 110,000 tons, and she had 2,700 airplanes as against China's 600.

The Japanese at first used a small force in China, but as the war progressed she had to throw more troops into the China Theater. (See Table 1)

JAPANESE CASUALTIES

According to the Ministry of National Defense, the total Japanese casualties of war numbered 5,181,336, including those

suffered by their garrison and supply units in the rear, and air casualties. The following table shows by year the number of Japanese killed and wounded.

CHINESE CASUALTIES

The Ministry of National Defense's reports show that from July 7, 1937 to September 2, 1945, Chinese regular troops killed, wounded and missing totalled 3,211,419. The number did not include the casualties suffered by guerilla and local militia corps. The casualties by year are as follows.

TABLE 2—JAPANESE CASUALTIES

Year	Army Casualties			Casualties Suffered by Garrison and Supply Units in the Rear	Air Casualties
	Killed	Wounded	Total		
1937 (July-Dec.)	51,220	204,880	256,100
1938	88,978	355,912	444,890
1939	82,019	328,076	410,095
1940	68,327	273,309	341,636
1941	36,209	144,836	181,045
1942	27,841	111,362	139,203	340,000	4,280
1943	31,905	127,609	159,514
1944	50,158	200,632	250,790
1945	47,051	188,204	235,255
TOTAL	483,708	1,934,820	2,418,528	340,000	4,280
GRAND TOTAL	5,181,336				

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

TABLE 3—CHINESE CASUALTIES

Year	Killed	Wounded	Missing	Total
1937 (July-Dec.)	125,130	242,232	..	367,362
1938	249,213	485,804	..	735,017
1939	169,652	176,891	..	346,543
1940	339,530	333,838	..	673,368
1941	144,915	137,254	17,314	299,483
1942	87,917	114,180	45,070	247,167
1943	43,223	81,957	37,715	162,895
1944	102,719	103,596	4,419	210,734
1945	57,659	85,583	25,608	168,850
TOTAL	1,319,958	1,761,335	130,126	3,211,419

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

CAMPAIGNS FOUGHT

In the eight years of war, the Chinese and Japanese fought 22 important battles, 1,117 major engagements, and 38,931 minor and guerilla engagements. Among the important battles and campaigns fought were the Battle of Shanghai (August 13-November 9, 1937); Battle of Nanking (December 4-13, 1937); Battle of Sinkow (October 13-November 2, 1937); Battle of Hsuechow (March 23-May 19, 1938); Battle of Wuchang and Hankow (June 12-October 25, 1938); Battle of Nanchang (March 17-March 27, 1939); Suihsien-Tsaoyang Battle (May 1-May 17, 1939); Changsha Battle I (September 17-October 6, 1939); Southern Kwangsi Battle (November 15, 1939-February 24, 1940); Tsaoyang-Ichang Battle (May 1-June 12, 1940); South Honan Battle (January 24-February 10, 1941); Battle

of Shangkao (March 15-March 28, 1941); Battle of Southern Shansi (May 7-May 27, 1941); Changsha Battle II (September 6-October 8, 1941); Changsha Battle III (December 24, 1941-January 15, 1942); Burma Campaign (March 7-May 11, 1942); Chekiang-Kiangsi Battle (May 15-August 28, 1942); Battle of Western Hupeh (May 5-June 14, 1943); Battle of Changteh (November 2-December 25, 1943); Battle of Central Honan (April 18-June 15, 1944); Battle of Central Hunan (May 25-August 8, 1944); Burma-Yunnan Battle (March 5, 1944-January 20, 1945); Kwangsi-Kweichow Battle (August 26-December 12, 1944); Honan-Hupeh Campaign (March 21-August, 1945); Western Hunan Campaign (April 9-August, 1945). The battles and engagements fought from July, 1937, up to the time of Japanese surrender in August, 1945, are shown in the following table:

TABLE 4—CAMPAIGNS FOUGHT

	Important Battles	Major Engagements	Minor and Guerilla Engagements
First Period— First Phase (July-Dec., 1937).....	2	83	..
Second Phase (Jan.-May, 1938).....	1	91	..
Third Phase (Jan.-Oct., 1938).....	1	102	..
Second Period— First Phase (Nov., 1938-Feb., 1940).....	4	163	9,492
Second Phase (Mar., 1940-Nov., 1941).....	5	333	11,846
Third Phase (Dec., 1941-Sept., 1945).....	9	345	17,593
TOTAL.....	22	1,117	38,931

For detailed information on the important battles, see CHINA HANDBOOK 1937-45.

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

III. AFTER V-J DAY

On August 10, 1945, Radio Tokyo announced that Japan was ready to accept the Potsdam Declaration by President Chinag Kai-shek, President Truman and Prime Minister Churchill demanding Japan's unconditional surrender. The for-

mal surrender note was transmitted to the United States on the same day by the Swiss Charge d'Affaires in Washington. Identical notes were sent to the governments of China, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. through the government of Switzerland.

TABLE 5—PERCENTAGE OF MILITARY EXPENSES IN CHINESE NATIONAL BUDGET DURING WAR YEARS

Year	Percentage
1937.....	65.48
1938.....	61.97
1939.....	51.83
1940.....	71.97
1941.....	68.09
1942.....	54.35
1943.....	58.12
1944.....	66.95
1945.....	69.10

Source: Ministry of National Defense

On behalf of the governments of the United States, China, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R., American Secretary of State James F. Byrnes sent a reply on August 11 to the Swiss Charge d'Affaires in Washington for transmission to the Japanese Government.

The Japanese Government, through the Swiss Government, sent another note to the Government of the United States, on August 14, formally signifying the Japanese Government's decision to surrender unconditionally to the allies. The note was published simultaneously in Washington (7 p.m. August 14) and Chungking (7 a.m. August 15).

The official Japanese surrender was signed on September 2, 1945, on board the U.S.S. *Missouri* in Tokyo bay. Mamoru Shigemitsu represented the Japanese Government and General Yoshiji Umezu, the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters. General of the Army Douglas MacArthur represented the Allies. General Hsu Yung-chang, Minister of Military Operations, was China's representative. Emperor Hirohito, by order of General MacArthur, issued a proclamation commanding the Japanese Government and the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters to sign on his behalf the instrument of surrender and to issue general orders to the military, naval and air forces as directed by the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers.

In the China Theater, excluding the Northeastern Provinces but including Taiwan (Formosa) and Indo-China north of 16° north latitude, Japanese troops were to surrender to General Ho Ying-chin, commander-in-chief of the Chinese Ground Forces. Major-General Takeo Imai, depu-

ty chief-of-staff to General Yasutsugu Okamura, commander of Japanese troops in China, arrived in Chihkiang in western Hunan on August 21 and left on the 23rd after a stay of 52 hours. He received from Lieutenant-General Hsiao Yi-shu, chief-of-staff to General Ho, detailed instructions for Japanese surrender in China. Lieutenant-General Leng Hsin, deputy chief-of-staff to General Ho, arrived in Nanking to establish the forward echelon of the headquarters of the Chinese Ground Forces on August 27. Chinese air-borne troops began to land in Nanking in force on September 5 and in Shanghai on the 6th.

The official surrender of Japanese troops in China was signed in Nanking on September 9, 1945. The representative of the surrendering Japanese troops was General Yasutsugu Okamura, commander-in-chief of the Japanese forces in China. General Ho accepted the surrender on behalf of the Chinese Government.

In accordance with the decision of General MacArthur, supreme commander for the Allied Powers, Japanese forces in French Indo-China north of 16° north latitude surrendered to General Lu Han, commander of the First Area Forces, at Hanoi on September 30.

Number of Surrendering Japanese Troops—At the time of the Japanese surrender, the troops under General Okamura's command included: 362,244 men of the North China Area Army; 290,367 of the 6th Area Army in central China; 330,397 of the 5th, 10th and 3rd Armies in the Nanking-Shanghai area; 137,386 of the 23rd Army in Kwangtung; 199,031 of the 10th Area Army in Taiwan; and 29,815 in the part of French Indo-China north of 16° north latitude. They totalled 1,313,240 men.

The commanding units and designations of these troops were one general headquarters, three group armies, ten armies, 36 divisions including two tank divisions and two air-borne divisions, 40 independent brigades including one cavalry brigade, 19 independent garrison corps, defense corps and detachments, and six naval special base corps and marine corps.

The Chinese commanders and the areas assigned to them to accept the surrender were:

General Lu Han, commander of the First Area Forces—French Indo-China north of 16° north latitude.

General Chang Fah-kwei, commander of the Second Area Forces—Canton, Lutchow peninsula, and Hainan island.

TABLE 6—NUMBER OF ABLE-BODIED MEN DRAFTED DURING THE WAR YEARS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES

Province	Year									Total
	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	
Szechwan.....	103,837	175,145	296,341	266,375	344,610	366,625	352,681	391,112	283,086	2,579,810
Sikang.....	4,713	5,437	5,817	3,282	4,621	4,606	2,462	30,938
Yunnan.....	..	96,317	25,582	731	35,509	59,017	58,180	63,231	36,126	374,693
Kweichow.....	47,149	35,142	64,741	68,643	71,603	69,603	83,848	37,416	56,271	534,416
Kwangsi.....	106,691	288,665	34,710	104,744	64,961	76,849	76,326	90,379	24,721	808,046
Kwangtung.....	35,247	80,470	131,693	126,196	100,127	122,720	104,349	188,742	36,329	925,873
Fukien.....	29,427	33,499	60,064	58,249	55,716	51,041	48,510	38,545	50,174	425,225
Chekiang.....	32,791	30,448	94,636	108,479	66,492	49,608	59,362	62,279	47,398	551,493
Anhui.....	44,271	23,832	54,329	68,715	69,479	95,054	78,433	74,111	56,450	564,674
Kiangsi.....	43,230	154,642	178,210	120,634	98,069	107,823	92,712	92,902	59,501	947,723
Hunan.....	190,505	220,745	223,296	216,780	169,623	208,836	184,421	101,756	54,210	1,570,172
Hupei.....	75,805	95,043	96,279	64,280	67,079	88,307	86,942	72,796	42,669	689,200
Honan.....	126,964	334,173	264,370	394,250	243,379	214,589	205,815	109,934	24,982	1,908,456
Shensi.....	37,197	68,679	126,341	127,430	80,350	99,707	117,872	144,819	85,968	888,363
Kansu.....	23,774	40,982	54,627	54,355	50,230	55,769	42,516	32,714	28,890	383,857
Shansi.....	33,500	23,103	60,000	60,000	60,000	236,603
Shantung.....	15,923	15,000	16,194	3,728	50,845
Kiangsu.....	18,859	20,437	39,296
Suiyuan.....	53	5,200	5,253
Ningsia.....	..	4,000	4,000	4,609	3,000	4,000	4,000	23,609
Chinghai.....	..	2,500	474	905	2,130	6,000	6,000	18,009
Others.....	263,569	116,043	106,916	10,906	497,434
TOTAL.....	931,670	1,659,719	1,989,695	1,891,339	1,667,934	1,708,406	1,670,646	1,575,342	959,237	14,053,988

Source: Ministry of National Defense.

General Yu-Han-mou, commander of the Seventh War Area—Kukong, Chaochow and Swatow.

General Wang Yao-wu, commander of the Fourth Area Forces—Changsha and Hengyang.

General Hsueh Yueh, commander of the Ninth War Area—Nanchang and Kiukiang.

General Tang En-po, commander of the Third Area Forces—Nanking and Shanghai.

General Ku Chu-tung, commander of the Third War Area—Kashing, Kinhwa, and Hangchow.

General Sun Wei-ju, commander of the Sixth War Area—Wuhan, Shasi, and Ichang.

General Li Pin-hsien, commander of the Tenth War Area—Hsuehchow, Anking, Pengpu and Haichow.

General Sun Lien-chung, commander of the Eleventh War Area—Tientsin, Peiping, Paoting and Shinchichang.

General Li Yen-nien, deputy commander of the Eleventh War Area—Tsingtao, Tsinan and Tehchow.

General Hu Tsung-nan, commander of the First Area—Loyang.

General Liu Shin, commander of the Fifth War Area—Chengchow, Kaifeng, Sinsiang, Nanyang, Siangyang and Fancheng.

General Yen Hsi-shan, commander of the Second War Area—Shansi province.

General Fu Tso-yi, commander of the Twelfth War Area—Jehol, Chahar, and Suiyuan provinces.

General Chen Yi, governor of Taiwan—Taiwan, including the Pescadores.

In Hongkong and Kowloon, Rear Admiral Harcourt of Great Britain was authorized by President Chiang Kai-shek, Supreme Allied Commander for the China Theater, to accept the Japanese surrender.

Disarmament of Japanese Troops—When the Chinese Army Headquarters was ordered to accept the enemy surrender, the major part of the Chinese troops was stationed in the southwestern provinces. As order had to be restored in various places immediately after the disarmament of the Japanese troops, the Chinese Command decided to utilize the existing Japanese army organizations and headquarters to do liaison work instead of occupying them outright. The sphere of liaison expanded as the Japanese troops in Taiwan and northern French Indo-China and the Japanese Navy in China, originally independent of General Oka-

mura, were put under his command, thus enabling him to carry out all the orders of Generalissimo Chiang and the Chinese Army Headquarters in respect to Japanese armed forces in China.

The Chinese troops were air-lifted, transported by ships or trucks, or they marched on foot to various designated centers where the Japanese troops were concentrated, ready to be disarmed.

This program of disarming the Japanese troops was conducted from September 11 to the middle of October, 1945. As a result of the destruction of communications by the communists, Japanese troops in northern Kiangsu and north China were not disarmed until the beginning of February, 1946. One artillery unit of some 100 men in Wayao, northern Kiangsu, and about 100 others at the Taian railway station in Shantung were disarmed by local armed forces. All the places scheduled to be taken over were recovered by the national forces with the exception of Chengteh, Chihfeng, Tulun, Kalgan and Kupeikow, which had then been occupied by the communist troops.

Japanese arms, vehicles, planes and ships taken over before mid-April, 1946, were:

(1) Infantry light arms: 685,897 rifles, 60,377 pistols, and 29,822 light and heavy machineguns.

(2) Artillery: 12,446 pieces of various kinds and calibres.

(3) Ammunition: 180,994,000 -odd rounds of rifle bullets, 2,035,000 -odd rounds of pistol bullets, and more than 2,070,000 shells of various kinds.

(4) Vehicles: 383 tanks, 151 armored trucks, and 15,785 trucks.

(5) Horses: 74,159.

(6) Important aeronautical materials: 1,068 planes of various models, 6,000 tons of bombs, and 3,101,927 gallons of aviation gasoline.

(7) Naval vessels: 1,400 vessels with a total tonnage of 54,600. The average tonnage of these vessels was less than 50. Most of them were useless.

Enemy and Puppet Assets—To take over enemy and puppet party and political organizations, a special committee was organized by the Chinese Army Headquarters. Serving on it were advisers to the headquarters sent by the various ministries in the Executive Yuan.

The assets seized by the Japanese in China were all formerly administered by the Japanese Great Asia Ministry with the exception of a small number of electric and communications installations for

military use which were controlled by the Japanese Army. The Chinese Army Headquarters made General Okamura solely responsible for the handing over of these assets. Special commissioners of various ministries were assigned to accept them.

Repatriation of Japanese—Japanese prisoners of war and civilians totalled 2,149,455, including 1,255,000 P.O.W.'s, 784,974 civilians, 65,363 Koreans, and 44,118 Taiwanese. They were concentrated in different areas on the Chinese mainland, Taiwan, Hainan island, and north French Indo-China, in order to be repatriated through Tangku, Tsingtao, Lien-yunkang, Shanghai, Amoy, Swatow, Canton, Haiphong, Keelung and Kaohsiung. China was responsible for transporting them to the seaports where they were to be taken to Japan in American ships, including 85 landing vessels and 100 Liberty ships, and a number of Japanese ships.

In transporting the Japanese to the ports of embarkation, China was greatly handicapped by the low water in the Yangtze, the shortage of shipping facilities and the destruction of railways by the communists. The whole task began at the end of October, 1945. By the middle of April, 1946, more than 80 percent of the total number had been repatriated. The whole program was completed by the end of June, 1946.

Problem of Demobilization—Because of the magnitude of mobilization during the war, demobilization at once proved to be a complicated problem. Nevertheless, 1,160,000 officers and men were honorably discharged; and 650,000 puppet troops, who had surrendered to the government, were disbanded. The government paid pensions to families of 1,800,000 officers and men killed in action.

To prevent unemployment, the government established vocational training corps for the demobilized men and officers. Altogether 240,000 officers joined, of whom 50,000 continued to take advanced studies. The following eleven types of employment was given to 73,514 officers:

Police	25,992
Traffic control	4,996
Agricultural, forestry and animal husbandry	576
Local administration	8,029
Banking and finance	500
Mass education	11,514
Social welfare	18,118
Fishery	1,000
Public health	1,928
Industrial and mining management	567
Land administration	294

Of the demobilized soldiers, the bulk were sent home. The remainder were organized into several labor corps to work on railways, highways, water conservancy projects, and other public works in various parts of the country. Those who worked on railways or in mines later joined the railway police or mine police corps while the rest were given land to till.

The age-limit for officers to retire from active service was set as follows:

Rank	Retirement Discharge	
	Age	Age
General, First Grade....	62
General, Second Grade (or Lt.-General with General's title)	60	70
Lieutenant-General	56	65
Major-General	52	60
Colonel	46	58
Lieutenant-Colonel	44	55
Major	42	53
Captain	40	50
1st Lieutenant	38	47
2nd Lieutenant	36	47
Warrant Officer	34

After the demobilization and up to the end of 1947, 15 generals, 217 lieutenant-generals, 576 major-generals and officers of other ranks voluntarily asked for retirement from the service. The government gave each, in accordance with his length of service, a sizable retirement payment in addition to travelling expenses and a monthly pension until discharge from the army. Up to the end of 1947, altogether 100,000 officers were put on the retired list.

Reorganization of Chinese Army—After the demobilization, the Chinese Army began a general reorganization. It was planned after V-J Day that before the end of 1946, the Chinese ground forces should be cut down to 90 divisions. Later, it was resolved by the Political Consultation Conference on February 25, 1946, to adopt a new army plan which stipulated that within one year, all armed forces in China should be reorganized into 108 divisions, including 18 communist divisions. This plan, however, was later sabotaged by the Chinese communists.

In March, 1946, 27 armies and 67 divisions along the Lunghai railway were reorganized by the government into 27 divisions and 67 brigades. Toward the end of April, the first phase of army reorganization was completed.

In the second period, between May and the end of June, the 25 armies and 70

divisions south of the Yangtze were reorganized into 25 divisions and 70 brigades, leaving five armies and 13 divisions to be reorganized later. As a result of this second reorganization, the government forces were reduced by 70 regiments. This did not include the units cut down from the 62nd and 70th Armies in Taiwan. After these two reorganizations, the number of armies in the government ground forces was reduced from 89 to 36 and that of divisions from 242 to 150. Of the latter, 96 divisions had yet to be reorganized.

According to the P.C.C. resolutions, the third period of army reorganization should have begun in July, 1946 to further reduce the total number of infantry divisions to 90, each to be composed of two brigades or four regiments, totalling 14,000 men, and some special units numbering 6,300 men. In this period the communist armies were to be reduced to 19 divisions. Communist intransigence and subsequent rebellion stymied this phase of army reorganization.

ARMY RANKS AND INSIGNIA

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Insignia (sleeve)</i>	<i>Insignia (shoulder)</i>
General, Special Grade (<i>Lu Chun Te Chi Shang Chiang</i>)	One red stripe	Five golden stars
General First Grade (<i>Lu Chun I Chi Shang Chiang</i>)	One red stripe	Four golden stars
General, Second Grade (<i>Lu Chun Erh Chi Shang Chiang</i>)	One red stripe	Three golden stars
Lieutenant-General (<i>Lu Chun Chung Chiang</i>)	One red stripe	Two golden stars
Major-General (<i>Lu Chun Shao Chiang</i>)	One red stripe	One golden star
Colonel (<i>Lu Chun Shang Hsiao</i>)	One yellow stripe	Three plum blossoms
Lieutenant-Colonel (<i>Lu Chun Chung Hsiao</i>)	One yellow stripe	Two plum blossoms
Major (<i>Lu Chun Shao Hsiao</i>)	One yellow stripe	One plum blossom
Captain (<i>Lu Chun Shang Wei</i>)	One blue stripe	Three narrow bars
First-Lieutenant (<i>Lu Chun Chung Wei</i>)	One blue stripe	Two narrow bars
Second-Lieutenant (<i>Lu Chun Shao Wei</i>)	One blue stripe	One narrow bar
Warrant Officer (<i>Lu Chun Chun Wei</i>)	One blue stripe	One square
<i>Insignia (on collar)</i>		
Master Sergeant (<i>Lu Chun Shang Shih</i>)	One blue stripe with three stars	
Sergeant (<i>Lu Chun Chung Shih</i>)	One blue stripe with two stars	
Corporal (<i>Lu Chun Hsia Shih</i>)	One blue stripe with one star	
Private First Class (<i>Shang Teng Ping</i>)	Three Stars	
Private Second Class (<i>I Teng Ping</i>)	Two stars	
Private Third Class (<i>Erh Teng Ping</i>)	One star	

IV. IMPORTANT PROJECTS OF 1947

The communists started their all-out rebellion in January, 1947. The government was compelled to take military action the following month. But it was not until July 4 that the General Mobilization Order was finally issued. From then on, the quelling of the rebellion has become the pivot of all political and military activities of China.

To maintain military discipline in the rank and file, the Ministry of National Defense established a system of supervision. A supervisor was attached to each division or army, and a supervisory group to each Bandit Suppression Headquarters or Pacification Headquarters. Officers to be assigned to supervisory duties had to undergo training first in the Central Training Corps in Nanking. A special supervisory mission was sent to north China in 1947. A public prosecutor was attached to each directorate of courts-martial.

The personnel administration and the grading system of military officers were improved. The new regulations stipulated that the Ministry of National Defense henceforth would only concern itself with personnel matters and the promotion or discharge of generals. For the transfer or examination of officers below the rank of a full colonel, the power has been delegated by the Ministry to the commandants of Bandit Suppression Headquarters or Pacification Headquarters and divisional or army commanders in the field.

Meanwhile, a new system for the training of military officers was introduced. An officer now must go through four schools in succession. First the Military Academy gives a cadet his basic military training. Then comes the various specialized schools. A graduate of the Military Academy can choose any field he wishes. Afterwards he will enter the Staff College in which advanced courses in strategy and staff work are offered. The final institution is the projected National Defense University, where advanced studies in military sciences are taught and its graduates will form the core of high staff members of the Chinese Army.

In the autumn of 1947, junior classes of various specialized schools under the Army Headquarters were opened. The Staff College was inaugurated in the winter of 1947 and the National Defense University was scheduled to hold its first entrance examination in 1950. Preparations for the opening of a Military Science Institute were being made.

NAVY

The Ministry of Navy was established in 1927. In the following decade it acquired a number of new ships, including the *Hsin Ning*, *Yung Sui*, *Min Chuan*, *Yi Hsien*, *Min Seng*, *Ning Hai* and *Ping Hai*. Although they were equipped with newer weapons and were faster, the gross tonnage of each did not exceed 2,600 tons.

When the war broke out in 1937, the Navy had five flotillas of 59 units, totaling 51,286 tons. Many of these were sunk either as a result of enemy action or by the Chinese themselves for the construction of booms across the Yangtze to prevent enemy vessels from moving up the river. At the end of the war only 16 ships in two squadrons were left. The First Squadron consisted of the *Kiang Yuan*, *Chu Tung*, *Chu Chien*, *Chu Kwan*, *Wei Ning*, *Yi Nin*, *Ting An*, and *Ke An*; and the Second Squadron, the *Yung Sui*, *Min Chuan*, *Mai Yuan*, *Ying Teh*, *Ying Shan*, *Ying Hao*, *Fa Ku* and *Hu Chuin*. Most of them were in need of overhauling.

The *Mei Yuan* (American Origin) was formerly the U.S.S. *Tutuila*; the *Ying Teh* (British Virtue), H.M.S. *Falcon*; the *Ying Shan* (British Hero), H.M.S. *Sandpiper*. They were presented to China by the American and British Governments on March 17, 1942.

Immediately after V-J Day, the Naval Headquarters took steps to reorganize the various minelayer squadrons into mine-sweeper squadrons to clear the China coast of mines in preparation for the resumption of shipping traffic. Meanwhile, it was assigned the task of taking over Japanese vessels and naval installations in China and in Indo-China, north of latitude 16.

REORGANIZATION OF NAVY HEADQUARTERS

The Ministry of Navy was superseded by the Naval Headquarters of the National Military Council in February, 1938. In December, 1945, the Naval Headquarters was abolished and a naval department was created under the Ministry of War. Soon afterwards, a separate Fleet Command was set up in Shanghai to supervise naval operations. In June, 1946, when all military organizations were unified under the Ministry of Defense, the Naval Headquarters was restored.

Under the new Naval Headquarters, there are six divisions: personnel, administration and intelligence, planning and operations, supplies, organization and

training, and technical research. In addition, there are nine departments: general affairs, aides, compilation, medical, courts martial, political training, signal, supervision and budget, and secretariat.

Out in the field, there were four regional bases in 1948, each comprising several patrol stations. The first base was in Shanghai, the second in Tsingtao, the third in Keelung and the fourth in Canton. There were also naval installations in the South Sea islands of Pratas and Paracels. There were two coastal defense squadrons, one river defense squadron and one patrol squadron. Ashore, the Chinese Navy had six garrison battalions besides a marines corp. It also maintained seven shipyards along the coast from Tsingtao and Taku in the north to Canton and Amoy in the south, and several factories which manufacture naval and marine instruments in Shanghai, Pukow, Hankow, Yulin and Tinghai.

Its five naval supply stations were located in Shanghai, Tsingtao, Taipeh, Canton and Nanking and its sub-stations were located in Chinwangtao, Taku, Hankow, Tinghai, Kiangying and Sanya on Hainan island.

The Naval Headquarters moved to Taiwan in 1949. Kaohsiung now serves as its main base.

Enemy and puppet ships taken over after V-J Day totalled over 54,600 tons, the heaviest being 1,100 tons each. Of these, only the *Changchiu* and two others were seaworthy. A few were turned over to such government organs as the Ministry of Communications while the heavily damaged were dismantled and their hulls used for scrap iron. Others were repaired and refitted for service on the Yangtze and along the coast.

China was awarded 34 Japanese warships as her share of reparations. These were brought to Tsingtao and Shanghai in 1947 in four groups. As all arms had been removed, they had to be armed before incorporation into the Navy. Besides these, China received post-war gifts from the United States and Great Britain. According to the China Aid Bill passed by the U. S. Congress on July 14, 1946, 138 warships including destroyers and other auxiliary ships, would be given to China. Up to October, 1947 the Chinese Navy had received 100 of these. Naval officers and men were sent to America to bring the remaining 38 from the United States and the Philippines. Those in the Philippines were to be towed to China by steamers.

Of the 13 ships which the British promised to give China in compliance with the Sino-British Agreement of 1944, the Chinese Navy has taken over one convoy destroyer and eight patrol boats. Two other ships, *Chungking* (formerly H.M.S. *Aurora*) and *Linfu* (formerly H.M.S. *Mendip*), manned by Chinese officers and crews, were delivered in the summer of 1948. The rest, including two submarines, were to be brought to China by Chinese Naval personnel upon the completion of their training in England.

TRAINING

Before the war, the Naval College at Mamoi in Fukien, which had a number of British officers as instructors, offered courses in the training of naval officers. It was moved to Hunan, then later to Kweichow in September, 1938. After Pearl Harbor, it was moved to Chungking. During the war, naval training stations were established for enlisted men. The Mine and Torpedo Station trained workers in the manufacture and use of mines and torpedoes. Several thousand young naval officers and enlisted men were sent to Great Britain and America as part of the inter-allied joint military effort. Upon completion of their training they were to man Lend-Lease warships transferred to China by the British and American Governments. Some of these officers and men participated in the allied landing in western France in 1944 aboard British warships.

Shortly after V-J Day, a Naval Training Corps was set up in Tsingtao with the help of the American Navy stationed there. Three training stations were also established at Shanghai, Kiangying and Mamoi to give basic training to enlisted men.

A new Naval College was organized in Shanghai in June, 1946. By August it admitted 200 high school graduates, and in November, it absorbed all the undergraduates of the old Naval College in Chungking upon the latter's dissolution.

The training corps in Tsingtao and the naval college in Shanghai were amalgamated in 1947 into a new naval academy located at Tsingtao. The training stations were renamed the Enlisted Men's Corps, to be attached to the Petty Officers School. In addition a Naval Mechanic School was formed in Shanghai.

As of October, 1948, the Naval Academy offered three courses of study:

(1) The Cadet Corps, which trains naval officers in four-years.

(2) The Officers' Training Class, which was a short-term course to prepare officers for advanced training in allied navies.

(3) Special Training Class, which was to familiarize officers and men with the various types of American and British ships which they were to operate later.

The former 1st and 2nd Training Stations were later reorganized into the 1st and 2nd Enlisted Men's Corps, while the 3rd Training Station, renamed the 2nd Petty Officers Corps, trained mechanics. The Naval Signal Class in Nanking, established in 1946, was abolished, and in its place was created the 1st Petty Officers Corps for the training of signalmen. The 3rd Enlisted Men's Corps was organized at Kiangying at the end of 1947. The 1st Petty Officers' Corps was moved from Nanking to Woosung and the 1st Enlisted Men's Corps, from Shanghai to Tsoying in Taiwan.

The Naval Mechanical School was to train mechanics in the manufacture and repair of naval equipment. The first group of 100 students, enlisted in Shanghai in

December, 1947, are undergoing a four-year course in shipbuilding, weapons-manufacture, machine-building and tele-communications.

The Chinese Navy continues to send officers and men to allied countries for advanced training. In Great Britain the cadets are studying navigation and shipbuilding in the Imperial Naval College and the Greenwich Naval Academy. In the United States, they are studying naval science ranging from shipbuilding to naval administration in the Carnegie Institute of Technology, Princeton University, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Some of them have returned and are serving in the Chinese Navy.

OTHER FUNCTIONS

With the termination of World War II, the Chinese Navy resumed the surveying of sea routes and its meteorological studies such as changes in weather and tide. It has established two survey corps and five tide-recording stations along the coast. It has completed its study around

NAVAL RANKS AND INSIGNIA

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Insignia (sleeve)</i>	<i>Insignia (shoulder)</i>
Admiral of the Fleet (<i>Hai Chun Yi Chi Shang Chiang</i>)	Four medium golden stripes over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and four silver stars on golden plate
Admiral (<i>Hai Chun Shang Chiang</i>)	Three medium golden stripes over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and three silver stars on golden plate
Vice-Admiral (<i>Hai Chun Chung Chiang</i>)	Two medium golden stripes over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and two silver stars on golden plate
Rear-Admiral (<i>Hai Chun Shao Chiang</i>)	One medium golden stripe over one broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors and one silver star on golden plate
Commodore (<i>Hai Chun Tai Chiang</i>)	One broad golden stripe	Crossed anchors on golden plate
Captain (<i>Hai Chun Shang Hsiao</i>)	Four medium golden stripes	One anchor and three silver stars on two golden bars
Commander (<i>Hai Chun Chung Hsiao</i>)	Three medium golden stripes	One anchor and two silver stars on two golden bars
Lieutenant-Commander (<i>Hai Chun Shao Hsiao</i>)	Two medium golden stripes over one narrow golden stripe	One anchor and one silver star on golden bars
Lieutenant (<i>Hai Chun Shang Wei</i>)	Two medium golden stripes	Three silver stars on three narrow golden bars
Sub-Lieutenant (<i>Hai Chun Chung Wei</i>)	One medium golden stripe over one narrow golden stripe	Two silver stars on three narrow golden bars
Sub-Lieutenant (<i>Hai Chun Shao Wei</i>)	One medium golden stripe	One silver star on three narrow golden bars

the Paracel Islands and the area around Kiangying in the lower Yangtze. The Navy also has compiled ebb-tide records for all important ports in China. It has prepared plans to survey all the harbors on the coast.

The Navy maintained three weather groups in the Pratas and Paracel Islands and three weather stations at Sanya, Tinghai and Tsoying. In March, 1947, Ku Wei-han, director of the Survey Bureau for Sea Routes, was delegated by the Chinese Navy to attend the 5th plenary session of the International Sea Routes Survey Association. His mission was to better the relations between the Chinese survey workers and their colleagues in other countries.

The Naval Headquarters is also responsible for the security of China's sea areas. Whether on regular sea routes or in fishing areas, its regional commands offer protection to Chinese as well as foreign vessels.

CLOSURE OF COMMUNIST-HELD PORTS

On June 20, 1949, the Executive Yuan announced the temporary closure of the Communist-held seaports in central and north China. This covers the sea areas from the estuary of the Min river (119° 40' E and 26° 15' N), to the estuary of the Liao Ho (122° 20' E and 40° 30' N). The measure was extended to south China after the loss of Canton in October, 1949.

The ports temporarily closed to shipping and navigation include Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Chinwangtao, Wenchow and Ningpo. In blockading the ports, the Chinese Navy plays a major part. The closure has proved highly effective (October, 1949).

AIR FORCE

The Military Advisory Council of the Manchu Government in Peiping built an airplane testing factory at Nanyuan in 1910, and bought a bi-plane from France for experimental purposes. That was the beginning of China's aeronautical enterprise.

In March, 1911, Feng Ju, a U. S.-born Chinese demonstrated flying over Yentang near Canton in his own plane which he had brought with him from America. It created a sensation. Unfortunately, he was killed when his plane crashed.

After the founding of the Republic, the revolutionary army in Canton bought two monoplanes from Austria. They were meant for combat purposes, but actually

were not so used as the country had then been unified. At the same time, the Peking Government purchased 12 planes from France and established an aviation school at Nanyuan, which was the first air training institute in China.

Airplanes took part in actual fighting in China for the first time in 1913, when the Inner Mongolian rebellious army fiercely assaulted Dolonor. The Peking Government then dispatched a plane to assist the ground forces in repelling the invasion. The mere appearance of the strange bird in the sky scared the rebels away.

In 1917, when General Chang Hsun tried to restore the Manchu rule, his attempt was almost nipped in the bud by Marshall Tuan Chi-jui's planes at Nanyuan. It was Tuan who reorganized the Nanyuan Aviation Academy into a temporary air force headquarters and mobilized all the planes available to bomb the Temple of Heaven and the Imperial Palaces then occupied by Chang's troops. The rebels immediately surrendered.

An Air Force Bureau was created by the Revolutionary Government in Canton in 1920. It had two squadrons. Three years later, Yang Hsien-yi, director of the bureau, returned from abroad with more aircraft. The recapture of Canton after its seizure by rebels, in June, 1922, was made possible largely by the help given by Yang's air force.

GROWTH OF THE CHINESE AIR FORCE

The formation of a modern Chinese Air Force began in 1928. The Nationalist Revolutionary Forces then had three squadrons of army planes and one squadron of naval planes, totalling 24.

In November that year, over 80 cadets of the Central Military Academy in Nanking volunteered to join the new Air Force Corps. Colonel Chang Ching-yu was appointed the commandant. The corps was officially inaugurated in November, 1929. However, in June, 1930, it was reorganized into an air force class under Colonel Huang Ping-heng. Several training planes donated by overseas Chinese were used.

The first air force class was graduated in March, 1931. One-third of them died in combat during the Japanese war, while the surviving members have become senior officers in the Chinese Air Force.

On July 1, 1931, the air force class was expanded to become the Central Aviation School under the Ministry of War in Nanking. In December that year, the

school was moved to Chienchiao near Hangchow. Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek was the president of the school with Colonel (now Air Major-General) Mao Pang-chu as commandant.

The aviation school under the Ministry of War was reorganized into the Central Aviation School on May 1, 1932. An American advisory mission, led by Colonel J. H. Jouett, and composed of ten flying instructors, five mechanics and one air force surgeon, assisted in the training. The cadets first saw action in November, 1933, when they were ordered to help crush a rebellion started by some dissident officers of the 19th Route Army in Fukien province.

Early in 1935 there was a slight change in aviation education in China. The school originally had two classes. Class B remained at Chienchiao while Class A was first moved to Nanchang in Kiangsi province and later to Loyang in Honan. An Italian mission was attached to the Loyang branch. Gradually, there developed some disagreement over principles of training. It was decided in 1936 that cadets admitted at Loyang should also go to Hangchow to receive the American type of training.

In July, 1936, a new branch was established in Canton. It was then ruled that the branches could now only offer primary training. For secondary and advanced training the cadets must attend the main school at Chienchiao.

Along with the growth of the aviation school, the Chinese Air Force gradually expanded. In 1934, it had eight squadrons, which were increased to 14 the following year. More planes were bought from the United States. In 1936, the whole country was divided into six air force regions, each with several squadrons of planes carrying modern equipment.

When the war broke out in July, 1937, the Chinese Air Force had 602 pilots and 230 mechanics and technicians. They were organized into nine groups with a total strength of 305 planes of all types. Though a small force in comparison with what the big powers had at that time, it gave a good account of itself in the war against Japan.

CHINESE AIR FORCE AT WAR

The Japanese High Command used 200 planes in their campaign in north China after the Lukouchiao "Incident" in July, 1937. When the war spread to Shanghai in August, 247 planes of the Japanese Navy based at Taiwan or sent by the

Japanese 3rd Fleet on the East China Sea made continuous raids on defenseless cities in southeastern China. Although the Chinese Air Force shot down a number of them, the Japanese aircraft were constantly reinforced, and their strength was steadily maintained.

The total strength of the Chinese Air Force was smaller than that of Japan's first-line planes. Besides, it found difficulties in replacing its losses. Soon the Japanese achieved supremacy of the air over China's skies.

On August 14, 1937, planes of the Chinese Air Force based at Hangchow bombed Japanese strongholds and ships in the Shanghai-Woosung area. A formation of Japanese planes retaliated the same day. In an ensuing air battle over Chienchiao, cradle of the Chinese Air Force, six Japanese aircraft were shot down. This was the first Chinese air victory. That day has since then been designated by the Government as China's Air Force Day.

The next three days, 44 more Japanese planes were shot down. In spite of this, the enemy remained numerically superior. The Chinese Air Force had to resort to night raids. Its overall performance during 1937 may be summed up as follows:

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------|
| (1) Bombing: | |
| Number of raids | 238 |
| Ammunition used | 169 tons |
| Enemy ships sunk | 4 |
| Number of planes used | 858 |
| Enemy planes destroyed | |
| on ground | 10 |
| Enemy ships damaged | 22 |
| (2) Air battles: | |
| Number of engagements | 73 |
| Enemy planes shot down | 83 |
| Planes used | 367 |
| Enemy planes damaged | 4 |

In 1938, with the help given by the Soviet Volunteer Group, the Chinese Air Force fought to regain air domination over Hsuechow, Hankow and Canton. In a battle over Hankow on February 18, the enemy lost 12 planes. On April 10, six more Japanese aircraft were shot down over Kweiteh in Honan; on April 29, 21 over Hankow, and on May 31, 11 more over Hankow. On May 19, a formation of Chinese planes made a surprise raid on Japan proper but dropped pamphlets instead of bombs. The Chinese Air Force also scored victories in two battles over northern Kwangtung and one battle over Nanchang in Kiangsi.

The Chinese Air Force fought gallantly during and after the Battle of Hankow. Its planes made daily sorties against

enemy naval units in the Wuchang-Hukow area along the Yangtze, sinking, up to the end of September, 1938, 12 Japanese vessels, damaging 29 others and shooting down 13 enemy planes. The performance record of the Chinese Air Force during 1938 was as follows:

- (1) Bombing:

Number of raids	167
Ammunition used	254 tons
Enemy ships damaged	75
Planes used	867
Enemy ships sunk	17
- (2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements	121
Enemy planes shot down.....	115
Planes used	706

In 1940, the enemy increased his first-line planes to 600, attempting to subdue China by the sheer might of air force. Practically no major city behind the Chinese front was spared from Japanese air bombardment.

The small and depleted Chinese Air Force was unable to retaliate against this powerful enemy who now came by the hundreds. What they could do was to attack the enemy bombers after the latter had completed their mission and their pursuit escorts had left. Beginning August 13, Japanese planes came in even bigger formation and new planes of the Zero-type were used. The Chinese Air Force, being no match at all, sustained heavy losses, until only 65 planes were left in use. The Chinese High Command decided to avoid air battles altogether and sent all officers of the air force to India for training, regrouping and for the taking over of new planes from America. The performance record of the Chinese Air Force for 1940 was as follows:

- (1) Bombing:

Number of raids	29
Ammunition used	100 tons
Enemy ships wrecked	4
Planes used	241
Enemy planes damaged.....	18
- (2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements.....	51
Enemy planes shot down.....	27
Planes used	965
Enemy planes damaged.....	30

In 1941, 100 P-40B fighters were bought from the United States under a credit arrangement. Chungking, utterly devoid of air defense, was raided 45 times. Many other cities in southwestern and northwestern China were also bombed. The Japanese planes went everywhere unchallenged.

In August 1941, 250 American volunteers under Major-General (then Colonel) Claire L. Chennault came to China. The Flying Tigers fought brilliantly in the defense of the Burma Road. Over Iliang, Rangoon and Lei yuan, they shot down more than 60 Japanese planes.

The performance record of the Chinese Air Force in 1941, excluding that of the American Volunteer Group, was as follows:

- (1) Bombing:

Number of raids	3
Planes used	23
- (2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements.....	5
Enemy planes shot down.....	13
Planes used	104

In 1942, the AVG did most of the air fighting in the China Theater. Occasionally, planes of the Chinese Air Force co-operated with the AVG to check the advance of Japanese troops on the west bank of the Salween river in western Yunnan. Chinese bombers raided Lashio, Lungling and the Salween river front more than 20 times. The Chinese Air Force also took part in the battle of Chekiang and Kiangsi. Its planes bombed Shangjao, Chuhsien and Kinghwa.

In the Summer of 1942, the AVG was reorganized into the 14th Air Force of the U. S. Army. During the six months before the reorganization took place, the Flying Tigers made 102 sorties, shot down 193 enemy planes, wrecked 75, damaged 40, possibly wrecked another 60, and destroyed 112 trucks and 15 warehouses. For all these it lost only 20 volunteers, with four others missing.

The performance record of the Chinese Air Force for 1942 was as follows:

- (1) Bombing:

Number of raids	72
Enemy planes wrecked	30
Planes used	309
Enemy ships wrecked	4
- (2) Air Battles:

Number of engagements	33
Enemy planes shot down.....	95
Planes used	682
Enemy planes damaged.....	7

The Chinese Air Force personnel, having completed their training in India, returned to China with new planes in 1943. They were immediately organized into five groups and one Chinese-American Composite Wing. Their planes, combined with those of the U. S. 14th Air Force, which was led by General Chennault and

CHINESE AIR FORCE PERFORMANCE RECORD IN THREE IMPORTANT CAMPAIGNS

	Honan	Hunan	Kwangsi
Sorties	119	349	316
Enemy planes shot down.....	87	70	70
Enemy planes bombed and destroyed.....	79	529	24
Enemy planes possibly shot down or destroyed.....	6	39	14
Railway stations bombed	33	13	8
Junks bombed and destroyed	40	2,529	1,000
Steamers bombed and destroyed	120
Bridges bombed and destroyed	16	15	20
Locomotives bombed and destroyed	22
Trucks bombed and destroyed	1,931	1,858	20

stationed near the Hunan-Kweichow front, added up to more than 200 in the China Theater.

The outbreak of the Pacific War reduced the strength of the Japanese Air Force in China considerably. Initiative in the air gradually passed into Chinese hands. In the western Hupeh campaign, the Chinese Air Force made 216 sorties, shot down 25 enemy planes and destroyed 12 others on the ground. This paved the way for the victory of the Chinese troops at Changteh in western Hunan.

In 1944, the enemy mustered 260 planes to assist their ground forces for a decisive campaign in Honan. The Chinese Air Force met the enemy offensive with two groups, totalling 36 bombers and 120 pursuits, based at Ankang and Nancheng in Shensi, and Chungking, Liangshan and Chengtu in Szechwan.

The Japanese used 168 planes in the Hunan-Kwangsi battle. The Chinese Air Force, fighting shoulder to shoulder with the U. S. 14th Air Force, had at its disposal 68 bombers and 113 fighters, based at Kweilin, Tanchu, Chihkiang, Nanshiung, Suian and Chengtu. For the first time in the Sino-Japanese war the invaders were outnumbered and they lost heavily.

The Japanese Air Force sank to a new low in 1945. In the campaign on the Anhwei-Hupeh border, the Chinese Air Force assisted the ground forces in five engagements: First, together with the army, it inflicted over 4,000 casualties on the enemy, killing among others the commander of the Japanese 110th Division; second, by strafing and bombing, it alone killed 1,500 Japanese soldiers at Sichiakow and Towfutien; third, in cooperation with the ground forces again, it wiped out over 1,300 Japanese troops; fourth, it annihilated another 1,500 Japanese in the same manner; and fifth, by strafing alone, it killed 3,400 Japanese at the narrow passage of Shihhowei and Chatowkow. In all, the Chinese bombers made

159 sorties and its fighters completed 149 missions in two months.

In the western Hunan campaign, the 2nd and 5th Groups and part of the 1st Group of the Chinese Air Force took part in the fighting and annihilated one whole Japanese regiment at Fangtung. Between April 10 and May 12, the 5th Group made 700 sorties, the 2nd Group, two, and the 1st Group, 25. The result was the decisive victory in western Hunan.

The following figures show the damages suffered by Chinese civilians as a result of enemy bombings and the total performance record of the Chinese Air Force in the war:

CIVILIAN CASUALTIES AND DAMAGES IN ENEMY AIR RAIDS:

Number of raids	12,144
Number of planes used	24,948
Number of bombs dropped.....	213,565
Civilians killed	335,943
Civilians wounded	426,249

PERFORMANCE RECORD OF THE CHINESE AIR FORCE:

Sorties	3,337
Engagements	151
Reconnaissance missions	210
Fighter covers	151
Parachutists dropped	42
Enemy planes shot down.....	1,543
Enemy planes damaged	330

EDUCATION

Organized education for the Chinese Air Force began in May, 1932 when the Central Aviation School was established at Chienchiaow near Hangchow. This school had graduated six classes of cadets before the war broke out in 1937, whereupon the school was moved to Kunming in Yunnan and Suifu in Szechwan. In 1942, lower class cadets were sent to Lahore in India. They were soon followed by the rest of the school. Altogether 10,879 air cadets were trained up to this period.

When war threatened the Indian border, the Chinese Government arranged with the U. S. Government to set up three training centers for Chinese flyers studying in Colorado, Arizona and Texas. By V-J Day, several hundred trainees had returned to China and many of them were on combat duty in the last few months of the war. At the time of the Japanese surrender, there were still 2,000 Chinese cadets under training in America. Even after the war, large numbers of Chinese air cadets were sent to America for training.

After V-J Day, the Central Aviation School was moved back to Chienchiao near Hangchow. The Air Force Technical School and the Air Force Preparatory School remained in the interior.

The Air Force Preparatory School, located at Kwanhsien, Szechwan, was established in 1940. It admits boys from 12 to 15 years of age and gives them, apart from the usual formal education, special training to develop their physique and air fitness. Work includes the opportunity to familiarize themselves with model planes, gliders, motor vehicles, and internal combustion engines. Upon graduation, they are admitted to the air schools for further training as air or ground crews.

The Central Aviation School has been renamed the Chinese Air Force Cadet School. It has six departments: navigation, bombing, meteorology, gliding, photography, and gunnery. Graduates of junior middle schools may enroll in its junior course and those of senior middle schools in its senior course.

The Air Force Technical School trains aircraft mechanics. It was established in 1936 and has trained several thousand technicians. This school has drawn up a plan to give refresher training to all ground crews of the Chinese Air Force.

The Air Force Communication School was established in 1940 to train radio operators and radio engineers.

For advanced studies, there is the Air Force Staff School which trains staff officers. Air officers on active service are admitted after passing strict entrance examinations. After their graduation, they serve as staff and commanding officers in the various air units. British instructors were engaged during the war to teach in the school.

Finally, there was the Air Force Non-Commissioned Officers' School, organized in 1938. Besides training pilots, it has turned out a number of air gunners. The

school was suspended after the graduation of its sixth class. Pilots trained by this school were commissioned and assigned to various squadrons.

C.A.F. PERFORMANCE AFTER V-J DAY

After V-J Day, the air force organization underwent a change. In place of the 14 regions, five air force areas were created. In each, there was a number of base operation headquarters.

The Chinese Air Force played an important part in the campaign against the communists. Between February and April 1947, its planes attacked communist rebels in the Taierhchuang-Tsaochuang area in western Shantung and along the Grand Canal. In the recapture of Yen-an in northern Shensi, the air force assisted the ground forces in reconnaissance and strafing.

Before and during the fighting in the Yimeng hills in central Shantung, the air force went into action daily over Tsingtuoshih, Tienmakwan, Tsining, Linchu, Nanma and Feihhsien. They inflicted more than 4,000 casualties on the rebels at Linchu and Tsining.

In the eastern Shantung campaign, Government planes bombed Chefoo and Lungkow and also communist vessels in the harbors. They also supported ground forces in attacking Takuho and in the battle of Fanchiatsi.

In the six campaigns in the North-eastern Provinces government planes bombed rebel strongholds and communication lines. Other planes supported ground forces defending Sze ping kai and Kirin. They wiped out over 1,000 communists on the west bank of the Liao river by strafing and took part in the fighting around Changwu and Sinlitun.

Three rebel assaults on Yulin in northern Shensi were checked as a result of the support given by the air force, which routed more than 1,000 rebel troops south of Linshaota.

Communist roving bands in the Yellow river flooded area, western Honan, and in Tapieshan and Tahungshan areas, were constantly bombed and strafed by government planes.

Since June, 1949, the C.A.F., in co-operation with the Navy, has been playing an important part in the blockading of the seaports in north and central China which were under communist occupation.

PARACHUTING

Training for parachute troops in China was started in 1944 at Kangtowtsun near

Kunming. In April, 1945, an Army Storm Corps of parachute troops was created.

This parachute work was divided into three courses: arms, combat, and parachuting. A Parachutists' School was also set up to train officers.

During the war, the Chinese parachute troops made several landings in the Japanese rear. On July 11, 1945, they occupied Loting and Kaiping on the Kwangtung border in the campaign for Nankiangkow. On the 18th, they landed at Tanchu and seized the airfield. On the 27th, they captured several points in the outskirts of Hengyang.

they entered western Shantung to wipe out the remnants of communists. Meanwhile, the 1st company in the northeast was ordered back. It defeated Chen Yi's rebels at Suhsien in northern Kiangsu. In October, northeastern Anhwei was cleared of communists, and the parachute troops were generally credited with the security of the southern section of the Tientsin-Pukow railway.

In November that year, when the situation around Hsuechow became tense, the parachutists were moved up to fight the rebels at Tangshan and Hsiaohsien. In December, they advanced on Fenghsien, Yutai, and Kinghsiang and penetrated in-

AIR FORCE RANKS AND INSIGNIA

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Shoulder Insignia</i>
Air General (<i>Kung Chun Shang Chiang</i>).....	An eagle and three narrow bars over two broad bars
Air Lieutenant-General (<i>Kung Chun Chung Chiang</i>).....	An eagle and two narrow bars over two broad bars
Air Major-General (<i>Kung Chun Shao Chiang</i>).....	An eagle and one narrow bar over two broad bars
Air Colonel (<i>Kung Chun Shang Hsiao</i>).....	An eagle and three narrow bars over one broad bar
Air Lieutenant-Colonel (<i>Kung Chun Chung Hsiao</i>).....	An eagle and two narrow bars over one broad bar
Air Major (<i>Kung Chun Shao Hsiao</i>).....	An eagle and one narrow bar over one broad bar
Air Captain (<i>Kung Chun Shang Wei</i>).....	An eagle over three narrow bars
Air First Lieutenant (<i>Kung Chun Chung Wei</i>).....	An eagle over two narrow bars
Air Second Lieutenant (<i>Kung Chun Shao Wei</i>).....	An eagle over one narrow bar

After V-J Day, the parachute troops were airlifted to Nanking. Groups were later sent to the Northeastern Provinces to help occupy Changchun and Mukden.

The Army Storm Corps was reorganized into a Parachutist Corps on March 16, 1946, and Major General Ma Shih-kung was appointed its commander. In May, it was again expanded to form the Parachutist Headquarters with newly-obtained equipment and weapons. Portions were organized into fast-moving column to fight communist rebels in Shantung.

The parachute troops were transferred to the Chushan islands for training in June, 1946, in preparation for landings at the Changshan island off northern Shantung coast. In July, they assisted in dislodging the communists from the Yimeng hills in central Shantung. In the middle of August, seven groups of parachute troops ambushed a numerically stronger communist force under Liu Po-cheng at Yucheng and Shangchiu. In September,

to western Shantung, and scored successes at Niuwuku and Mulichuang.

COMBINED SERVICE FORCES

The Headquarters of the Combined Service Forces came into existence on June 1, 1946 as one of the four groups under the Ministry of National Defense. It was abolished in August, 1949, when its functions were put under the direct control of the ministry.

In the first days of the revolution in the late twenties, service forces occupied but a minor position in the Chinese military organization. Before the Sino-Japanese War broke out in 1937, the second department of the Capital Defense Corps under the former National Military Council took care of army transportation, and the Directorate of Supplies under the Directorate-General of Military Training was in charge of army supplies. Under the Ministry of War were the Ordnance,

Finance and Army Medical Administrations, the Department of Communications, and the Gendarmerie, all of which dealt with supplies and service for the Chinese armed forces. There was no centralized organization.

After the Lukouchiao "Incident," a Board of Transport and Supplies was created under the National Military Council, and unified under it was transportation—railway, river, animals and manpower, and signal. Supplies and other related matters were still separately handled by the Ministry of War and the Board of Military Training.

In February, 1945, the Board was reorganized into the Headquarters of Service Forces, still under the National Military Council. But practically no change took place in regard to its nature and functions.

When the National Military Council was abolished in June, 1946, and the Ministry of National Defense was established to replace it, the Headquarters of Rear Service Forces became the Headquarters of Combined Service Forces.

Modeled after a pattern devised by the Combined Services Division of the U. S. Army Advisory Group, this system was composed of eight directorates or administrations, eleven departments, one gendarmerie headquarters and one secretariat.

The eight directorates or administrations are: Transportation, Signal, Quartermaster, Ordnance, Medical, Finance, Engineering, and Special Service (education and recreation).

The eleven departments are: Planning, Personnel, Information, Service, Supplies, Training, Materials and Research, Court-Martial, General Affairs, Foreign Relations, and Pensions.

Out in the field, there were eight Regional Supply Headquarters directly under the supervision of the Headquarters of Combined Service Forces in 1948. These were:

TRANSPORTATION

The Headquarters of the Combined Service Forces, after its inauguration in 1946, established railway transportation headquarters at Nanking, Peiping, Chengchow, Hankow, Pukow and Hengyang; river transportation headquarters at Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, Canton, Chungking, Tientsin, Chinwangtao, and Hulutao; and highway transportation centers at Chungking, Paocheng, Lanchow, Kweiyang, and Chanyi.

In 1948, a new united service was established in accordance with American suggestions, which unified the command of railway, highway and river transportations into one single outfit. New offices were created in Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, Chungking, Peiping, Tientsin, Hulutao, Canton and Hengyang.

FINANCE

The pay for officers and men in the armed forces was raised in August, 1947 in order to bolster their morale. Hitherto, army personnel had been paid two to five times less than civil servants of corresponding rank. In the past, army finance and quartermaster work all came under the same department. Under the Headquarters of Combined Service Forces, a separate Quartermaster Directorate was organized, making it independent of its finance department.

The bookkeeping of the combat forces and all departments of the Ministry of National Defense is also kept separately, each responsible for compiling and examining its own allotments, expenditures and audits. Overall budgetary affairs are under the control of the Ministry of National Defense with the military accounts being handled exclusively by the Finance Directorate. No other business department of the Ministry can deal directly with cash.

	<i>Locality</i>	<i>Areas Served</i>
1st	Shanghai	Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Fukien, eastern Kiangsi
2nd	Hankow	Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, southern Honan
3rd	Canton	Kwangsi, Kwangtung
4th	Chungking	Szechwan, Sikang, Kweichow, Yunnan
5th	Peiping	Hopei, Chahar, Shansi, Suiyuan, eastern Hopei
6th	Mukden	Nine Northeastern Provinces, Jehol, eastern Hopei
7th	Sian	Shensi, Honan, eastern Kansu, northern Hupeh, southern Shantung, southern Hopei
8th	Lanchow	Kansu, Ninghsia, Chinghai, Sinkiang

The Headquarters distributed equipment, food, clothes, fuel and fodder to the combat forces through its supply organizations. Formerly, the field units themselves bought whatever they needed. This innovation has eliminated many of the inconveniences and irregularities.

BREEDING OF HORSES

Horses play an important part in China's defense problem. For more than a hundred years, the breeding of horses interested only a few people. This explains why China has only about 1,500,000 horses, compared to Russia's 10,500,000 and the United States' 13,000,000.

To improve this, the horse department of the Directorate of the Quartermaster worked out a ten-year plan, aimed at setting up 12 breeding branches, 28 stables (both owning 4,350 breeding horses and 30,000 breeding mares), 8 military ranches with 1,500 breeding horses and 30,000 mares, and 5 veterinary bureaus.

Thus far three such ranches have been established at Chingchen in Kweichow, Sungming in Yunnan and Minhsien in Szechwan which are stocked with 67 Arabian steeds and 1,250 young horses of Japanese, Chinese, Mongolian, Turkistan and mixed breeds. Connected with these are 25 stables to improve horses for civilian use. Between 1939 and 1945, 25,000 horses were cross-bred at these stables. In 1946, 12,000 more horses for civilian use were cross-bred.

There is a stable in Sichang in Sikang; four military ranches at Shantan, Yung-teng and Mahanshan in Kansu and Kweiteh in Chinghai, and a Northwestern Horse Administration office in Lanchow.

Three military horse supply stations have been created to supervise the equestrian problem for the army. The Chinese army, at its October, 1948 strength, needs more than 400,000 horses and at least 50,000 replacements a year. But it now has 200,000 horses and mules. In 1947, various units of the army requested 100,000 animals; the directorate could get them only 7,985.

To meet this demand, the directorate has appealed to the Ministry of National Defense and the Executive Yuan to get 2,000 breeding horses and 50,000 cavalry steeds from Japan as war indemnity and also to negotiate with the United States to include 56,650 horses for military use in her China aid program.

VETERINARY

The veterinary school established in 1908 was first moved from Peiping to

Nanking in 1935, then to Yiyang and Hungkiang in Hunan and finally to Anshun in Kweichow in 1937. A branch was set up in Lanchow at the end of 1942. Between July, 1936 and November, 1946, the school graduated 1,892 students. However, it was suspended in October, 1945. In August and September, 1946, seven veterinarians were sent to the United States for advanced study.

Four veterinary hospitals were opened in July, 1938. Up to the end of October, 1946, they had treated 101,879 wounded or sick horses and mules. The 1st and 4th were disbanded at the war's end, the 2nd was moved from Sian to Peiping, and the 3rd to Hsuechow.

The practice in the past was for the field units to buy medical supplies needed for the animals, then have the headquarters reimburse them. In August, 1937, an army veterinary godown was established at Hsuan-cheng in Anhwei, which began to manufacture and purchase tools and medicines for the army. On April 1, 1946, the godown was reorganized into a general veterinary depot and two branches were set up in the 2nd and 8th Supply Regions.

China received in the spring of 1946 more than 8,000 tons of veterinary materials from the Japanese as reparations.

MEDICAL CORPS

The Medical Administration is striving to train enough personnel for its medical units for the armed forces, to procure and manufacture sufficient quantities of medical supplies, and to improve facilities for the wounded and sick soldiers.

In China today, there are 30,000 qualified medical personnel, including doctors, surgeons, dentists, nurses and pharmacists. But only 2,700 of these are serving the armed forces. There are 13,000 more medical workers in the army but they are not adequately trained. In all, the total does not exceed 16,700. For China's peacetime army of 1,500,000 troops she would need at least 31,200 medical personnel, or 2.08% of the number of troops.

The Medical Administration established a Medical Center in Shanghai in 1946 for the purpose of training in the next five years 500 army doctors and surgeons annually. The prime objective was to build up a corps of 30,000 qualified army doctors and surgeons within a period of 20 years. In cooperation with the Ministries of Education and Health, the administration also expects to extend the medical center system to north, south,

west China and northeast China. It has sent promising army medical personnel abroad for advanced studies. The first group of 114 doctors and surgeons left for the United States in 1946; the second group left in 1947.

There was a general scarcity of medical supplies during the war because of enemy blockade. American lend-lease materials which reached Free China before V-J Day totalled only around 300 tons. Another 1,500 tons were received after the war. After Japanese surrender most of the U. S. Army medical supplies were taken over by UNRRA. Of this 1,200 tons were given to the administration.

ENGINEERING

The Engineering Administration is a new department. Before its establishment, the distribution and storage of engineering supplies for the armed forces were entrusted to the Ordnance Administration and the Engineering Department of the Ministry of War. There was no overall plan or special organization charged with the maintenance and storage of engineering equipment. Moreover, most of the personnel responsible for the work were not specially trained.

Since the creation of the Engineering Administration, special godowns have been constructed at strategic points throughout the country. Inspectors supervise the distribution and disposition of goods. New engineering materials transferred to China by the U. S. armed forces in Okinawa, Tientsin and Shanghai are being used to equip new engineering units in the Chinese armed forces. Similarly, Japanese equipment received since V-J Day is being utilized. Future plans call for the construction of maintenance and manufacturing plants to make the organization self-sufficient.

SPECIAL SERVICE

The Special Service Administration is also an entirely new organization, responsible for the welfare of the armed forces. Lt. Gen. J. L. Huang has added these facilities to the organization since he became its head:

1. Cooperatives: 36.
2. Broadcasting Service: 20 mobile units and 6 stations.
3. Movies: 10 units for 35 mm. films and 30 units for 16 mm. films.
4. Drama: 11 units for stage performances, 45 units for other shows.
5. Sports: Swimming pools, libraries and athletic fields are under construction in all centers.

6. Entertainment: An officers' club was established in Nanking. Four barracks for the accommodation of troops were erected near the railway stations at Pukow and Nanking. Similar clubs and barracks were constructed in Mukden, Tientsin, Wuchang and Hankow in October, 1948. Each was furnished with a cooperative store, library, dispensary, post office, theater facilities, athletic equipment and food counters.

PENSION

The pension system was revised recently. Procedures of payment were simplified. Numerous stations were set up at the front to expedite the payment.

Beginning in October, 1947, front line pension departments were created under the military commands at Mukden, Peiping, Sian, Hsuehchow and Hankow. After termination of a major battle, the recipients were paid on the spot.

Payment under this system has these advantages: (1) results of investigations and inquiries are more accurate; (2) payment is simplified; (3) officers and men with minor injuries can be sent back to their original units without unnecessary delay; and (4) delay in the applying for the pension is eliminated when survivors make their applications on the spot.

Wounded soldiers are taken care of in the following manner:

1. Those who have families are to be sent home.
2. Those who had jobs before the war and who are not physically handicapped to work again will be given their old jobs.
3. Those who were disabled or who had no employment before are given vocational training and are provided with some means of livelihood.
4. Those who are willing to become farmers will be given land.
5. Those who are fairly well-educated and wish to continue their studies will be sent back to school.

6. Those who are unfit for any employment and who have no families are allowed to remain in army hospitals and live on Government stipends.

The Ministry of National Defense has put these measures into practice first in southeastern and southwestern China and later in north China. Soldiers wounded in the communist suppression campaign are treated the same as those wounded in the Sino-Japanese War.

GENDARMERIE

Modern gendarmerie in China was created in 1926.

When President Chiang Kai-shek launched the Northern Expedition, the first gendarme company of the Whampao Military Academy was enlarged into a battalion, then into a regiment in July, 1926. After Nanking was taken, it developed into two regiments under the direction of the Garrison Headquarters of the national capital.

The present Gendarme Headquarters, organized on January 16, 1932, is composed of 27 regular regiments, 3 training regiments, 3 independent battalions and one special battalion. One platoon was sent to Japan in 1947 to protect Chinese organizations in that country.

EDUCATION

The Combined Service Headquarters maintain eleven schools to train its personnel. They are: Ordnance, Transportation, Gendarmerie, Engineering, Signal, Veterinary, Special Service, Adjutant Affairs, Procurement and Finance. Another combined service school trains instructors for these schools.

ORDNANCE

China still relies on other countries for military supplies. For this reason the

Chinese army is equipped with weapons and ammunition of various kinds and makes. In 1935, the Ordnance Administration worked out a five-year plan to unify all materials, using as much as possible those manufactured by the country's own arsenals.

At the time of the Sino-Japanese war, the readjustment in light arms was nearly completed. Most of the troops were using rifles of Chungchen style, Czechoslovakian light machineguns, Maxim heavy machineguns and 82mm. trench mortars.

China obtained much of her early war supplies from Germany, Denmark and Soviet Russia. Later they were augmented by American lend-lease materials.

China's production of light arms in the middle of 1947 met only 70 to 90 percent of her demands. She manufactured no heavy weapons. As for ammunition she produced only 3% of the bullets and 20% of the shells she needed.

Chinese arsenals are too busily engaged in fulfilling consumption needs. Little opportunity has been found to improve on the anachronistic features of equipment. At present, 65 percent of the equipment being used by the Chinese forces is of Chinese manufacture; 25 percent, American; and 10 percent, Japanese.

CHAPTER 9

JUDICIAL SYSTEM AND POLICE

I. COURTS

The Chinese judicial system has three grades of courts: the district court, the high court, and the supreme court. It allows three trials.

Cases involving offenses against the internal sovereignty of the state, the external sovereignty of the state, or the friendly relations of foreign states are first tried by the high court. All other cases are heard by the district court or its equivalent, (the *hsien* judicial section or, sometimes, the *hsien* government), while the second trial of such cases is held by the high court or its branches (branch high courts.) The Supreme Court holds the final hearings on all civil and criminal cases.

In certain civil cases, court decisions must be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before they are enforced. These include primarily (1) cases involving property rights on which third trials can be held; (2) cases of personal procedure such as divorce and child adoption, and (3) cases involving foreign nationals. Into the second category fall all cases to which the Law Governing the Actions Concerning Status (in the Civil Procedural Law) is applicable.

According to the Organic Law of Chinese Courts, there shall be a court in each *hsien* and municipality. Several small *hsien*, however, may share one court while an unusually large *hsien* may have one court and a number of branch courts.

A five-year program for the establishment of more courts for first and second trials was launched in 1941 by the Ministry of Justice. Because of the war and financial and other difficulties, this program was only partially completed up to the end of 1948.

Before July, 1937, there were in all of China (excluding the northeast and Jehol province) 417 courts of different grades, most of which were located in the southeastern parts of the country. During and after the war new courts were established in interior provinces.

HIGH COURTS AND DISTRICT COURTS

At the end of June, 1948, China had 909 courts including 37 high courts, 119 branch high courts and 753 district courts. There was a high court in each of the country's 35 provinces while Nanking and Shanghai were the only two of the 12 special municipalities to have one such court each. In addition, there were 1,187 *hsien* judicial sections as against 711 at the commencement of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937. (see Table 1.)

The *hsien* judicial sections—judicial section in a *hsien* government—were not full-fledged courts. They only relieved the *hsien* magistrates of their concurrent judicial duties, which had been the practice in those *hsien* which had no regular courts. By June, 1948, this practice had been abolished except in the northwestern province of Sinkiang where, pending the establishment of courts or judicial sections, the magistrates of the 66 *hsien* still wielded full judicial authority, serving sometimes as procurators and sometimes as judges. Meanwhile, a program was adopted to convert all *hsien* judicial sections into regular district courts within a stipulated period in accordance with a resolution passed by the National Judicial Conference held in Nanking, November 5-12, 1947.

The procedure followed in the *hsien* judicial sections differs from that prevalent in the regular courts. As a precautionary measure, decisions passed by the former must, prior to their enforcement, be reviewed and approved by the high court or branch high court. If errors are found the *hsien* judicial section must retry the case in question. Whenever necessary, the reviewing court may take over the case or assign one of its own judges to preside at the retrial.

The Criminal Procedural Law provides that death penalties must be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before they are executed. Whenever necessary, the Ministry may order the Procuratorate of the

**TABLE 1.—COURTS AND *Hsien* JUDICIAL SECTIONS IN VARIOUS
PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES
JUNE, 1948**

Province or Municipality	High Court	Branch High Court	District Court	<i>Hsien</i> Judicial Section	Total
Nanking.....	1	..	1	..	2
Shanghai.....	1	..	1	..	2
Kiangsu.....	1	4	31	28	64
Chekiang.....	1	5	43	33	82
Anhwei.....	1	6	21	41	69
Kiangsi.....	1	6	22	56	85
Hupei.....	1	6	34	37	78
Hunan.....	1	5	17	60	83
Szechwan.....	1	11	68	75	155
Sikang.....	1	2	10	27	40
Hopei.....	1	8	16	119	144
Shantung.....	1	7	29	80	117
Shansi.....	1	5	8	54	68
Honan.....	1	6	15	96	118
Shensi.....	1	4	20	73	98
Kansu.....	1	6	30	41	78
Chinghai.....	1	..	7	1	9
Fukien.....	1	5	14	54	74
Taiwan.....	1	1	8	..	10
Kwangtung.....	1	9	95	..	105
Kwangsi.....	1	8	22	77	108
Yunnan.....	1	7	16	114	138
Kweichow.....	1	5	26	54	86
Jehol.....	1	..	10	10	21
Chahar.....	1	..	2	17	20
Suiyuan.....	1	1	4	16	22
Ningsia.....	1	..	4	3	8
Sinkiang.....	1	..	13	..	14
Liaoning.....	1	1	26	..	28
Antung.....	1	..	18	..	19
Liaopei.....	1	..	18	6	25
Kirin.....	1	1	18	1	21
Sungkiang.....	1	..	16	..	17
Heilungkiang.....	1	..	26	1	28
Nunkiang.....	1	..	18	2	21
Hokiang.....	1	..	18	..	19
Hingan.....	1	..	8	11	20
GRAND TOTAL.....	37	119	753	1,187	2,096

REMARKS: As of June 30, 1948, Sinkiang remained the only province in China where, pending the establishment of courts or judicial sections, the magistrates of 66 *hsien* still administered judicial affairs including trying cases in a concurrent capacity.

Source: Ministry of Justice

Supreme Court* to appeal the death verdict. Only when the ministry is satisfied with the fairness of the sentences, will it order their execution, which should take place within three days after receipt of the order.

Cases involving foreign nationals also

have to be reviewed by the Ministry of Justice before the sentences are carried out. If the ministry, in reviewing such

* The Procuratorate of the Supreme Court is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice, although the Supreme Court itself comes under the Judicial Yuan.

cases, discovers evidence of failure to abide by a law or decree it may direct the Procuratorate of the Supreme Court to make extraordinary appeals.

CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES

During the 1937-1947 period, the various courts and *hsien* judicial sections of the country received altogether 6,033,816 cases for both first and second hearing, of which 4,760,795 were civil and 1,273,021 criminal. Decisions were reached on 5,354,261 of these cases, including 3,090,777 civil and 2,263,484 criminal cases. By far the largest number ever registered in a single year was in 1947 when the country's judicial organs listed 1,436,173 cases, 156,409 old and 1,279,764 new, and passed judgment on 1,269,451, leaving 166,722 cases pending. (see Tables 2, 3, 4, and 5.)

As seen in the following tables, during the initial stages of the war the yearly total of cases subjected to both first and second trials averaged between 200,000 and 300,000, and later increased to 500,000. It numbered more than 960,000 cases in 1946, the year following V-J Day, while 1947 registered a further jump of about 300,000 cases. This increase in litigation may be explained by (1) the establishment of new courts; (2) the transfer of special criminal cases to the courts for trial, and (3) social instability in the post-war era. The last-mentioned is believed to be the greatest contributing factor. A greater portion of the cases tried during 1947 were civil.

Present statistics on criminal cases include those of treason and corruption. (See the section on the trial of traitors or collaborationists in this Chapter.)

During the years 1945-7, judicial authorities were particularly strict in dealing with cases of corruption. Altogether 22,109 such cases were tried, resulting in the conviction of 8,573 persons who were given varying sentences. The percentage of convictions in relation to the number of the accused was approximately 27 percent for 1945, 36 percent for 1946, and 42 percent for 1947.

THE SUPREME COURT

The Supreme Court, being the highest tribunal of the land, handles third trials of all civil and criminal cases.

By the end of July, 1948, the Supreme Court had 10 civil courts and 14 criminal courts, all located in Nanking, as against a total of five civil courts and 11 criminal courts in July, 1937. It had an additional court in Peiping handling both civil and criminal cases. To expedite trial of large

number of unsettled cases, six temporary courts had been added to the Supreme Court.

In each of these courts there are five judges, one of whom acts as the presiding judge.

The temporary Peiping branch of the Supreme Court was organized July 31, 1948. Preparations had also been made to open two more such branches, one in Chungking and the other in Canton, to meet the increasing load in west and south China.

The two wartime-created branches of the Supreme Court, the Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien branch and the Hunan-Kwangtung branch, closed down in 1946 following the return of the National Government to Nanking. The former had been reorganized from the Shanghai Special District Branch Court, which was forced to cease functioning when the Japanese occupied the International Settlement on December 8, 1941.

From 1945 until the end of June 1948, the Supreme Court ruled on 66,895 cases, 40,182 being civil and 26,713 criminal. In 1947 alone, 30,485 civil and criminal cases were decided.

The Chekiang-Kiangsi-Fukien and Hunan-Kwangtung branch courts of the Supreme Court rendered decisions on 7,562 cases, 4,441 civil and 3,121 criminal, from 1945 until their closure in 1946.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE COURT

The Administrative Court, which is under the direct control of the Judicial Yuan, is composed of two courts, the first and second. Five judges, including the presiding judge, sit on each court.

The Administrative Court Procedural Law, promulgated by the National Government in 1937, stipulates that: Those who have suffered losses through breaches of law by either central or local government organs, may, in accordance with the Law of Appeals, repeat their appeals for redress, if they are not satisfied with the decisions thus handed down; or, if they receive no decisions two months after their second appeals, they may bring suits against the government organs in question in the Administrative Court, and accompany their suits with appeals for redress.

From 1945 to June, 1948, 291 cases were decided by the Administrative Court, which, like the other two judicial branches of the Judicial Yuan—the Supreme Court and the Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries—is located in the national capital. (see Table 6.)

TABLE 3—CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES—1947. FIRST TRIAL

Province or Municipality	Number of Old Cases Accepted			Number of New Cases Accepted			Number of Cases Decided			Number of Cases Pending		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Nanking....	306	541	847	3,932	6,102	10,034	3,741	6,397	10,138	479	264	743
Shanghai....	1,450	2,106	3,556	16,132	16,904	33,036	16,237	18,216	34,453	1,345	794	2,139
Kiangsu....	1,203	2,184	3,387	15,737	27,066	42,803	15,077	27,272	42,349	1,863	1,978	3,841
Chekiang....	5,282	3,099	8,381	57,019	36,369	93,388	56,355	37,028	93,383	5,946	2,440	8,386
Anhui....	1,745	2,634	4,379	10,120	12,177	22,297	10,328	12,869	23,197	1,542	1,942	3,479
Kiangsi....	1,177	1,326	2,503	13,596	19,470	33,066	13,331	18,765	32,096	1,437	2,031	3,473
Hupei....	1,390	2,084	3,474	25,598	26,658	52,256	25,058	26,617	51,675	1,930	2,125	4,055
Hunan....	5,454	4,766	10,220	31,325	29,347	60,672	29,687	28,734	58,421	7,092	5,379	12,471
Szechwan....	18,229	11,560	29,789	140,249	89,152	229,401	138,967	86,927	225,894	19,511	13,785	33,296
Sikang....	664	289	953	7,044	2,234	9,278	7,087	2,317	9,404	621	206	827
Hopei....	1,978	4,715	6,693	19,411	22,434	41,845	18,746	24,996	43,742	2,643	2,153	4,796
Shantung....	176	525	701	4,208	7,197	11,405	3,888	7,171	11,059	496	551	1,047
Shansi....	175	188	363	1,242	2,237	3,479	1,175	2,174	3,349	242	251	493
Honan....	5,585	3,853	9,438	27,974	18,668	46,642	23,579	18,748	42,327	9,980	3,773	13,753
Shensi....	1,212	1,198	2,410	24,688	19,067	43,755	24,711	18,829	43,540	1,189	1,436	2,625
Kansu....	909	312	1,221	27,026	15,470	42,496	27,077	15,530	42,607	858	252	1,110
Chinghai....	101	18	119	2,038	934	2,972	2,936	924	2,960	103	28	131
Fukien....	2,139	2,611	4,750	14,240	16,300	30,540	14,144	16,249	30,393	2,235	2,662	4,897
Taiwan....	1,376	1,176	2,552	8,237	10,412	18,649	7,259	10,555	17,814	2,354	1,033	3,387
Kwangtung....	2,111	1,936	4,047	32,734	32,063	64,797	33,076	32,608	65,684	1,769	1,391	3,160
Kwangsi....	3,282	3,512	6,794	23,961	24,846	48,807	23,728	25,372	49,100	3,515	2,986	6,501
Yunnan....	2,457	1,418	3,875	12,541	4,657	17,198	11,921	5,094	17,015	3,077	981	4,058
Kweichow....	5,131	2,705	7,836	39,465	22,940	62,405	38,713	22,628	61,341	5,883	3,017	8,900
Liaoning....	609	797	1,406	8,772	11,746	20,518	8,316	11,988	20,304	1,065	555	1,620
Antung....	6	9	15	403	209	612	240	165	405	169	53	222
Liaopai....	120	98	218	994	754	1,748	860	733	1,593	254	119	373
Kirin....	148	286	434	2,475	3,114	5,589	2,186	3,154	5,340	437	246	683
Jehol....	87	41	128	509	293	802	441	292	733	155	42	197
Chahar....	84	11	95	682	862	1,544	588	714	1,302	94	159	253
Suiyuan....	84	157	241	1,567	1,738	3,305	1,558	1,788	3,346	93	107	200
Ningsia....	39	12	51	945	386	1,331	941	389	1,330	43	9	52
Sinkiang....	1,282	170	1,452	8,776	1,129	9,905	8,886	1,199	10,085	1,172	100	1,272
GRAND TOTAL....	65,907	56,337	122,244	583,640	482,935	1,066,575	569,937	486,442	1,056,379	79,592	52,848	132,440

REMARKS: The figures include first-trial cases handled by the high courts, branch high courts, district courts.

Province or Municipality	Number of Old Cases Accepted			Number of New Cases Accepted			Number of Cases Decided			Number of Cases Pending		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Nanking....	113	108	221	883	1,213	2,096	916	1,233	2,149	80	88	168
Shanghai....	678	263	941	3,074	2,592	5,666	2,606	2,610	5,216	1,146	245	1,391
Kiangsu....	274	483	757	3,125	5,023	8,148	2,840	4,925	7,765	559	581	1,140
Chekiang....	1,467	996	2,463	10,142	6,352	16,494	9,278	6,361	15,639	2,331	987	3,318
Anhui....	418	515	933	1,850	2,287	4,137	1,785	2,540	4,325	483	262	745
Kiangsi....	317	432	749	3,264	4,801	8,065	3,283	4,961	8,244	298	272	570
Hupeh....	670	409	1,079	4,253	4,277	8,530	4,499	4,385	8,884	424	301	725
Hunan....	913	520	1,433	6,812	5,585	12,397	6,498	5,617	12,115	1,227	488	1,715
Szechwan....	5,024	3,237	8,261	28,777	13,054	41,831	28,123	14,363	42,486	5,678	1,928	7,606
Sikang....	75	11	86	1,311	368	1,679	1,208	349	1,557	178	30	208
Hopei....	1,484	791	2,275	5,350	4,725	10,075	4,715	4,245	8,960	2,119	1,271	3,390
Shantung....	94	168	262	868	2,202	3,070	897	2,290	3,187	65	80	145
Shansi....	56	87	143	286	750	1,036	290	794	1,084	52	43	95
Honan....	1,734	607	2,341	9,676	2,932	12,608	9,376	3,055	12,431	2,034	484	2,518
Shensi....	525	266	791	6,449	3,920	10,369	6,395	4,003	10,398	579	183	762
Kansu....	181	48	229	4,040	2,041	6,081	4,003	2,024	6,027	218	65	283
Chinghai....	9	4	13	118	94	212	118	91	209	9	7	16
Fukien....	690	440	1,130	4,163	4,707	8,870	4,162	4,891	9,053	691	256	947
Taiwan....	243	87	330	425	910	1,335	321	823	1,144	347	174	521
Kwangtung....	1,452	607	2,059	8,525	6,180	14,705	9,089	6,468	15,557	888	319	1,207
Kwangsi....	2,108	1,940	4,048	6,240	7,074	13,314	6,718	7,956	14,674	1,630	1,058	2,688
Yunnan....	984	110	1,094	5,090	803	5,893	4,778	754	5,532	1,296	159	1,455
Kweichow....	1,370	733	2,103	8,671	4,044	12,715	8,432	4,693	13,125	1,609	84	1,693
Liaoning....	92	125	217	1,310	698	2,008	974	685	1,659	428	138	566
Antung....	7	..	7	15	6	21	22	6	28
Liaopel....	7	3	10	95	103	198	48	102	150	54	4	58
Kirin....	5	7	12	139	159	298	99	130	229	45	36	81
Jehol....	16	..	16	97	63	160	58	42	100	55	21	76
Chahar....	85	179	264	68	163	231	17	16	33
Suiyuan....	48	33	81	201	196	397	221	206	427	28	23	51
Ningsia....	13	8	21	124	84	208	130	87	217	7	5	12
Sinkiang....	43	17	60	122	187	309	126	172	298	39	32	71
GRAND TOTAL....	21,110	13,055	34,165	125,580	87,609	213,189	122,054	91,018	213,072	24,636	9,646	34,282

TABLE 5—CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES DECIDED BY THE SUPREME COURT
1945 TO 1948 (JAN.-JUNE)

Month	1945			1946			1947			1948 (Jan.-June)		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
January.....	658	155	813	432	244	676	388	422	810	996	1,004	2,000
February.....	570	158	728	462	231	693	554	1,302	1,856	905	812	1,717
March.....	808	267	1,075	500	359	859	866	1,745	2,611	1,432	1,090	2,522
April.....	826	224	1,050	689	383	1,072	913	1,144	2,057	1,374	1,028	2,402
May.....	870	211	1,081	858	347	1,205	1,139	1,292	2,431	1,375	1,024	2,399
June.....	898	294	1,192	504	300	804	957	1,227	2,184	1,232	972	2,204
July.....	753	239	992	253	151	404	817	1,231	2,048
August.....	748	202	950	294	133	427	5,926	885	6,811
September.....	622	207	829	541	210	751	1,136	1,094	2,230
October.....	762	250	1,012	932	338	1,270	1,276	1,186	2,462
November.....	727	303	1,030	894	636	1,530	1,108	1,200	2,308
December.....	754	411	1,165	967	591	1,558	1,466	1,211	2,677
GRAND TOTAL.....	8,896	2,921	11,917	7,326	3,923	11,249	16,546	13,939	30,485	7,314	5,930	13,244

REMARKS: The figures do not include cases handled by the two branch courts of the Supreme Court.
Source: Judicial Yuan

**TABLE 6—CASES DECIDED BY THE ADMINISTRATIVE COURT
1945 TO 1948 (JAN.-JUNE)**

Category of Case	1945	1946	1947	1948
Repetition.....	13	33	70	42
Not under court's jurisdiction or con- trary to legal pro- cedure.....	11	14	20	8
Petition.....	15	11	22	22
Re-trial.....	2	2	4	2
TOTAL.....	41	60	116	74

Source: Judicial Yuan

**PUNISHMENT OF PUBLIC
FUNCTIONARIES**

The Commission for the Disciplinary Punishment of Public Functionaries has been set up to guard against corruption among government servants. It has jurisdiction over all cases of embezzlement, default, dereliction of duty, breach of law and other legal offenses involving members of any of the four main ranks within the Chinese civil service set-up.

The power to discipline top-ranking government officials—those having the special appointment rank—was invested in the Commission as of July 1, 1948, following its re-organization under the new Constitutional Government. Formerly it belonged to a special committee under the National Government.

The commission, which comes under the Judicial Yuan, consists of two divisions, one central and the other local. The central commission is empowered to discipline local administrative officials throughout the country of the second (or selected appointment); and third (or recommended appointment) ranks, and all Central Government functionaries of all the four ranks—special, selected, recommended and designated appointments. The local commissions have jurisdiction over local government officials of and below the designated appointment rank.

From 1945 to June, 1948, the central commission decided 750 cases involving functionaries under the Central Government. The following table shows the cases decided by the commission (central division) from 1945 to June, 1948.

**TABLE 7—CASES DECIDED BY THE COMMISSION FOR THE DISCIPLINARY
PUNISHMENT OF PUBLIC FUNCTIONARIES (central division)
1945 TO 1948 (JAN.-JUNE)**

Month	1945	1946	1947	1948
January.....	2	4	3	20
February.....	3	6	9	25
March.....	5	7	11	32
April.....	6	8	12	35
May.....	6	2	15	25
June.....	20	4	22	61
July.....	9	15	32	..
August.....	17	11	11	..
September.....	8	11	28	..
October.....	11	19	23	..
November.....	10	24	12	..
December.....	21	56	89	..
TOTAL.....	118	167	267	198

Source: Judicial Yuan

SPECIAL CRIMINAL CASES

Regulations Governing the Trial of Special Criminal Cases were promulgated by the National Government on January 13, 1944, and went into effect on November 12 of the same year. Because of the existing national emergency, cases of treason, robbery, corruption and opium and drug offenses constituted special criminal cases, and the offenders were tried by military tribunals or similar organs. Later, these cases were transferred to judicial agencies with the exception of those involving military personnel and opium and drug offenders.

By a mandate of the National Government in March, 1946, the trial of cases involving anti-opium and anti-drug laws was placed in the hands of judicial agencies. Because of the peculiar conditions caused by communist disturbances in Shensi, Kansu and Honan, the new ruling did not go into effect in these provinces until October, 1947.

The National Government in December, 1946, adopted a set of emergency measures dealing with cases of robbery and banditry, committed in pacification areas and in the nine Northeastern Provinces. These cases were to be tried by military tribunals. This was revoked in December, 1947, and in its place were promulgated the Emergency Penal Measures to Cope with Acts of Sedition during the rebellion-suppression period. The new measures provide for the establishment of special criminal courts to handle cases of sedition and serious cases of robbery and banditry. These special criminal courts, which deal primarily with communist rebels and violators of public security, have two divisions: Special High Criminal Courts (under the Ministry of Justice) and Special Central Criminal Courts (under the Judicial Yuan). Retrials are handled by the Special Central Criminal Court in Nanking. Regulations governing the organization of these tribunals were adopted by the Legislative Yuan on March 25, 1948, and by July 5 of the same year 13 cities—Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Hankow, Hsuehchow, Chinkiang, Hefei, Tsingtao, Hangchow, Foochow, Hainan island, Tihwa and Sian—had reported the establishment of Special High Criminal Courts. More were scheduled to be organized at Canton, Chungking, Chengtu, Wuhu, Tsinan, Siangyang, Kiukiang, Lanchow, Tientsin, Shufu (Kashgar) and Kunming. The Special Central Criminal Court began functioning September 15, 1948.

PUNISHMENT OF TRAITORS

All cases of high treason were handled by judicial agencies with the exception of those wherein the accused belonged originally to military personnel and had held military posts under the puppet regime. The latter were subject to trial under military law.

In the disposal of high treason cases, the Ministry of Justice instructed the courts concerned that:

(1) Those guilty of false accusations be severely punished;

(2) Accusations made by anonymous persons be ignored;

(3) The confiscation of a traitor's property be carried out jointly by the prosecutor and a representative of the Alien Property Administration, or of the local government if there is no representative of the administration;

(4) Property, necessary for the subsistence of the dependents of a traitor, be exempted from confiscation;

(5) The above-mentioned dependents include those who are unable to support themselves. Subsistence means outlays for clothing, food and housing, and medical and educational expenses.

The National Government named December 31, 1946 as the last day for bringing charges against traitors. The new ruling, however, in no way restricted or altered the State's right of prosecution or the victims' right of complaint.

Up to the end of June, 1948, charges of treason had been brought against 31,895 persons. Of these, 6,771 were acquitted, while 16,385 were convicted.

Practically all important cases of treason had been disposed of by the end of 1947. Altogether 25 persons were given death sentences which were duly carried out after they had been upheld by the Ministry of Justice. The 25 included these notorious leaders in the Japanese-sponsored puppet regime: Chen Kung-po, Chu Min-yi, Miao Pin and Liang Hung-chih. Chen Pi-chun, wife of Wang Ching-wei, president of the puppet regime, was among the 58 traitors sentenced to life imprisonment. The National Government commuted the death sentence of Chou Fu-hai, another puppet leader, to life imprisonment. Chou, however, died in prison in Nanking on February 28, 1948, following a protracted illness.

II. COURT JURISDICTION OVER FOREIGNERS

With the abrogation of the extraterritoriality treaties, law suits involving

foreign nationals have, since January, 1942, been tried by Chinese courts in accordance with Chinese laws and regulations. Specific instructions regarding court jurisdiction over foreign nationals were given to the judicial organs of the country by the Ministry of Justice in February, 1943. These provided that if a foreigner is involved in a civil or criminal case as a defendant and if the judicial authority handling the case is lower than a district court, either the defendant or the judicial authority concerned may, prior to the commencement of trial, send a written request to the high court to have the case transferred to a district court.

(1) CASES INVOLVING FOREIGNERS

In 1946 and also in 1947, law suits involving foreign nationals registered a marked increase over those in any one of the eight war years, 1937-45. Where in 1942, for example, only 17 such cases were tried in Chinese courts, the annual total jumped to 126 in 1945, to 959 in 1946, and 962 in 1947.

From 1937 to 1945 inclusive, various district courts tried a total of 4,072 cases, of which 2,461 were civil and 1,611 criminal, averaging about 450 cases a year. Most of these were tried in Shanghai.

(2) ADVOCATESHIP OF FOREIGNERS

On April 5, 1945, the National Government passed its revised Advocates Act permitting the practice of law in China by foreign nationals. Under the revised act, nationals of any foreign country under whose law Chinese citizens may be admissible to the bar may apply to take the examination for advocates in accordance with Chinese law. Those who have passed the examination and have obtained permission to serve as advocates in China are required to abide by all Chinese laws and the regulations of the Bar Association. They are further required to conduct their proceedings and submit their documents in the Chinese language. (Articles 47, 48 and 49 of the revised Advocates Act deal with the practice of law in China by foreign nationals. A complete translation of the Act is to be found in this Chapter on page 219).

(3) JURISDICTION OVER ALLIED FORCES

Up to August, 1948, United States military personnel in China—members of the Army Advisory Group—continued to enjoy immunity from the Chinese law under a wartime arrangement between

China and the United States. The pertinent regulations governing criminal jurisdiction over members of the American armed forces temporarily stationed in China, born of this arrangement, were promulgated by the National Government on October 1, 1943. They were to remain in force until six months after the conclusion of the war.

A government decree issued on May 3, 1946, extended them for another year. On July 16, 1947, Article VII was revised to allow the regulations to remain effective until the complete withdrawal of American military personnel from China.

A similar wartime agreement between China and Great Britain was terminated following V-J Day, after all British military personnel had withdrawn from the China theater.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING CRIMINAL JURISDICTION OVER MEMBERS OF THE AMERICAN ARMED FORCES IN CHINA

(Promulgated by the National Government on October 1, 1943, and revised on July 16, 1947)

Article I. The National Government of the Republic of China, in the interest of conduct of war against the common enemies and acting from a spirit of reciprocity, shall surrender to the American service courts and military authorities exclusive jurisdiction over any criminal offenses that may be committed by members of the armed forces of the United States stationed temporarily in China. The cases shall be handled according to these regulations.

Article II. The Chinese courts shall handle criminal offenses committed by members of the American armed forces in China if and when the military authorities of the American Government prefer that jurisdiction be exercised by the Chinese Government.

Article III. Members of the American armed forces as mentioned in these regulations refer only to those who are, according to the American laws, subject to the jurisdiction of the American military and naval laws. This does not include Chinese nationals serving in the American armed forces and nationals of a third or undetermined nationality employed in China by the American armed forces.

Members of the American armed forces shall produce their credentials to identify themselves as being subject to the jurisdiction of the American military and naval laws.

TABLE 8—CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES INVOLVING FOREIGNERS
1945 TO 1947
FIRST TRIAL
(By Locality)

Province or Municipality	1945			1946			1947		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Nanking.....	45	46	91	316	5385	701	587	7235	7822
Shanghai.....	1	5	6	..	1	1	..	1	2
Kiangsu.....	8	8
Chekiang.....	2	2
Kiangsi.....	2	46	48	2	..	2
Hupei.....	1	1	2	..	1	1
Hunan.....	..	17	21	3	3	6	5	..	5
Szechwan.....	4	1	1
Sikang.....	12	12	..	15	18
Hopei.....	41	23	64	19	15	34
Shantung.....	15	15
Shansi.....	1	..	1	1	..	1
Honan.....	21	21	..	4	4
Kwangtung.....	..	8	8	..	9	9	1	4	5
Kwangsi.....	2	..	2
Yunnan.....	30	30
Liaoning.....	62	62	..	29	29
Kirin.....	1	..	1
Sinkiang.....
GRAND TOTAL.....	50	76	126	365	594	959	621	341	962

Source: Ministry of Justice

TABLE 9—CIVIL AND CRIMINAL CASES INVOLVING FOREIGNERS
1945 TO 1947
FIRST TRIAL
(By Nationality)

Nationality of Accused	1945			1946			1947		
	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total	Civil	Criminal	Total
Chinese.....	8	4	12	39	15	54	192	5	197
British.....	12	1	13	70	27	97	80	4	84
American.....	3	10	13	23	34	57	41	16	57
Soviet.....	2	2	4	21	180	201	137	81	218
Dutch.....	1	..	1	3	1	4	2	..	2
Belgian.....	1	2	3
Portuguese.....	3	11	14	13	3	16
Spanish.....	..	1	1	1	6	7	5	..	5
Indian.....	..	1	1	2	14	16	7	3	10
German.....	4	..	4	30	22	52	20	6	26
Italian.....	4	9	13	2	1	3
Japanese.....	..	19	19	7	146	153	8	14	22
French.....	..	2	2	17	22	39	21	26	47
Stateless.....	1	..	1	55	..	55
Others.....	20	36	56	143	105	248	38	182	220
GRAND TOTAL.....	50	76	126	365	594	959	621	341	962

Source: Ministry of Justice

Article IV. The regulation concerning jurisdiction as described in Article I shall not restrain the Chinese courts in the exercise, according to the Chinese laws, of such authority as questioning, arrest, detention, search and investigation over any member of the American armed forces who has committed or is alleged to have committed an offense.

As soon as sufficient evidence has been made available to prove the member of the American armed forces concerned to be guilty or culpable, findings to that effect shall be reported immediately to the American military authority concerned, and the case shall be transferred thereto.

Article V. Transcript copies of verdicts rendered by the American service courts and military authorities on cases involving members of the American armed forces in China shall be made available to the Chinese courts or other agencies concerned upon request. The latter may also, prior to the rendering of the verdicts, request to be kept informed about the progress of the cases.

Article VI. No person acting with good intention toward a member of the American armed forces shall be held legally responsible, either in a civil or a criminal sense, if, due to the fact that he is unaware of the identity of the American, his act is not in accordance with these regulations.

Article VII. These regulations shall come into force from the date of promulgation and shall remain effective until all American military personnel have withdrawn from China.

III. JUDICIAL SURVEY

Dr. Roscoe Pound, dean emeritus of the Harvard Law School, was appointed advisor to the Chinese Ministry of Justice in February, 1946. He came to China in the summer of the same year to study postwar conditions in this country in preparation for the work he was going to undertake.

His preliminary study led him to think that the Chinese legal system as it then stood was comparable, if not superior, to that of any of the advanced countries in the West and that no fundamental change was needed. He proposed, among other things, that a survey be made of the administration of justice to ascertain actual conditions and problems and to collect data and gather opinions as a basis for future improvement of Chinese legal institutions.

Steps to implement Dr. Pound's proposal were taken upon his return to China

in September, 1947, following a home visit. An official body known as the Judicial Survey was organized in the spring of 1948 under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice.

The survey has five sections, composed of a chief and two assistants each. The section chiefs were chosen from among university professors and experienced judges and procurators of high rank, while the assistants are either judges or procurators chosen for their special ability and interest in such an undertaking. The duties of the five sections are as follows:

Section 1.—Study of agencies of public order and of investigation and detention;

Section 2.—Study of agencies and methods of prosecution;

Section 3.—Study of agencies of penal and correctional treatment;

Section 4.—Study of the application of the civil codes and supplementary legislation;

Section 5.—Study of civil procedure and the enforcement of judgements and orders.

The early part of 1948 was spent in making preparations for the survey, including the preparation of questionnaires and forms. The group began its work in June, starting with Nanking and Shanghai and then proceeding to 40 cities in Kiangsu and Chekiang. Special attention was paid to the extent of cooperation and coordination between the different agencies concerned and the question of juvenile delinquency.

The questionnaires and forms were so prepared as to obtain data concerning points which have given rise to problems and discussions in other countries. It is believed, therefore, that the results of the survey would contribute much to the comparative study of legal systems and institutions related thereto.

In view of the importance of juvenile legislation, the Ministry of Justice, with Dr. Pound's assistance, took steps to prepare a comprehensive draft of a law governing juvenile delinquency, based partly on the data obtained from the survey and partly on modern legislation in other countries. The work was expected to be finished before the end of 1948.

Dr. Pound, who is the leader of the well-known School of Sociological Jurisprudence, also took a special interest in Chinese legal education. At the request of the Ministry of Education he presented memoranda and opinions on legal education and lectured at various universities. He served concurrently on the Ministry's Council of Legal Education as advisor.

IV. PRISONS

(1) PRISON REFORM

The Ministry of Justice, in 1941, blue-printed the postwar construction of new prison-houses over a period of 10 years and, two years later, mapped out a program of prison reform. In January, 1946, the National Government enacted such laws as the *Regulations Governing Prisons*, *Regulations Governing Detention Houses*, *Prison Execution Law* and *Detention Law*, which all became effective in June, 1947.

Due to lack of funds, however, improvements to the existing prisons were limited. Such improvements were effected first to the prisons in Shanghai in 1947 and were to be extended to all new prisons in the various provinces in 1948 and to all the old ones in 1949. The plan was to bring all the Chinese prisons up to the Ministry of Justice requirements in three years' time.

Highlights of the prison reform program are (1) stricter discipline among prison personnel; (2) general improvement; (3) stricter guard service; re-

TABLE 10—PRISONS AND DETENTION HOUSES IN VARIOUS PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES
JUNE, 1948

Province or Municipality	Prison	Branch Prison	Juvenile Prison	Convicts' Colony	Detention House	Total
Nanking.....	1	2	3
Shanghai.....	1	1	2	4
Kiangsu.....	5	1	60	66
Chekiang.....	5	76	81
Anhwei.....	5	1	62	68
Kiangsi.....	4	78	82
Hupei.....	3	..	1	..	71	75
Hunan.....	4	77	81
Szechwan.....	3	1	145	149
Sikang.....	37	37
Hopei.....	6	5	137	148
Shantung.....	11	4	1	..	109	125
Shansi.....	6	62	68
Honan.....	3	111	114
Shensi.....	6	93	99
Kansu.....	4	71	75
Chinghai.....	1	7	8
Fukien.....	5	68	73
Taiwan.....	8	..	1	..	8	17
Kwangtung....	6	95	101
Kwangsi.....	3	99	102
Yunnan.....	1	130	131
Kweichow.....	1	1	80	82
Jehol.....	1	15	16
Chahar.....	1	..	1	..	19	21
Suiyuan.....	1	20	21
Ningsia.....	1	7	8
Sinkiang.....	8	79	87
Liaoning.....	8	26	34
Antung.....	2	12	14
Liaopei.....	4	11	15
Kirin.....	3	9	12
Sungkiang.....
Heilungkiang..
Nunkiang.....
Hokiang.....
Hsingan.....
GRAND TTOTAL.	121	12	4	2	1,878	2,017

Source: Ministry of Justice

orientation of prisoners; (3) better prison diets; (6) improved health and medical services for prisoners; (7) better buildings; (8) protection of released convicts.

As of June, 1948, there were in all China 121 prisons, 12 branch prisons, four juvenile prisons and two labor prisons or convicts' colonies. In addition, there were 1,878 detention houses attached to district and high courts and *hsien* judicial sections. (see Table 10.)

Generally, convicts serve their terms in detention houses in those *hsien* which have no new prisons. Separate quarters are provided in some cases for military convicts to relieve the congestion in the *hsien* jails.

(2) CONVICTS

Convicts are provided vocational training while serving their prison terms. In many cases the training program means a continuation of their occupational pursuits.

As of December, 1947, there were 2,237 working units in China's prisons and detention houses, with convicts engaged in 64 different types of productive labor including: printing, spinning, gardening and horticulture, and the making of sandals, socks, matches, letter envelopes and joss sticks. During 1947 alone these working units earned CNC\$1,638,273,826 from the sales of their products.

To relieve prison congestion, the Ministry of Justice has since 1941 been carrying out a re-settlement program among the convicts through the establishment of labor prisons or, more correctly, convicts' colonies. The first such colony was set up at Pingwu in northern Szechwan, on October 1, 1941. By the end of 1947, more than 1,400 mow of wasteland had been reclaimed. The number of convict-workers averaged 150 daily, of whom 100 were engaged in farming. The crops grown included corn, rice, potatoes and vegetables. Some raised cattle. Not a few of the workers had their families living with them in the colony. In 1947 preparations on two more convicts' colonies were begun, one at Suancheng in Anhwei, and the other at Pingpa in Kweichow.

At the end of 1947, there were about 130,680 convicts in the various prisons and detention houses throughout China. This total was taken as a daily average of convicts serving their terms between January and December of that year.

A total of 72,196 convicts was released under a general amnesty proclaimed by the National Government on New Year's Day, 1947, on the promulga-

tion of the new constitution. The amnesty was applicable to all cases except those relating to treason, corruption, homicide against lineal relatives by blood, and ascendancy and drug offenses.

Measures governing the commutation of sentences were passed by the National Government in June, 1944. By the end of 1945, 4,084 convicts had received varying commutations of their sentences. More convicts had their sentences commuted since the government's proclamation of amnesty on the New Year's Day of 1947; however, no complete statistics were available as of July, 1948.

The wartime regulations governing the transfer of convicts for military service and the temporary release of prison-term convicts during the emergency period were abrogated in January, 1946. By then, 38,175 convicts had been released for army service, and 47,089 convicts paroled, bailed out or temporarily released. In October, 1947, similar measures were enacted by the Executive Yuan for prison-term convicts in pacification areas.

V. JUDICIAL REFORMS

(1) SIMPLIFICATION OF TRIAL PROCEDURE

Further simplification of the trial procedure of civil and criminal cases was one of the major resolutions of the National Judicial Conference held in Nanking November 5-12, 1947.

Even during the war, the district courts in Chungking and Pishan attempted with satisfactory results a new simplified procedure for the trial of civil and criminal cases.

Of the cases tried by the Pishan district court from May, 1942, to June, 1944, 70 percent took less than 15 days to reach a settlement; 13 percent less than five days; 9 percent less than a month; 5 percent less than a day, and 3 percent more than a month.

In March, 1945, pursuant to a directive from the Executive Yuan, the Ministry of Justice formulated a simplified procedure program on the basis of the results of these experiments and submitted it for legislation along with suggestions for changes in the civil and criminal procedural laws. The proposed program was shelved. Only the proposed revisions in these laws were passed by the Legislative Yuan. Following their promulgation in December of the same year, the experimental district courts at Chungking and Pishan ceased functioning.

(2) COURT MEDIATION

As a means to reduce civil litigations, the courts undertake mediation in civil disputes. From V-J Day till the end of 1947, 106,387 such cases were handled by the various courts. Mediatory efforts proved successful in 26,521 cases or about 25 percent of the total. The prewar average was less than five percent.

(3) ENFORCEMENT OF HABEAS CORPUS ACT

China's Habeas Corpus Act, superseding the regulations for safeguarding the freedom of the human person, was put in force on March 15, 1946. The regulations, which were adopted during the war as a preparatory step toward constitutional rule, were adopted on July 15, 1944 by the National Government to become effective on August 1, the same year.

Specified guarantee of the people's freedom of person is contained in Article 8 of the new constitution, which reads:

Article 8—Freedom of person shall be guaranteed to the people. Except in case of apprehension *flagrante delicto* as otherwise provided for by law, no person shall be arrested or detained unless the arrest or detention is made by a judicial or a police organ in accordance with procedure prescribed by law. No person shall be tried or punished except by a judicial authority in accordance with procedure prescribed by law.

Any arrest, detention, trial or punishment not in accordance with procedure prescribed by law may be contested.

When a person is arrested or detained on suspicion of having committed a crime, the organ making the arrest or detention shall in writing inform the said person and his designated relative or friend of the reason for his arrest or detention, and shall, within twenty-four hours, turn him over to a competent judicial authority for hearing. The said person, or any other individual, may petition the competent court that a writ be served within twenty-four hours on the organ making the arrest for the surrender of the said person for hearing.

The court may not reject the petition mentioned in the preceding paragraph, nor may it order the organ concerned to make an investigation and report first. The organ concerned may not refuse to execute or delay in executing the writ of the court for surrender of the said person for hearing.

When a person is arrested or detained illegally, he, or any other person, may petition the court for an investigation.

The court may not reject such a petition, and shall, within twenty-four hours, make the investigation with the organ concerned, and proceed with the matter in accordance with law.

To bring the Habeas Corpus Act into full consonancy with these constitutional provisions, the Legislative Yuan, on April 15, 1948, deleted Article 4 and revised Articles 5 and 6 of the Act. The deleted article was found in conflict with paragraph three of the above-quoted article from the Constitution, as it provided that "... the court may order the concerned ... to report within a specified period of time."

(4) COURT-ASSIGNED ATTORNEY SYSTEM

In July, 1940, the Chungking District Court started the system of court-assigned attorneys to represent those defendants who are unable to pay legal fees and who face criminal charges involving more than five years of imprisonment, or who face first trials without advocates under the jurisdiction of a high court. In 1941, the system was extended to the district courts at Chengtu and Kweilin. By the end of 1947, it had been put into effect in some 50 cities including Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Hankow and Canton. In April, 1948, 10 more cities in the northwestern frontier province of Sinkiang had adopted the system, followed by Hangchow and 10 other cities in Chekiang in May of the same year. One or two attorneys may thus be assigned to a case and they receive their fees from the government.

The Ministry of Justice has, meanwhile, instituted a set of measures requiring members of the bar association to provide free legal advice to complainants too poor to pay. By the end of 1947, 86 cities in 16 provinces had reported the enforcement of these measures. Early in 1948, the Ministry of Justice approved for immediate enforcement details of implementing the "free legal aid to the poor" system, which was submitted by the Nanchang Bar Association in Kiangsi.

For the convenience of litigants or prospective litigants unacquainted with legal procedure, the Ministry of Justice in 1942 ordered the establishment of civil and criminal procedure inquiry offices in district courts and their equivalents. By the end of 1947, 380 such offices had been set up in 18 provinces.

(5) NOTARY PUBLIC SYSTEM

The Notary Public System was instituted in China first in the Nanking district court in April, 1935. Before July,

1937, it was extended to 27 other courts.

The system was promoted with greater vigor after the beginning of the war with Japan, which caused upheavals in the social and economic life of the people. By the end of 1947, there were notary public offices in 557 out of the country's 748 district courts. They were to be set up in 29 more district courts during 1948.

Statistics show annual increases in the number of cases handled by the notary public offices since 1945: 22,312 in 1945; 65,017 in 1946; and 11,686 in 1947, in areas not overrun by communists.

Details for the enforcement of the Notary Public Law and regulations governing notary public service fees were announced on January 1, 1944.

(6) CIRCUIT COURTS

The circuit court system, a wartime expedient in China, was abolished in December, 1945. Gratifying results had been reported from the nine war-stricken provinces of Hupeh, Kwangtung, Honan, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Kiangsu, Shantung and Shansi where circuit courts to hold second trials had been sitting since 1939. The first trials were left to the district courts. In regard to cases in the *hsien* under enemy occupation, first trials were held by courts in the neighboring *hsien* under Chinese control.

(7) TRAINING OF JUDICIAL PERSONNEL

The Ministry of Justice has been aiding the nation's universities and colleges since 1942 in enlarging their legal training programs. Special training classes were conducted for judicial officials under the joint sponsorship of the Judicial Yuan and the Ministry of Justice.

At the end of 1947, China had altogether 8,130 key judicial personnel, of whom 2,389 were judges, 1,774 procurators, 2,074 trial officers, and 1,893 jail superintendents. In addition, there were more than 90,000 court clerks and jail officers. Seven-tenths of the judges and procurators had been selected by examination, and 2,121 of them had passed competitive examinations held since the establishment of the National Government in 1927.

Chinese judges generally are appointed from among successful candidates of competitive government examinations given for judicial officials. Some are selected on the basis of their credentials and experience.

(8) LAW COURSES IN COLLEGES

In 1948, law courses were offered in the following 32 universities and colleges; those marked with asterisks were privately operated.

- National Central University
- National Political University
- National Fudan University
- *Great China University
- *Aurora University
- *Shanghai College of Law and Jurisprudence
- *Shanghai College of Law
- National China University
- *Soochow University
- National Peking University
- *Chaoyang College
- *Chungkuo College
- *Huapei College of Arts and Law
- National Wuhan University
- National Northwest University
- National Kwangsi University
- National Anhwei University
- National Shansi University
- National Kweichow University
- National Hunan University
- National Lanchow University
- National Amoy University
- *Minkuo College of Peiping
- National Szechwan University
- *Fukien College
- National Sun Yat-sen University
- *Kuoming University of Kwangtung
- *University of Canton
- National Yunnan University
- National Northeast University
- National Changchun University
- National Yingshih University

In the middle of July, 1948, 1,560 law school graduates from these institutions participated in a three-day competitive preliminary examination for judicial officials, held simultaneously in 32 Chinese cities under the joint sponsorship of the Ministry of Examination and the Ministry of Justice. Subjects reviewed included the constitution, civil and criminal codes, civil and criminal procedural laws, commercial laws and regulations, and international private law.

(9) UNIFICATION OF JUDICIAL EXPENDITURES

At the beginning of the Republic, judicial expenditures formed part of the national budget. But during the subsequent years of internal strife, the funds became irregular due to the interference of the warlords. In 1928, the National Government decided that these expenditures should come from local revenues. This arrangement, however, did not work

out satisfactorily. The National Judicial Conference held in 1935 adopted two transitional measures. First, before such expenses were assumed by the National Treasury, the various provinces should be responsible for meeting the court costs in their jurisdiction; second, the National Treasury should designate portions of the income tax, inheritance tax and other definite sources of revenue to meet judicial expenditures throughout the country.

Beginning in 1940, in an agreement worked out between the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Finance, the expenditures for courts and modern prisons in nine provinces—Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Shensi, Kansu, Sikang, Ningsia and Chinghai—were to become part of the national budget and to be met by the Central Government. The following year, judicial expenditures in all other provinces were similarly incorporated in the national budget, thus marking the unification of the country's legal finances. Since then the judicial budget has increased annually both in income and in expenditure as shown in the following tables.

VI. ADVOCATES AND ADVOCATES ACT

The existing Advocates Act was promulgated by the National Government in January, 1941. It was revised in April, 1945 to apply also to foreign nationals desiring to practise law in China—a development arising out of the termination of consular jurisdiction by the major foreign powers on New Year's Day, 1942.

On March 23, 1948, Article XXX of the Advocates Act was modified in keeping with the constitutional development of the country. The amendment further restricts the holding of certain concurrent public offices by practising advocates. (see text of the Advocates Act below).

The Ministry of Justice, on January 31, 1947, ruled that any advocate who had executed his duty in a puppet court or who had served as a puppet public functionary but had not been convicted shall have his license suspended for a specified length of time.

No person may practise law in China without an advocate's license issued by the Ministry of Justice. Altogether 11,342 such licenses had been granted from 1927 up to the end of 1947. Of this number, 1,521 were given out during 1945, 1946 and 1947.

REVISED ADVOCATES ACT

(Promulgated by the National Government on April 5, 1945, and enforced the same day.)

Article I. Any citizen of the Republic of China who has successfully passed the examination for advocates is eligible to practise law.

Whoever possesses one of the following qualifications is required only to have his or her record examined and verified in lieu of taking the examination mentioned in the preceding paragraph:

- (1) Erstwhile judge or procurator;
- (2) Erstwhile professor, assistant professor or lecturer who has taught principal law courses for more

TABLE 11—JUDICIAL INCOME VERSUS NATIONAL REVENUE
1941 to 1947

In Chinese National Currency Dollars (CNC \$)

Year	National Revenue	Judicial Income (Under Ministry of Justice)	Percentage
1941.....	17,533,877,542	6,518,608	.086
1942.....	17,310,618,341	9,911,484	.573
1943.....	18,886,010,918	32,405,000	.172
1944.....	79,501,431,808	75,200,000	.095
1945.....	263,844,138,900	287,390,000	.109
1946.....	2,524,934,725,000	2,230,044,000	.088
1947.....	9,370,406,740,000	55,100,000,000	.588

REMARKS: 1. The figures do not include subsequent budgetary additions or deductions.
2. The figures include extraordinary and special receipts.
3. The figures listed under 1947 represent merely those for the first half of that year.

Source: Ministry of Justice

TABLE 12—JUDICIAL EXPENDITURE VERSUS NATIONAL EXPENDITURE
1941 TO 1947
In Chinese National Currency Dollars (CNC \$)

Year	National Expenditure			Judicial Expenditure		
	General	Extraordinary	Total	General	Extraordinary	Total
1941...	4,289,047,080	320,554,661	4,609,601,741	32,760,825	2,899,796	35,660,621
1942...	10,873,485,584	6,437,132,759	17,310,618,343	44,834,111	5,942,096	50,776,207
1943...	20,368,539,783	15,867,874,078	36,236,413,861	93,610,611	15,868,478	109,479,089
1944...	42,175,525,272	37,325,906,536	79,501,431,808	182,856,027	659,527,896	842,383,923
1945...	176,745,823,518	87,098,315,182	263,844,138,700	267,808,500	3,396,755,700	3,664,564,200
1946...	1,379,716,459,000	1,145,218,266	1,380,861,677,266	1,408,256,000	36,012,805,000	37,421,061,000
1947...	4,883,894,020,000	4,486,512,720,000	9,370,406,740,000	6,244,320,000	168,195,020,000	174,439,340,000
						Percentage
						.773
						.293
						.302
						1.059
						1.398
						1.609
						1.862

REMARK: 1. The figures do not include subsequent' budgetary additions and deductions.

2. The figures listed under extraordinary expenditure include special expenditure.

3. The figures listed under 1947 represent only those for the first half of that year.

Source: Ministry of Justice

than two years in a governmental or accredited university, college or academy;

- (3) One who possesses the qualifications of Article 33 (d) or Article 37 (e) of the Organic Law of Courts.

Method for review and verification of records mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be prescribed by the Examination Yuan in conjunction with the Executive Yuan and the Judicial Yuan.

Article II. Under any of the following circumstances, one shall not be eligible to become an advocate, and, likewise, an advocate shall have his license as such revoked:

- (1) Betrayal of the Republic of China when evidence for such is substantiated;
- (2) Has been sentenced to one or more years of imprisonment;
- (3) Has been subjected to the deprivation measure provided by Article XLV;
- (4) Has been in civil service but has been dismissed on the strength of a disciplinary order;

- (5) Guilty of misappropriation of public funds;

- (6) A bankrupt whose civil rights have not yet been restituted.

Article III. Whoever has successfully passed the examination for advocates may apply for an advocate's license.

Article IV. In applying for an advocate's license, one shall submit, either directly or through the high court, to the Ministry of Justice, an application and all the relative testimonials. The license shall be issued after scrutiny of the submitted documents.

Article V. An advocate may apply for registration to two district courts and their immediately superior high court or branch high court.

Article VI. A high court or its branch, or district court shall keep a list of advocates registered which shall contain the following particulars:

- (1) Name, sex, age, nationality, and address;
- (2) Number of the advocate's license;
- (3) Educational record and antecedents;
- (4) Office;
- (5) Date and number of registration;

TABLE 13—ADVOCATE'S LICENSES ISSUED BY THE MINISTRY OF JUSTICE DURING 1945-1947

Province	1945	1946	1947	Total
Kiangsu.....	25	164	220	409
Chekiang.....	19	63	119	201
Kwangtung.....	19	104	106	229
Kwangsi.....	2	5	17	24
Shangtung.....	4	17	56	77
Shansi.....	12	12	17	41
Fukien.....	5	9	27	41
Kiangsi.....	4	8	17	29
Hunan.....	14	18	27	59
Hupei.....	22	32	52	106
Honan.....	10	17	22	49
Hopei.....	10	29	39	78
Yunnan.....	2	..	2	4
Kweichow.....	3	3
Anhui.....	13	20	33	66
Szechwan.....	19	15	16	50
Kansu.....	7	5	1	13
Shensi.....	4	3	5	12
Liaoning.....	4	4	11	19
Liaopei.....	1	1
Jehol.....	2	2
Kirin.....	3	3
Suiyuan.....	1	1
Chinghai.....	3	3
Sikang.....	1	1
TOTAL.....	199	525	797	1,521

Source: Ministry of Justice

- (6) Date of admission to the bar;
- (7) Disciplinary action, if any;
- (8) Number of registration with other courts.

Article VII. An advocate may practise in the courts with which he has registered and in the Supreme Court.

Article VIII. The president of the branch high court and of the district court, respectively, shall submit the lists of the registered advocates to the high court.

Thereupon, the president of the high court shall forward these lists together with the list of his own court to the Supreme Court and shall make a monthly report to the Ministry of Justice.

The same procedure shall apply in the case of cancellation of registration.

Article IX. No advocate is permitted to practise unless he has been admitted to the bar.

A bar association shall be organized in the district in which the district court is located, if and when the registered advocates number 15 or more. If less, an advocate shall join the bar association of the district in which the neighboring district court is located or a joint bar association shall be inaugurated.

A joint national bar association may be established at the suggestion of seven or more local bar associations and with the approval of more than one-half of the total of the local bar associations of the country.

Article X. The joint national bar association is within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Social Affairs while a local bar association falls under the jurisdiction of the provincial, municipal or *hsien* administrative organization of social affairs. However, the professional pursuits of the bar shall be under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Justice and of the chief procurator of the district court of the locality.

Article XI. The bar association shall elect its directors and supervisors at a members' convention. The quotas shall be as follows:

- (1) Each local bar association shall have from three to 21 directors and one to seven supervisors;
- (2) The joint national bar association shall have from nine to thirty-one directors and from three to nine supervisors.

The tenure of office of both the directors and the supervisors shall be two years. In either case, however, they are eligible for re-election to a second term.

Article XII. The bar association shall hold an annual members' convention. In

case of necessity, however, an extraordinary convention may be convoked at the request of one-fifth of the members.

Article XIII. The bar association shall enact its own regulations and shall request the district court of the locality to have the same forwarded, through the high court, to the Ministry of Justice for approval. Besides, the regulations shall be duly registered with the administrative organization of social affairs of the locality.

The same procedure shall apply in case of amendment of the regulations.

Article XIV. The regulations of the bar association shall include the following provisions:

- (1) Title and address;
- (2) List of directors and supervisors, and their deputies, method of election and scope of their authority and duties;
- (3) Rules for members' conventions, and directors' and supervisors' conferences;
- (4) Admission and withdrawal of members;
- (5) Membership dues;
- (6) Measures for charging legal fees and their maximums;
- (7) Method for preserving the discipline of advocates;
- (8) Method for notification of details of convention or conference;
- (9) Measures for the enforcement of legal aid for the general public;
- (10) Other necessary details relating to the administration of association affairs.

Article XV. With the exception of the following, the bar association is not permitted to propose or to decide:

- (1) Matters specified by the laws and by-laws and the regulations of the bar association;
- (2) Matters consulted on or inquired about by the Judicial Yuan, the Ministry of Justice, the court or the chief procurator, or the administrative organization of social affairs in charge of the association;
- (3) Matters pertaining to proposal of amendment of laws and decrees, judicial affairs, or the common welfare of advocates to the Judicial Yuan, the Ministry of Justice, the court or the chief procurator, or the administrative organization of social affairs in charge of the association.

Article XVI. The administrative organization of social affairs of the locality in which the bar association is established

shall be requested to send one of its officers to attend and supervise every conference of the association.

The chief procurator of the district court of the locality shall attend every members' convention of the bar association, and may also attend other conferences and examine the minutes of such meetings.

Article XVII. Any act of the bar association violating the laws and the by-laws, or the regulations of the bar association may lead to the following disciplinary measures by the administrative organization of social affairs of the locality in which the association is established:

- (1) Caution;
- (2) Nullification of resolution passed;
- (3) Reorganization;
- (4) Dissolution.

The power to mete out the first and second disciplinary measures mentioned in the preceding paragraph is also vested in the hands of the chief procurator of the district court of the locality and of the chief procurator of a superior court.

Article XVIII. The following information shall be submitted by the bar association to the administrative organization of social affairs in charge and the chief procurator of the district court of the locality in which the association is established:

- (1) List of members and their admission or withdrawal;
- (2) Election of directors and supervisors and their names;
- (3) Date and place for members' convention or conference of directors and supervisors and details of such meetings;
- (4) Proposals and resolutions.

This information shall be forwarded by the administrative organization of social affairs in charge and the chief procurator of the district court of the locality, respectively, to the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Justice through the various organs or jurisdictions concerned.

Article XIX. An advocate who has received a power of attorney from his client or by order of the court may perform such duties in the court as specified by law and conduct other legal affairs.

An advocate may, by provision of special laws, perform such duties as specified by law before a military organ or a military tribunal.

Article XX. An advocate shall establish an office in the district in which the district court, before which he practises, is located. Within the same district, establishment of more than two offices or set-

ting up of places of identical character by the same advocate is prohibited.

Article XXI. Unless on valid grounds, no refusal to conform to the court's order to perform duties such as specified by law is justified.

Article XXII. Once retained, the advocate shall exert his utmost, on behalf of his client, in collecting evidence and unfolding the facts of the case.

Article XXIII. After the acceptance of the power of attorney, the advocates shall not without proper and just ground terminate the relationship. If the termination is inevitable, it shall take place at least ten days prior to the date of trial, provided the client has been duly informed and his consent obtained.

Article XXIV. Dereliction or neglect on the part of the advocate shall entitle the client to claim damages he may consequently have sustained.

Article XXV. An advocate shall not execute his duty under any one of the following conditions:

- (1) That he has previously accepted the power of attorney of his client's opponent or has previously had consultation with the latter with promise to assist;
- (2) That the case has been adjudicated by the advocate at the time when he was a judge or procurator;
- (3) That the case has been disposed of by the advocate when he served as an arbitrator in accordance with arbitration procedure.

An advocate shall refuse to comply with his client's request to perform any act incompatible with his duties.

Article XXVI. An advocate, in performing his duties before the court, shall observe the rules of the court.

Article XXVII. An advocate shall not mislead or withhold truth from the court and his client.

Article XXVIII. An advocate shall refrain from any act which may lead to loss of reputation and confidence.

Article XXIX. No advocate shall, either under his own name or under that of another, insert advertisements of a character bordering on blackmail.

Article XXX.* No advocate shall become concurrently a public functionary except in the following capacities:

- (1) People's delegate to a representative organ other than president of a local council;
- (2) Principal of a school;

* This article was revised and promulgated by the National Government on March 23, 1948.

- (3) Undertaking temporary duties specially assigned by the Central or local authorities.

Article XXXI. No advocate shall concurrently conduct commercial business, except with the approval of the high court or its branch with which he has registered, provided, however, that his commercial dealings in no way conflict with his legal practice.

Article XXXII. No advocate is allowed to entertain, or be entertained by, members of the judicial staff of the district wherein he has his practice.

Article XXXIII. No advocate shall subrogate the right under dispute between his client and the opponent.

Article XXXIV. No advocate shall instigate or unduly encourage litigations or by improper means solicit cases.

Article XXXV. No advocate shall, without the slightest apparent cause of action, institute a proceeding or appeal or take exception on behalf of his client.

Article XXXVI. No advocate shall, in contravention of the laws and by-laws or the regulations of the bar association, demand, extort or accept any extra remuneration.

Article XXXVII. No judicial staff member shall, within three years after the date of registration, become an advocate and practise within the district in which the court to which he has once been attached is located.

Article XXXVIII. No advocate shall, within a year after the cancellation of his resignation, become a judicial official in the court of the district in which he has once had his practice.

Article XXXIX. If an advocate is related to the president or the chief procurator of the court, as a legal spouse, by blood within the fifth degree, by matrimony within the third degree, he shall not register with the court concerned.

When and if such circumstances as described in the preceding paragraph exist between the advocate and the judge or procurator of a case, the former shall withdraw from the case.

Article XL. An advocate under one of the following conditions is subject to disciplinary action:

- (1) That his conduct is repugnant to the provisions of Articles XX, XXI, XXIII, XXV, and XXVII to XXXVI.
- (2) That he has committed a crime for which he should receive punishment;
- (3) That his conduct is repugnant to the regulations of the bar associa-

tion and that the nature thereof is serious.

Article XLI. When the advocate is subject to disciplinary action, the chief procurator of either the high court or its branch, or of the district court, by attribution, shall refer to the Advocates' Disciplinary Committee for necessary action.

When the bar association decides that the advocate shall be subject to disciplinary action, by a resolution passed at either a members' convention or a directors' and supervisors' conference, it shall request the chief procurator of the court concerned to take necessary steps. Thereupon the latter shall proceed through the usual channel.

Article XLII. The Advocates' Disciplinary Committee is composed of the president and the chief judge of the high court and four judges, with the president serving as the chairman.

Article XLIII. If dissatisfied with the decision of the Advocates' Disciplinary Committee, either the person against whom the disciplinary measure is taken or the chief procurator is entitled to appeal to the Advocates' Disciplinary Reconsideration Committee.

Article XLIV. The Advocates' Disciplinary Reconsideration Committee is composed of the president of the Supreme Court and the chief judges and judges, four in number, with the former as the chairman.

Article XLV. Disciplinary measures are as follows:

- (1) Caution;
- (2) Reprimand;
- (3) Suspension of practice for not more than two years and not less than two months;
- (4) Expulsion.

Article XLVI. Advocates who have procured advocate's licenses prior to the enforcement of this Act but who do not possess qualifications specified by Article I and II are subject to selection, and failure to meet the requirements of selection shall justify revocation of qualification as an advocate.

Method for selection shall be prescribed by the Ministry of Justice.

Article XLVII. Nationals of any foreign country under whose law Chinese citizens are admissible to advocacy may apply for the examinations for advocates in accordance with Chinese law.

Those who have successfully passed the examinations mentioned in the preceding paragraph and have been issued advocate's licenses shall, prior to taking up practice in China, obtain permission from the Ministry of Justice.

Those who have taken out advocate's licenses before this Act comes into force shall come within the scope of the provisions of the two preceding paragraphs.

Article XLVIII. Foreign nationals who have obtained permission to serve as advocates in China shall abide by all Chinese laws and by-laws and the regulations of the bar association.

Any violation of the provisions specified in the preceding paragraph may incur, in addition to penalty prescribed by the laws and by-laws, withdrawal of permission and revocation of the advocate's license by the Ministry of Justice.

Article XLIX. Foreign nationals permitted to serve as advocates in China shall use the Chinese language during court proceedings and their papers submitted shall also be in the Chinese language.

Article L. Provisions regulating the enforcement of this Act are to be prescribed by the Ministry of Justice in conjunction with the Ministry of Social Affairs, subject to the approval of the Executive Yuan.

Detailed provisions regarding advocates' disciplinary procedure are to be prescribed also by the Ministry of Justice, and to be approved by the Executive Yuan and the Judicial Yuan.

Article LI. This Act shall be enforced from the date of promulgation.

POLICE

1. HISTORY

China's first attempt at creating a modern police was made in 1905 with the establishment of a Ministry of Police under the Manchu Government. Later, when the Ministry of Interior came into being, the Ministry of Police was reorganized to become a department of the new ministry.

There was a police department in every province in the days of the Peking Government, and a police bureau in every *hsien* or district government. After the Northern Expedition in 1927, the provincial police departments were absorbed by the Civil Affairs Department, while in the *hsien*, the police bureaus were renamed public security bureaus. In addition there were the metropolitan police in Nanking, and provincial or municipal public security bureaus in provincial capitals or municipalities, and river public security bureaus.

In June, 1936, the Ministry of Interior, with the approval of the Executive Yuan, worked out a plan for the reorganization of the police administration. The plan

went into effect in January, 1937, to standardize the administrative machinery, quality, treatment and equipment for police organizations and personnel all over the country. It was suspended upon the outbreak of the war that year.

Immediately after V-J Day, the Ministry of Interior mapped out a five-year plan for police reorganization. In August, 1946, the Directorate-General of Police was created under the ministry. Meanwhile, police and security departments were set up in the provinces, with powers to direct both police and security forces.

II. POLICE ORGANIZATIONS

A. Police Structure: The Directorate-General of Police under the Ministry of Interior is in charge of police administration throughout the country. Under every provincial government, there is a police department. The provincial capitals in turn have their provincial police bureaus; the municipalities, their municipal police bureaus. There are police bureaus or stations in *hsien* and branches in *hsiang*. Located at important places or commercial centers are police bureaus directly under the provincial police departments. Special branches include the Coastal Police Bureau and Inland River Police Corps.

Up to October, 1948, 14 provinces including Shantung, Hopei, Honan, Taiwan and the Nine Northeastern provinces had set up police departments. In other provinces, police affairs were handled by police sections under the Civil Affairs Department.

In May, 1947, the National Government promulgated the organic laws for provincial police and security departments, which were designed to amalgamate provincial police and security authorities into one single organization. Such departments were later established in Chekiang, Fukien, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Kwangtung, Kweichow and Yunnan.

B. Provincial Police Organizations: The organic laws governing the police bureaus or stations under the provincial governments have to be submitted to the Central Government for approval. In 1948, organizations whose organic laws were approved by the Executive Yuan included the provincial police bureaus in Anhwei, Liaopei, Shensi, Jehol, Honan, Kweichow, Shantung, Hunan, Kansu and Fukien; the municipal bureaus at Pengpu in Anhwei, Chefoo and Weihaiwei in Shantung, Swatow in Kwangtung, Tangshan and Shihmen in Hopei, Amoy in Fukien, Changchun in Kirin,

Hengyang in Hunan, Kweisui and Paotow in Suiyuan, Hsuehchow in Kiangsu and Anshan, Chinchow and Yingkow in Liaoning, and those directly under the provincial authorities: Ningpo in Chekiang, and Leiho, Chiaochow, Chumatiang, Chowchow and Hwaitien in Honan.

C. *Hsien* Police Organizations. Every *hsien* should have one police bureau, classified into 1st, 2nd or 3rd grade, depending on the population, area and economic conditions of the locality and governed by a set of unified measures passed by the provincial government. The measures submitted in 1947 by the provincial governments of Liaoning, Jehol, Shensi, Kiangsi, Shansi, Fukien, Honan, Suiyuan and Hopei were approved by the Ministry of Interior and duly enforced.

D. High Police Superintendent: In a *hsien* whose population exceeds 300,000 or which occupies an important position for defense or other special reasons, the local police superintendent may be given the recommended rank, one rank higher than that of an ordinary *hsien*. The Ministry of Interior confirmed the appointment of police superintendents of 22 such *hsien* in Szechwan, 7 *hsien* in Kwangsi, 14 in Shantung, 12 in Kiangsu, 22 in Chekiang, 14 in Honan, 16 in Shensi, 21 in Anhwei, 6 in Shansi and 16 *hsien* in Fukien in 1947.

E. River Police Organizations: River police organizations for the provinces have yet to be standardized. During 1948, the organic laws of river police bureaus in Antung, Liaoning, Hupeh and Fukien and river police corps in Kiangsi and Shantung were approved by the ministry.

F. Personnel and Organization: The number of officers and men in each police establishment varies in accordance with the needs of a particular locality. Generally speaking, each police corps is composed of three companies, each company, three groups and each group, 30 officers and men. The number of police personnel in the rural districts ranges from a couple of dozen to a few hundred.

G. Current Police Strength: Up to the end of 1947, there were eight provincial police and security departments, 14 provincial police departments, 23 provincial bureaus, 38 municipal police bureaus, 16 police bureaus and corps, 1,419 *hsien* police bureaus and 299 *hsien* police stations.

The table on page 227 shows the police system and its strength at the end of 1947.

III. POLICE AT WORK

Among the functions of the police in China, the more important ones are those

dealing with social security, public health, city traffic, and criminal investigation.

The criminal division formerly consisted of detectives attached to each of the police units, and its usefulness was limited to the investigation of criminal cases. After the establishment of the Directorate-General of Police, detective corps in important provinces and municipalities were reorganized into Criminal Police Corps and by the end of 1947, they were scattered in the following 28 provinces and municipalities:

Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Nanking, Chungking, Mukden, Sian, Hankow, Hopei, Kweichow, Kiangsu, Hupeh, Shantung, Anhwei, Shansi, Honan, Hunan, Kansu, Chahar, Liaopei, Hangchow, Kweisui, Paotow, Pengpu, Hengyang, Changchun, Hsuehchow and Taiwan. The number of officers and men in these corps totaled 3,249.

The detective corps in other provinces and municipalities are to be reorganized into Criminal Police Corps after their personnel has undergone the necessary training.

In addition, a Central Criminal Laboratory to provide a training center for personnel was set up in March, 1947, in Nanking under the Directorate-General of Police. Students of the former Sino-American Cooperative Institute were sent to the provinces to strengthen the local criminal police corps.

The Central Criminal Laboratory had nine sections: Photography, fingerprint, electrical instruments, physics and chemistry, medical, fire-arm examination, preservation, police dogs and pigeons. Most of its equipment came from the wartime Sino-American Cooperative Institute. In October, 1947, it also gained possession of some German-made instruments left behind in Changchun and Mukden by the Japanese.

The Laboratory was responsible for the unification of the finger-print system in China. When the National Government promulgated the Mandate for General Amnesty, the Directorate-General of Police helped the judicial authorities fingerprint all convicts to be benefited by the pardon.

The Foreign Relations Police was in charge of alien registration, residential permits, applications for naturalization, passport examination at airports, railway stations and border regions and also in charge of affairs concerning stateless persons. Its responsibility has been greatly increased since the abrogation of the extraterritoriality and the signing of new treaties between China and the western countries.

TABLE I—POLICE SYSTEM AT END OF 1947

Executive Yuan . . .	Municipal Governments (Special)		Police Bureaus	Police Training Centers
	Ministry of Interior—Directorate-General of Police	{ Police Corps Central Police Academy Central Police Academy Branches Metropolitan Police Force Frontier Police Bureaus
				{ Police Training Centers Security Police Corps River Police Bureaus (Corps) Coastal Police Bureaus Police Bureaus
	Provincial Governments	{ Provincial Police Bureaus— Administrative Bureaus— Police Stations Hsien Government— Police Bureaus
				{ Police and Security Departments (or Police Departments) . . . Municipal Governments—(Ordinary) Police Bureaus

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—POLICE ESTABLISHMENTS AT END OF 1947

Item	Kiangsu	Chekiang	Anhui	Kiangsi	Hupeh	Hunan	Szechwan	Sikang
Provincial Police Security Departments.....		1	..	1	1	1
Municipal Police Bureaus.....	2	1	2	1	..	1	1	..
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities.....	..	1	1	1	1
Provincial Bureaus.....	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	..
Provincial River Police Bureaus.....	5	2	1	..	1	..	1	..
Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps.....	1	..	27	17	..
**Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies.....	1
I Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	16	4	102	68	..
II Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	25	37	3	11	30	5
III Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	20	30	9	26	34	5
Total of <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	61	76	30	83	36	39	64	14
<i>Hsien</i> Police Stations.....	26	..	22	76	76	19
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Companies.....	..	53	6	..	230	103	272	..
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Groups.....	..	57	705	1
Branches of Police Bureaus.....	191	14	20	12	29	..
Police Stations.....	..	194	30	49	70	224	205	..
Police Sub-stations.....	271	254	..	26	177	200	208	22
Police Squads.....	106	76	202	994	18	4
Fire Brigades.....	7	7	4	14	7	1
Criminal Police Corps.....	37	68	5	1
Special Police Corps (Stations).....	42	5	1	..	9	..
Number of Police Officers.....	3,494	2,753	1,078	2,629	3,233	3,242	5,681	404
Number of Police Sergeants.....	..	600
Number of Policemen.....	21,461	21,468	9,368	28,702	43,375	53,045	38,786	1,598
Total of Police Personnel.....	24,955	24,821	10,446	31,331	46,608	56,287	44,467	2,002
Remarks.....	..	A	B	B	A

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.

B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.

* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.

** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—Continued

Item	Fukien	Kwangtung	Kwangsi	Yunnan	Kweichow	Hopei	Taiwan	Sinkiang
Provincial Police Security Departments.....	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	.. 1
Municipal Police Bureaus.....	1	2	3	2	9	..
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities.....	1	1	1
Provincial Bureaus.....	1	1	..	1
Provincial River Police Bureaus.....	1
Provincial River Police Corps.....
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps.....	1	3	3	1	1
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies.....	10	..	4
I Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	2	11	7	8	20
II Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	..	19	5	..	61
III Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	..	28	13
Total of <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	66	46	..	112	63	*34	8	81
Hsien Police Stations.....	..	93	31
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Companies.....	..	7	68	..	155	183
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Groups.....	..	289	99	552	..	22
Branches of Police Bureaus.....	10	13	19	11	5
Police Stations.....	134	185	..	119	60	187	53	16
Police Sub-stations.....	41	243	..	9	30	55	..	169
Police Squads.....	13	1,356	..	111	49	..	1,416	7
Fire Brigades.....	3	15	4	17	1
Criminal Police Corps.....	..	24	6	..	1
Special Police Corps (Stations).....	1	1	2
Number of Police Officers.....	1,431	6,088	1,409	729	2,337	2,582	1,952	2,111
Number of Police Sergeants.....	259	38,903	7,358	..
Number of Policemen.....	6,383	..	12,321	9,125	22,148	29,319	931	5,157
Total of Police Personnel.....	8,073	44,991	13,730	9,854	24,485	31,901	10,241	7,268
Remarks.....	..	A	B	B	AB	A

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.

B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.

* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.

** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—Continued

Item	Ningsia	Suiyuan	Jehol	Hokiang	Nunkiang	Kirin	Antung	Liaopei
Provincial Police Security Departments.....	1	1	1	1	1
Municipal Police Bureaus.....	..	2	1	2	..
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities.....	1	1	1	..	1
Provincial Bureaus.....	1	..	1	1	1	..
Provincial River Police Bureaus.....
Provincial River Police Corps.....
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps.....
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies.....
I Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	4	6	1	..	1	2	..	4
II Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	5	6	4	..	5	5	..	5
III Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	3	10	5	..	5	3	..	4
Total of <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	12	22	13	..	17	10	..	13
<i>Hsien</i> Police Stations.....	1	25	2	5
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Companies.....	..	75	15	..	12
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Groups.....	4	9	62	66	..	2
Branches of Police Bureaus.....	..	1	63
Police Stations.....	..	33	140	131	..	175
Police Sub-stations.....	1	98	48	191	..	169
Police Squads.....	4	2	8	..	1	7	..	10
Fire Brigades.....	1	2	9	..	1	12	..	10
Criminal Police Corps.....
Special Police Corps (Stations).....	127	528	675	24	39	1,481	575	916
Number of Police Officers.....	40	3,850	6,700	3,153
Number of Police Sergeants.....	1,127	4,743	4,497	5,331	7,275	4,069
Number of Policemen.....	1,294	5,271	5,172	24	39	..	B	A
Total of Police Personnel.....
Remarks.....

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.

B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.

* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.

** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.
Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 2—Continued

Item	Liaoning	Chinghai	Kansu	Shensi	Shansi	Honan	Shantung	Total
Provincial Police Security Departments.....	1	1	1	1	19
Municipal Police Bureaus.....	5	2	38
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities.....	4	..	6	..	16
Provincial Bureaus.....	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	23
Provincial River Police Bureaus.....	1	13
Provincial River Police Corps.....	1	3
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Corps.....	2	56
*Provincial (municipal) Security Police Companies.....	8	211
I Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	9	24	..	36	250
II Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	10	29	..	48	342
III Class <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	6	8	..	23	234
Total of <i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	25	18	14	77	61	108	107	1,419
<i>Hsien</i> Police Stations.....	54	2	..	3	299	299
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Companies.....	55	163	131	1,769
* <i>Hsien</i> Security Police Groups.....	393	1,845
Branches of Police Bureaus.....	15	5	11	498
Police Stations.....	116	7	267	56	98	2,134
Police Sub-stations.....	306	..	115	250	62	14	99	3,030
Police Squads.....	263	..	24	11	250	..	91	5,498
Fire Brigades.....	9	2	..	6	129
Criminal Police Corps.....	7	64	..	17	265
Special Police Corps (Stations).....	2	..	4	..	13	80
Number of Police Officers.....	2,398	214	478	2,569	1,919	1,941	1,915	56,952
Number of Police Sergeants.....	327	240	47,727
Number of Policemen.....	7,760	1,438	4,380	30,177	16,022	15,362	15,961	418,363
Total of Police Personnel.....	10,485	1,652	4,858	32,746	18,181	17,303	17,876	523,042
Remarks.....	B	B	..	B

A. Personnel of the Police and Security Departments were not included.

B. The figures were those of 1946, 1947 figures being unavailable.

* These Security Police Groups were independent of the local Police Bureaus.

** The figure includes five 4th class and four 5th class police bureaus in Hopei.

Source: Ministry of Interior

TABLE 3—POLICE PERSONNEL—1946 AND 1947

Unit	Police Personnel in 1947				Police Personnel in 1946
	Total	Officers	Sergeants	Policemen	
Kiangsu.....	24,955	3,494	..	21,461	20,858
Chekiang.....	24,821	2,753	600	21,468	25,700
Hupei.....	46,608	3,233	..	43,375	43,950
Hunan.....	56,287	3,242	..	53,045	57,185
Szechwan.....	44,467	5,681	..	38,786	37,145
Sikang.....	2,002	404	..	1,598	1,902
Hopei.....	31,901	2,582	..	29,319	35,396
Shantung.....	17,876	1,915	..	15,961	9,753
Shansi.....	18,181	1,919	240	16,022	19,539
Chinghai.....	1,652	214	..	1,438	1,642
Fukien.....	8,073	1,431	259	6,383	7,976
Kwangtung.....	44,991	6,088	..	38,903	45,137
Suiyuan.....	5,271	528	..	4,743	1,168
Ningsia.....	1,294	127	40	1,127	1,445
Sinkiang.....	7,268	2,111	..	5,157	8,433
Jehol.....	5,172	675	..	4,497	..
Liaoning.....	10,485	2,398	327	7,760	13,541
Liaopei.....	4,069	916	..	3,153	3,206
Kirin.....	5,331	1,481	..	3,850	5,176
Nunkiang.....	39	39
Hokiang.....	24	24
Taiwan.....	10,241	1,952	7,358	931	9,438
Nanking.....	8,228	1,227	2,665	4,336	4,983
Shanghai.....	12,971	2,011	622	10,338	11,827
Peiping.....	11,273	1,396	..	9,877	14,997
Tientsin.....	8,763	1,023	..	7,740	12,783
Tsingtao.....	3,597	448	..	3,149	4,111
Mukden.....	4,010	472	..	3,538	3,956
Hankow.....	3,255	421	..	2,834	3,090
Chungking.....	4,782	958	..	3,824	5,010
M.O.I.'s 1st Corps.....	3,444	402	..	3,042	2,658
M.O.I.'s 2nd Corps.....	7,146	586	..	6,560	7,013
GRAND TOTAL.....	438,477	52,151	12,111	374,215	419,018

SOURCE: Ministry of Interior

- REMARKS: 1. Figures of the personnel in Police and Security Departments in Chekiang, Hupei, Kwangtung, Hopei, and Liaopei were not included.
2. The figures of the police personnel for 1947 in Anhwei, Kiangsi, Yunnan, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Antung, Hsingan, Sungkiang, Heilungkiang, Kweichow, Chahar, Canton and Sian were not received when this table was compiled.
3. The figures of police personnel for 1946 in Nunkiang and Hokiang were not available. Harbin and Dairen were in the hands of Chinese Communists.
4. Included in the Nanking police staff in 1947 were 291 employees.
5. On the Ministry of Interior Corps in 1947 were 3,000 manual laborers.

Foreign relations sections were attached to police bureaus in big cities or places frequented by foreigners such as summer resorts. The foreign relations section in the Shanghai police bureau was enlarged into a department in 1947.

During 1947, 20 officers and 80 non-commissioned officers, specially trained to handle affairs concerning aliens in China, were stationed in Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping and Canton.

In August, 1948, according to police

statistics, there were 78,341 aliens residing in 11 municipalities and 25 provinces. Distribution of these alien residents was as follows: Municipalities—Shanghai, 40,352; Mukden, 14,256; Tientsin, 4,873; Peiping, 3,681; Tsingtao, 2,008; Nanking, 1,066; Hankow, 727; Canton, 404; Chungking, 147; Harbin, 105; and Sian, 85. *Provinces*—Anhwei, 201; Chekiang, 234; Chinghai, 24; Fukien, 356; Honan, 379; Hopei, 348; Hunan, 229; Hupeh, 296; Jehol, 9; Kansu, 136; Kiangsi, 296; Kiangsu, 352;

Kwangsi, 137; Kwangtung, 296; Kweichow, 104; Ningsia, 25; Shansi, 102; Shantung, 588; Shensi, 159; Sikang, 18; Sinkiang, 1,685; Suiyuan, 80; Szechwan, 191; Taiwan, 3,995; and Yunnan, 397.

The Public Health Police help local health authorities inspect foods and beverages and enforce anti-epidemic precautions and quarantine regulations at airfields and harbors, and regulations governing hospitals, doctors, dentists, and pharmaceuticals.

TABLE 4—POLICE ORGANIZATIONS IN MUNICIPALITIES DIRECTLY UNDER THE EXECUTIVE YUAN IN 1946 AND 1947

Organization	1946	1947
Municipal Police Bureaus.....	5	8
Police Bureaus in Nanking.....	11	12
River Police Bureaus.....	..	1
Police Sub-Bureaus.....	77	108
Police Stations.....	77	86
River Police Stations.....	..	6
Police Sub-Stations.....	203	277
Police Squads.....	132	803

SOURCE: Ministry of Interior

The police bureaus in Nanking were under the Metropolitan Police Force.

The police bureaus in Sian had not been set up while those at Dairen and Harbin were not known as the two cities were in communist hands.

TABLE 5—POLICE ORGANIZATIONS IN PROVINCES AND Hsien IN 1946 AND 1947

Organization	1946	1947
Provincial Police or Police and Security Departments....	16	19
Provincial Police Bureaus.....	20	23
Municipal Police Bureaus.....	38	38
Police Bureaus directly under Provincial Authorities.....	30	16
Provincial or Municipal Security Police Corps.....	152	56
Provincial River Police Bureaus (Corps).....	11	16
<i>Hsien</i> Police Bureaus.....	1,255	1,419
<i>Hsien</i> Police Stations.....	338	299
<i>Hsien</i> Security Police Companies.....	847	1,769
Police Sub-Bureaus.....	..	498
Police Stations.....	1,713	2,134
Police Sub-Stations.....	2,283	3,030
Police Squads.....	3,921	5,498
Fire Brigades.....	..	129
Criminal Police Corps.....	..	265

SOURCE: Ministry of Interior

NOTES: 1. The *Hsien* security police companies originally under provincial authorities in Hopei were transferred to the various *Hsien* authorities at the beginning of 1947.

2. Police organizations in provinces and *Hsien* of which no figures for 1946 were available were not listed here.

The Traffic Police regulate motor vehicles in big cities. Small groups of traffic police usually travelled on trains and steamers or were stationed at wharves and railway stations to maintain law and order.

Special police contingents protected forests, fishing boats and fishermen, mines and salt beds or beaches.

IV. POLICE EDUCATION

The first school for police officers in China was established in 1901. In 1917 a police academy was set up in Peking.

The Ministry of Interior under the National Government in Nanking established a chain of police academies in 1929 in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shansi, Kwangtung, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Shensi, Shantung, Yunnan, Hopei, Kansu, Chinghai, Fukien and Kwangsi. After the Japanese invasion of the Northeastern Provinces in 1931, all provincial police academies except those in Chekiang, Yunnan and Hopei were closed down.

In 1934, the police academy in Peiping was moved to Nanking and was merged two years later with the Chekiang police academy to become the Central Police Academy. All other provincial academies were abolished.

The Central Police Academy was removed to Chungking shortly after the war where it remained until V-J Day. A northwestern police training class and a southeastern police training class were created in Sian and Hunan, respectively, to meet local needs for trained police officers. In 1944, the class at Sian was re-named the First Branch of the Central Police Academy and the one in Hunan, the Second Branch. The academy was moved to Canton after V-J Day. At the same time (1944) the police academy in Sinkiang was reorganized into the Third Branch.

After V-J Day, the Central Police Academy returned to Nanking. Its old campus in Chungking was used to start the Fourth Branch. The Fifth and Sixth Branches were later set up in Peiping and Mukden. In August, 1946 the First and the Third Branches were amalgamated. And the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Branches were accordingly renumbered the Third, Fourth and Fifth.

During the war the Central Police Academy conducted special police training classes in Hunan, Kweichow, Szechwan, Kansu and Fukien. Besides regular courses, the cadets were taught political science, military organization, economic affairs and crime detection technique. The period of training lasted from 18

months to two years. The graduates were assigned mostly to underground work behind the enemy lines.

In November, 1946 these classes were merged with the Central Police Academy and their graduates took up regular police jobs. Meanwhile, all branches of the academy were put under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Interior. Up to April, 1947, altogether 9,813 police officers had graduated from the special classes and 14,758 from the academy and its branches. Since its founding, the Central Police Academy had up to April, 1947, trained 24,571 police officers.

As part of the demobilization program, some army officers were admitted to the academy to be trained as police officers. In March and June, 1946, 1,202 1st and 2nd lieutenants entered the academy. In June, 1946, 709 ex-colonels and ex-lieutenant-colonels, and 4,012 demobilized majors, captains and 1st lieutenants began a six-month course in the academy and its branches. Beginning August, 1946, 41 demobilized major-generals underwent four months of training and then received appointments in the Directorate-General of Police. All these ex-army officers were graduated in the spring of 1947 and assigned to duties in the provinces.

Systematic training for policemen began in 1905 with the establishment of a Ministry of Police in Peking and of police training centers in the provinces. In 1913, police commissioners' offices were set up in all big cities in China and under them a number of police training centers were opened. The standard of training, however, was anything but uniform.

After the inauguration of the National Government the Ministry of Interior promulgated in 1929, 1936 and 1942 a series of regulations concerning police training. Primary school graduates were recruited for three-to-six months' training to become policemen. A selected number of policemen from various parts of the country were brought to Nanking for training in senior classes to become officers.

In 1944, training centers were functioning in Chekiang, Hunan, Honan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Shensi, Yunnan, Kweichow, Szechwan and Kansu. There were two more training centers in Chungking, one under the municipal police bureau and the other under the police corps of the Ministry of Interior. However, because of lack of adequate funds the training centers in Honan, Kwangsi and Shensi had to be closed in 1945. About the same time, the Szechwan Training Center opened a branch in the eastern part of

the province and the Hunan Training Center set up a branch at Hungkiang. There were 14 police training centers in that year, including the River Police Training Center in Fukien.

After V-J Day, police training centers in various provinces were restored one after another, bringing the national total to 35. During 1946, 27,929 policemen, 8,850 sergeants, 2,114 staff sergeants and 8,955 reserve officers were graduated from these centers.

Up to the end of 1947, there were 37 police training centers in China. Two of them were under the 1st and 2nd Police Corps of the Ministry of Interior, while

the others were located in Chungking, Tsingtao, Tientsen, Peiping, Shanghai, Nanking, Liaoning, Hopei, Honan, Taiwan, Shansi, Shantung, Hupeh, Kansu, Shensi, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Anhwei, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Antung, Liaopei, Chahar, Jehol, Sikang, Fukien (plus a River Police Training Center), Kwangtung, Szechwan (plus its branch) and Hunan (plus three branches). The total number of police sergeants graduated from these training centers in 1947 was 12,765, and that of policemen, 62,120. Still under training were 1,876 cadets and 1,736 for police sergeants, of whom 1,132 were ex-army officers.

CHAPTER 10

POLITICAL PARTIES

Modern political parties appeared in China toward the end of the Manchu dynasty. Most important were Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary party, and the constitutional monarchic party of Kang Yu-wei and Liang Chi-chao. Formerly there were only secret societies of Chinese patriots in early Manchu days. Their sole objective was overthrow of the Manchu regime and restoration of the Ming Dynasty.

After the Republic was founded in 1912, many small parties and cliques were formed. Most of them revolved around Dr. Sun's Kuomintang and the Progressive party, a loose body of several factions and groups including Liang Chi-chao's "Democratic" party. Yuan Shi-kai, second president of the Republic, wanted to be emperor and ordered dissolution of the Kuomintang and the Progressive party.

Yuan died in 1916 after his abortive monarchical attempt. Warlords then plunged into a series of civil wars. From 1916 to 1926, while numerous parties fought for spoils in Peking (now Peiping), the Kuomintang, based in Canton, waited watchfully. The Chinese Communist party was organized during this period.

In 1924 the Kuomintang was thoroughly reorganized. Serious preparations were begun for a military campaign against the war lords in central and north China. Known as The Northern Expedition, revolutionary armies under Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek advanced northward from Kwangtung in 1926. By 1928 the country was unified. The National Government was established in Nanking in 1927.

As taught by Dr. Sun, the Period of Military Rule was promptly concluded and the Period of Political Tutelage was begun by the Kuomintang. The Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931, and the war in 1937-45, delayed the final period, that of Constitutional Government until December 25, 1946, when China's new constitution was adopted by the National Assembly.

When the war started in 1937, the Kuomintang and the National Government invited the Communists to join in the national war effort, and exchanged letters with the National Socialist party (now Democratic Socialist), and the Young China party. This led to post-war inter-party cooperation and the coalition government of 1947. Only the Communist party refused to participate.

Soon after the war ended, the Communist party resumed its early policy of armed rebellion. While nominally part of the National Army during the war, the Communist armies were engaged in expansion, and disobeyed military orders. For this the National Government outlawed the Communist party and ordered its suppression in July, 1947.

Pro-Communist minority factions and groups formed the "Democratic League," self-styled the "third party," but later indistinguishable from the Communist party. It too was outlawed by the National Government in October, 1947.

Since the inauguration of constitutional government more than 40 political parties and societies have made their appearance. Most of them are loosely organized and of little influence.

The following review of major political parties includes Kuomintang, the Communist party, the Democratic League, the Young China party, the Democratic Socialist party, the Third party, the National Association of Vocational Education, the National Salvation Association, and the Rural Reconstruction Group.

THE KUOMINTANG

A BRIEF HISTORY

Founded by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the Kuomintang was China's ruling party during the "Period of Political Tutelage," 1928 to 1948. This party overthrew the Manchu dynasty in 1911, established the Republic in 1912, defeated the warlords, unified the country in 1926-28, and led the nation to victory in the war against

Japanese aggression in 1937-45. After Dr. Sun's death in 1925, party leadership rested with Chiang Kai-shek. The latter has been the party's *Tsungtsai* or director-general since 1938.

While a student Dr. Sun recognized the need for reform in China's government, then under the corrupt and rapidly deteriorating Manchu regime. In 1894 he organized in Honolulu the Hsing Chung Hui, or the Regenerate China Society. In 1905 this was reorganized into the Chung Kuo Tung Meng Hui, or the China Brotherhood Society. In 1912, the name of the party was changed to the Kuo Ming Tang, or the National party; in 1914 to the Chung Hua Ke Ming Tang, or the Chinese Revolutionary party; and finally in 1919 to the present Kuomintang. The full party title is Chung Kuo Kuo Min Tang, the Chinese National party.

(1) *Hsing Chung Hui*. Dr. Sun first used the name Hsing Chung Hui in 1892, when he secretly formed a group of sympathizers. Formally inaugurated in Honolulu in 1894, a published manifesto declared the aim to overthrow Manchu rule, and restore the nation to the Chinese. The society had chapters in Hongkong, Japan and the United States. Other anti-Manchu groups in Central and South China joined the movement by 1900.

Dr. Sun and three associates were officially branded the "Four Big Rebels." The party insignia, a White Sun on a blue field, with a red background, has since become China's national flag.

(2) *Chung Kuo Tung Meng Hui*. In August, 1905, this party was formed in Tokyo, as the second phase in the development of the Kuomintang. Its aims: overthrow of the Manchu dynasty, and building up a new nation along the lines of broad nationalism and republicanism. Adopting western ideas of government it was necessary to consider China's long past and her cultural background in the light of her current needs. This led to formulation of the *Three People's Principles*, which China later adopted as its political creed.

The party absorbed a number of small revolutionary parties and groups. Many of the revolutionaries, including Dr. Sun himself, were then taking refuge in Japan. The party's policy was summarized in four slogans: "Overthrow the Manchu Rule," "Restore the Chinese Nation," "Establish a Republic," and "Equalize Land Ownership."

The party members carried on underground activities in all the provinces of China. Chinese in Japan, Europe, North and South America, and Southeast Asia openly rallied to the revolutionary cause.

Dr. Sun and his followers organized several abortive uprisings in various parts of the country before the final success came in 1911. The storming of the Viceroy's yamen in Wuchang on the night of October 10, 1911, led to the abdication of the last Manchu Emperor and to the founding of the Chinese Republic. On New Year's Day, 1912, Dr. Sun became Provisional President of the Republican Government.

(3) *Kuo Ming Tang*. In 1912, this party emerged from the reorganized Tung Meng Hui, which functioned as an ordinary political party in the Republican government. The young republic was soon torn by internal strife, during which Dr. Sun and his followers were constantly combating the reactionary forces. To preserve national unity he resigned the presidency in favor of Yuan Shih-kai, an ambitious militarist and politician, who had served under the Manchu regime.

(4) *Chung Hua Ke Ming Tang*. Realizing that the ideas of the Revolution had not yet taken root, Dr. Sun reorganized his party in 1914 into the Chung Hua Ke Ming Tang, or the Chinese Revolutionary Party, and led a nationwide revolution against Yuan Shih-kai. Not satisfied with the presidency, Yuan tried to be emperor. Dr. Sun led a revolt, which weakened Yuan's position and contributed to his collapse and death in 1916 after only 82 days on the throne.

(5) *Chung Kuo Kuo Min Tang*. Yuan's death did not mean the end of reaction. For years the Peking Government remained in the hands of successive warlords. During this period civil war raged almost continuously. In 1919, the Chinese Revolutionary Party was reorganized into the present Kuomintang. The *General Regulations of the Kuomintang* were then promulgated, and a political program was announced, consisting principally of the "Three People's Principles" and the "Five-Power Constitution."

In 1923, Dr. Sun inaugurated the National Government in Canton as a step towards military action against the Peking regime. Whampoa Military Academy, whose graduates were to become the backbone of the Revolutionary Army, was opened the next year. Dr. Sun appointed Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek principal of the Academy, but did not live to see the actual launching of the Northern Expedition. He died in 1925 in Peking, where he had gone to make a last effort to persuade Tuan Chi-jui, then Provisional Chief Executive of the Peking Government, to restore constitutional government in China.

The first national congress of the Kuomintang was held in Canton in 1924. It reaffirmed Dr. Sun's *Three People's Principles* as the party platform. With regard to foreign and domestic affairs, it adopted a definite policy with the following salient points: *Externally*: the abrogation of all unequal treaties, the settlement of foreign loans insofar as this does not impair China's political and economic interests; *Internally*: the division of central and local administrative powers on an equitable basis, the adoption of the *hsien* as the basic unit of local self-government, the introduction of universal suffrage, organizing census-taking, and the improvement of rural organization and labor conditions.

In 1926 the National Government in Canton appointed Chiang Kai-shek commander-in-Chief of the National Revolutionary Army to lead the Northern Expedition. In eight months time his forces swept across central China and captured Nanking. By the end of 1928, all the provinces below the Great Wall had been brought under a unified control. The seat of the National Government was moved to Nanking.

(6) *Dr. Sun's Political Theory and its Practice*. The teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen form the basic political doctrine of the Kuomintang. His *San Min Chu I, Three People's Principles*, refer to nationalism, people's rights, and people's livelihood. They constitute China's highest guiding principles. The new China he conceived, wherein the people will have a constitutional form of government, is to be free, independent, and equal in its relations with other nations of the world. There will also be an equitable distribution of wealth through the enforcement of three policies, the equalization of land ownership, the development of state capital, and the control of private capital.

Dr. Sun split sovereignty into two portions, the political powers to be exercised by the people, and the governing powers exercised by the government. He believed in direct democracy, and he wanted the people to have the rights of recall, initiative, and referendum, in addition to the right of election. The government, he said, should be entrusted with five powers: executive, legislative, judicial, examination, and control. The last two are based on China's traditional practices. The power of examination refers to the selection of officials through competitive examinations to create an efficient civil service system. The power of control pertains to the impeachment of government officials.

Dr. Sun divided the course of national reconstruction into three periods: military operations, political tutelage, and constitutional government. During the first period everything should be subordinated to military needs. The second period begins when peace and order are completely restored in a province. Its component *hsien* or counties, must each take a detailed census, survey all land, set up an efficient self-defense force, and build all principal roads. Before a *hsien* is qualified for self-government, its people must be given training in the exercise of their four political rights. When all the *hsien* in a province have been thus prepared, that province advances into the Period of Constitutionalism, and a representative assembly is organized. Finally, when more than half of the provinces in the country have acquired a representative government, a National Assembly shall be convened to adopt and promulgate a constitution. This will be followed by the formation of a new Government responsible to the National Assembly instead of to the Party Congress.

The procedure thus laid down by Dr. Sun has been followed by the National Government since it came into power in 1927-28. The Period of Military Operations came to an end in 1928 and the following year the Period of Political Tutelage began—to last for six years. A provisional constitution was promulgated in May, 1931. In 1934 work was begun on a draft constitution which was promulgated by the National Government on May 5, 1936, to be adopted by a National Assembly scheduled to meet on November 12, 1937. The Japanese invasion delayed the realization of the program. The National Assembly was not convened until 1946, one year after the end of the war.

From the date of adoption of the plan until the outbreak of the Chinese-Japanese war, ten years later, the Kuomintang and the National Government were solving numerous problems. A new spirit had pervaded the entire nation. China, in the few years prior to the outbreak of the war, was forging ahead too speedily to suit Japanese militarists. In 1937, they launched the bitterest war ever fought on the Asiatic continent. The Kuomintang rose to the crisis by leading the Chinese people in defense of their homes and their birthright.

In March-April, 1938, the Extraordinary Party National Congress was held, at which the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* was

* For the full text of the *Program* see *CHINA HANDBOOK, 1937-45*, published by the MacMillan Co. New York 1947.

adopted. Under this program, the nation's war effort was centralized under the leadership of the Kuomintang and Generalissimo Chiang who was elected *Tsungtsai* or director-general of the party at the Congress. The *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps was created, and the People's Political Council was established as the highest wartime representative assembly.

On November 12, 1944, the Kuomintang celebrated its 50th Anniversary. President Chiang Kai-shek's address reviewing the history and mission of the party and the achievements of the Revolution, may be taken as an authoritative report on how the Kuomintang has been carrying out Dr. Sun's teachings (see Important Kuomintang Documents).

(7) *Post-War Developments.* The Kuomintang held its Sixth National Congress on May, 1945, three months before the end of the war, its main function being to conclude the Kuomintang tutelage period and return the political power to the people. The most important decision reached at the Congress was to convene the National Assembly and to adopt a constitution.

After the Government's return to Nanking from Chungking in May, 1946, preparations began for the convocation of the National Assembly. Meanwhile, negotiations were conducted between the Kuomintang and the Communist party, the Democratic League, the Young China party, the Democratic Socialist party as well as other political groups and independents, looking toward their participation in the National Assembly. The Communists and the Democratic League refused to take part, while the Young China Party, the Democratic Socialist Party and the independents joined in the National Assembly, which convened in November-December, 1946. On December 25 they adopted the Constitution, which was promulgated by the National Government on January 1, 1947.

Immediately after the adoption of the Constitution, the Kuomintang invited the various parties and non-partisan leaders to join the Government. A coalition was formed in April, 1947, with the Kuomintang, the Young China party, the Democratic Socialists, and the independents participating. This coalition government served as a caretaker until the inauguration of the new government under the Constitution in June, 1948.

The most important developments in the Kuomintang itself during the period were the amalgamation of the party and the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, the re-

vival of the Central Political Council, and the creation of an Emergency Council.

The amalgamation of the Youth Corps with the Kuomintang was decided upon in September, 1947, at the fourth plenary session of the Sixth Central Executive Committee and the Joint Conference of the Party and the Youth Corps. The latter, created in 1938 as an adjunct to the Kuomintang, had its own system of organization, with central and branch headquarters. After the amalgamation, a Board of Youth was created under the Central Executive Committee. The Board was later abolished as a measure of retrenchment.

The Central Political Council was revived after formation of the coalition government in April, 1947. During the Period of Political Tutelage, the Kuomintang C.P.C. served as the highest organ of political direction in China. Upon the outbreak of hostilities in 1937, its functions were taken over by the Supreme National Defense Conference, which in January, 1939, was reorganized into the Supreme National Defense Council. The C.P.C. now functions purely as a party organ concerned with political affairs of the party.

The party created an Emergency Council on July 16, 1949, to operate as the highest policy-making organ during the period of Communist rebellion. The Council has a membership of 12, with President Chiang Kai-shek as chairman and Vice-President Li Tsung-jen as vice-chairman.

President Chiang, at a joint meeting of the Central Standing Committee and the Central Political Council held in Canton on July 18, 1949, proposed a resolution to effect fundamental reforms of the party. The resolution was unanimously adopted, and a preparatory committee was later appointed to work out the details for the reform.

On September 20, 1949, President Chiang issued a call to all members of the Kuomintang to support his reform program and to unite with all patriotic Chinese and freedom-loving peoples in the world in a war against totalitarianism.

"The Kuomintang, in leading the National Revolution of China," the President said, "struggled for the realization of an independent, politically democratic and economically sound new nation based upon Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Three People's Principles. But foreign imperialism appeared ever-ready to offset, by means of exploitation and encroachment, achievements attained in the National Revolution.

"Upon the victorious conclusion of China's war against Japan, the Communist Internationale intensified its fifth column activities in China through the armed forces of the Chinese Communist party led by Mao Tse-tung and Chu Teh. Their purpose was to destroy the fruits of the victory and to frustrate national unity and reconstruction.

"China's National Revolution may be divided into three periods. In the first period, the main objective was to overthrow the Manchu rule. It was a revolution for the people's right. The second period, covering the 34 years from the 1911 Revolution to the successful conclusion of the War of Resistance against Japan, had as its main objective the overthrow of the warlords and alien imperialism. The third period of the National Revolution began with the conclusion of the war against Japan. The main objective had been to oppose the Chinese Communists who serve as the fifth column of Soviet Imperialism. Revolution in this period became an ideological as well as a social struggle.

"Dr. Sun Yat-sen had led ten abortive uprisings against the Manchu rule before the final success in 1911," recalled President Chiang. "Even after the 1911 Revolution the Kuomintang withstood nine set-backs, prior to its present crisis, such as the attempt made by Wang Ching-wei to split the Kuomintang in 1927, the Japanese obstruction of the Northern Expedition in 1926, and the Japanese seizure of China's Northeastern provinces in 1931. Only through unshakable confidence and firm determination did the party survive one crisis after another and continue to help the nation toward independence.

"The crisis of today may be regarded as the tenth trial of the Kuomintang since the founding of the Republic," declared the President. "While the Chinese Communists may be superior to the warlords in the art of creating chaos and coercing the masses, their military strength could not be compared to that of the Japanese. The key to the whole question was whether the Kuomintang had a sound organization and a clear cut policy, and whether the party could be renovated with revolutionary spirit and through rigid discipline.

"To reform our party, its past mistakes and shortcomings, must be critically examined," the President said. "The party must eradicate defeatism and eliminate selfishness and bureaucracy. On the positive side, the Kuomintang must lay a firm social foundation and adopt a political platform suitable for the present.

"The Kuomintang must deal severe blows to the communists through social struggle and crush them through social reform. The present war is not a war for the change of a dynasty or the petty strifes among warlords; it is a struggle for the very life of the Chinese nation and civilization. The people and the nation must be saved from the tyranny of communism. China's national salvation hinges upon the party's rebirth. Only through a complete reform of the party policy, party activities and party morale, would there be any hope of survival in this last but gravest crisis in the 55 years of the Kuomintang's fighting history," President Chiang concluded.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION

The existing *General Regulations of the Kuomintang* were adopted by the first National Congress of the party in January, 1924, and have since been revised four times. The last revision was made in May, 1945, at the Sixth National Congress. In their present form, the *General Regulations* comprise 15 chapters and 82 Articles.

(1) *Membership*. Anyone willing to accept the platform of the party, to carry out its resolutions, to observe its discipline, and to fulfill the duties and obligations imposed by the group, is eligible to become a member. A member has the right of suffrage and freedom of expression within the party.

At the end of 1947, the Kuomintang had 4,035,413 members.

(2) *Discipline*. All members must strictly observe the following rules of discipline: (a) to obey its regulations and principles, (b) to allow free discussion on any problem concerning the party, but to obey absolutely once a resolution has been adopted, (c) to keep party secrets, (d) to permit no attack on fellow members or party organs before outsiders, (e) to join no other political party, and (f) to organize no cliques or factions within the party.

Anyone violating the above rules is subject to (a) warning, (b) temporary suspension of membership privileges, (c) temporary suspension of membership, and (d) expulsion from the party, depending on the seriousness of the offense.

In case a whole party organization violates the rules of discipline, it receives one of the following punishments: (a) new registration of all party members and expulsion of undesirable elements, or (b) complete dissolution.

(3) *Tsungli and Tsungtsai*. Dr. Sun Yat-sen, founder of the Kuomintang, was *Tsungli* of the party. His orders for the propagation of *San Min Chu I* were subject to obedience by all party members. He presided over the sessions of the Party National Congress and the Central Executive Committee, and had the power to veto all resolutions passed by either body. Dr. Sun died in Peking (now Peiping) on March 12, 1925, but the provision in the *General Regulations of the Kuomintang* concerning his position as *Tsungli* is preserved as a tribute to his memory. At the extraordinary National Congress in 1938, Generalissimo Chiang was elected *Tsungtsai* of the party with all the powers previously exercised by *Tsungli*.

(A) *Dr. Sun Yat-sen*. Dr. Sun was born in 1866 in a small village in Hsiangshan, in Kwangtung Province, two years after the close of the Taiping Rebellion (1850-64). Hsiangshan has now been renamed Chungshan in memory of Dr. Sun, Chungshan being the Japanese name he used while in exile in Japan during the pre-Republican days. Dr. Sun's given name was Wen. Yat-sen was his courtesy name.

When 12 years old, he went to Honolulu to visit his brother and entered a boys' school there. He returned home in 1883. From 1884 to 1886, he studied at Queen's College, Hongkong, where he became a Christian. In 1887, he was among the first students to register at the new Medical School opened in Hongkong. Graduating from there in 1892, he practised medicine and surgery in Macao and later in Canton. But his professional career did not last long, for he soon became interested in other and more important things. He had already become the leader of the underground movement for the reform of China.

Dr. Sun's revolutionary ideas dated back to 1885, when China was defeated by France. He then resolved that the Manchu regime must go and a Republic be founded. From then on, he said, "the school was my place for propaganda, and medicine the medium through which I made my contacts with society." He founded the Hsing Chung Hui in Honolulu in 1894, after China's defeat in the war with Japan over Korea.

In 1918, Dr. Sun began to write a series of books under the general theme of national reconstruction. Though interrupted several times by subsequent political activities, he succeeded in completing the following works:

- (a) *The Philosophy of Sun Wen* (1919)
- (b) *The Preliminary Step to Democracy* (1919)
- (c) *The International Development of China* (1921)
- (d) *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* (1924)
(see Important Koumintang Documents.)
- (e) *Lectures on San Min Chu I* (1924)

(B) *President Chiang Kai-shek*. President Chiang Kai-shek is now the *Tsungtsai* or director-general of the Kuomintang. He was primarily responsible for the successful Northern Expedition against the warlords in 1926-28. He was the nation's leader in the war against the Japanese aggression and is now guiding the nation along the road to constitutional democracy.

President Chiang was born in Fenghwa, Chekiang Province, on October 31, 1887. During a brief visit to Japan in 1905, he met Dr. Sun and other revolutionary leaders. He studied in the Paoting Military Academy in North China and the Tokyo Military Academy. He returned to China at the outbreak of the Revolution in 1911 and joined the Revolutionary Army in Shanghai.

Following Dr. Sun to Canton, he was attached to the General Headquarters. In 1923, he was sent to Moscow to study the Soviet military organization. He returned to China the same year and was appointed principal of the Whampoa Military Academy in 1924. As Commander-in-Chief of the Revolutionary Army, he unified China as a result of the successful Northern Expedition in 1926-28.

Following establishment of the National Government in Nanking in 1927, Generalissimo Chiang was elected its chairman. He resigned in 1931. The following year, he was appointed chairman of the National Military Council. He was elected *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang at the Extraordinary National Congress of the party in 1938 and was re-elected at the Sixth National Congress in 1945. In 1943, he succeeded the late Lin Sen as chairman of the National Government. In April, 1948, the first National Assembly elected him President of the Republic of China. He assumed office on May 20, 1948.

(4) *Weekly Memorial Service*. Since Dr. Sun Yat-sen's death, one hour every Monday morning is set aside for the weekly memorial service in all Party offices, government organs, and military posts in

China, presided over by the highest official thereof. The service includes the singing of China's national anthem, which is also the Kuomintang song, three bows before the national and party colors and Dr. Sun's portrait, the reading of Dr. Sun's will by the chairman and by the audience, the observance of three minutes' silence, the recitation of Dr. Sun's teachings or the renderings of work reports, and the recitation of the dicta for Party members. Since the introduction of constitutional government, only the Kuomintang organs observe this service.

(5) *Dicta for Kuomintang Members.* At the Fifth Party National Congress in November, 1935, the following 12 codes were adopted for observance by all Kuomintang members:—

(a) Loyalty and courage are the basis of patriotism.

(b) Filial devotion is the basis of family discipline.

(c) Goodwill and kindliness are the basis of harmony among fellow-beings.

(d) Faithfulness and uprightness are the basis of a useful career.

(e) Peaceableness is the basis of happy social relationships.

(f) Courtesy is the basis of proper administration.

(g) Obedience is the basis of a high sense of responsibility.

(h) Diligence and thrift are the basis of efficient service.

(i) Orderliness and cleanliness are the basis of sound health.

(j) Helpfulness is the basis of happiness.

(k) Knowledge is the basis of usefulness to mankind.

(1) Perseverance is the basis of achievement.

(6) *Organs of Authority.* The Kuomintang organization has five vertical grades: the National Congress which meets every two years, the provincial congress which meets every year, the *hsien* (county) congress which meets every six months, the *chu* (district) congress or *chu* members' general meeting which meets every two months, and the sub-*chu* members' general meeting which meets every two weeks. During recess their executive committees are organs of authority. Each organ of authority must take orders from the higher organ and carry out its resolutions.

Special administrative areas such as Mongolia and Tibet, have a party organization with the same status as a provincial party organ. Also party organizations in certain especially designated municipalities and administrative units and

those abroad are given the same status as provincial organs and are directly responsible to the highest party organ of authority, the National Congress. Branch organs abroad are equivalent to the *hsien* party organ.

(7) *Term of Office.* A delegate to the National Congress serves only during the period when the congress is in session and until he has reported to his party organ. Members of the Central Executive and Supervisory committees of the National Congress hold office for two years. Members of the provincial executive and supervisory committees, the *hsien* executive and supervisory committees, and the district executive and supervisory committees, hold office for one year. Members of the sub-district executive committee hold office for six months.

(8) *National Congress.* The highest organ of the party is the National Congress. Between sessions the work of the National Congress is carried on by two committees: the Central Executive Committee and the Central Supervisory Committee.

The National Congress is vested with the following powers:

(a) To revise the *General Regulations* of the party;

(b) To accept and adopt reports of the Central Executive and Supervisory committees;

(c) To decide upon the political program and policies of the party, and to discuss party and political problems;

(d) To elect full and reserve members of the Central Executive and Supervisory committees.

The first National Congress was held in 1924, the second in 1926, the third in 1929, the fourth in 1931, and the fifth in 1935. An Extraordinary Party National Congress was convened in Hankow, in March-April, 1938, the year after the outbreak of the war with Japan. The sixth, because of the war, did not meet until May 5-21, 1945. Delegates to the sixth Congress, which was held in Chungking, numbered 600 plus the Central Executive Committee and Central Supervisory Committee members who were *ex-officio* representatives. The Congress re-elected President Chiang as *Tsungsai* of the Kuomintang on May 17. It resolved, on May 14, to hold the National Assembly on November 12, 1945 (80th birthday anniversary of Dr. Sun Yat-sen) which was, however, postponed to November, 1946. On May 19, it elected 222 Central Executive Committee members and 90 reserve members and 104 Central Supervisory committee members and 44 reserve

members. The membership of the C.E.C. and the C.S.C. was increased considerably after the merging of the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps into the party in September, 1947. In addition, the congress adopted a number of important resolutions including the new Political Program (see Important Kuomintang Documents).

(9) *Central Executive Committee*. The C.E.C. is charged with the following duties:

- (a) To represent the party in external affairs,
- (b) To carry out the resolutions of the National Congress,
- (c) To organize and direct local party organs,
- (d) To manage party finance.

During the *Period of Political Tutelage*, the Central Executive Committee had the power to decide on any matter regarding government affairs, subject only to revision of the Party National Congress. It elected the President of the National Government and the presidents and vice-presidents of the five yuan in the National Government.

The C.E.C. has the obligation to carry out the resolutions of the Central Supervisory Committee, but when it is deemed necessary, the C.E.C. may ask the C.S.C. to reconsider its resolutions.

The C.E.C. is now composed of 286 members and 104 reserve members. It elects from among its own members a standing committee of 55 to function during its recess. It meets once every six months, while its standing committee meets every week or every two weeks. The C.E.C. has a number of boards and committees as well as a secretariat.

Up to June, 1948, the Sixth C.E.C. had held four plenary sessions and one extraordinary session. The 1st plenary session was held on May 28-31, 1945; the 2nd, May 1-17, 1946; the 3rd, March 15-24, 1947; the 4th, September 9-13, 1947; and the extraordinary session, April 4, 1948. The 4th plenary session was held jointly with the Council of Secretaries of the *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, at which time the decision was made to amalgamate the Youth Corps into the party.

(10) *Central Supervisory Committee*. The C.S.C. is charged with the following duties:

- (a) To decide upon penalties for lower organs or members violating party discipline,
- (b) To examine the receipts and expenditures of the party,
- (c) To examine and review party affairs throughout the country,

(d) To supervise the political activities of party members as to whether they are in conformity with the party's political program and policies.

The C.S.C. is now composed of 146 members and 52 reserve members. It has a standing committee of 19 elected from among its own members and a Secretariat. The C.S.C. meets once every six months.

(11) *Central Political Council*. For the direction of political affairs, the Central Executive Committee in 1924 organized a Central Political Council, which has since then been reorganized several times. As for the wartime administration the C.P.C. ceased to operate and its functions were taken over by the Supreme National Defense Council until 1947, when the C.P.C. was revived.

According to its organic law, the Central Political Council has from 19 to 25 members, nominated by the *Tsungtsai* and approved by the Central Executive Committee. It meets once every week or every two weeks. It has a secretariat and may appoint a number of sub-committees. The C.P.C. has the power to decide on:

- (a) Plans for the enforcement of the party's political program and policies,
- (b) Directives for handling important questions,
- (c) Administrative reports of members of the party who are heads of the various yuan and ministries and commissions in the government,
- (d) Choice of party members for political appointments in the government,
- (e) Matters assigned by the Central Executive Committee or proposed by members.

As mentioned before, the Kuomintang established an Emergency Council in Canton in July, 1949, to serve as the highest policy-making organ of the party during the period of Communist Rebellion. This 12-man council temporarily took over the functions of the Central Political Council as a supreme policy-making organ in the party.

IMPORTANT KUOMINTANG DOCUMENTS

The following are the texts of five important documents of the Kuomintang. They are: (1) *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*. (2) Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Will, (3) President Chiang Kai-shek's Address on the Kuomintang's 50th Anniversary, (4) Manifesto of the Sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang, and (5) The Political Program of the Kuomintang.

FUNDAMENTALS OF NATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

(Formulated by Dr. Sun Yat-sen
in 1924)

1. The National Government shall reconstruct the Republic of China on the basis of the revolutionary *San Min Chu I* (the Three People's Principles) and the Quintuple-People Constitution.

2. The primary task of reconstruction is to better the people's livelihood. Consequently, concerning the four great necessities—food, clothing, shelter and means of travel—the Government should, in co-operation with the people, strive to develop agriculture to feed them; to develop the textile industry to meet their clothing demands; to work out a large-scale housing project to furnish them with better living quarters; to improve and construct roads and canals to facilitate their travelling.

3. Next in importance is the people's sovereignty. The Government should train and direct the people in their acquisition of political knowledge and ability, thereby enabling them to exercise the powers of election, recall, initiative, and referendum.

4. Nationalism follows next. The Government should help and guide the weak and small racial groups within its national boundaries toward self-determination and self-government. It should offer resistance to foreign aggression, and simultaneously, it should revise foreign treaties in order to restore our equality and independence among the nations.

5. The program of national reconstruction shall be divided into three periods: first, the military period; second, the period of political tutelage; third, the constitutional period.

6. In the military period, the whole administrative system shall be placed under military rule. The Government on the one hand should employ its armed force to eradicate all internal obstacles and, on the other, disseminate its doctrines to enlighten the people as well as to promote national unity.

7. As soon as a province is completely restored to order, the period of political tutelage will commence and the military period will come to an end.

8. In the period of political tutelage the Government should send persons, qualified through training and examination, to various *hsien* (counties) to assist the people in the preparation of self-government. A *hsien* may elect a magistrate for the execution of its administrative affairs and elect representatives for the deliberation and making of its laws in

order to become a completely self-governed *hsien*. To qualify a census of the whole *hsien* must be properly taken, a survey of its land must be completed, its police and local defense forces satisfactorily maintained, and road-building and repairing within its boundaries successfully carried out. Also its people should have received training in the exercise of the four powers, fulfilled their duties as citizens, and pledged themselves to carry out the revolutionary principles.

9. Citizens in a completely self-governed *hsien* will have the power of election, the power of recall, the power of initiative, and the power of referendum.

10. Every *hsien*, at the commencement of self-government, shall first assess the value of private land in the whole *hsien*, which value is to be declared by the landowner. The local government shall tax private land on the basis of the value assessed, and at any time may buy it on the same basis. If after this assessment the land increases in value as a result of political advancement or social progress, such unearned increment should be shared by the people in the whole *hsien* and should not be kept by the landowners as private profits.

11. Annual receipts from land tax, unearned increment, products of public land, yields from mountains, forests, rivers and lakes, proceeds from mineral deposits and water power, all belong to the local government. These proceeds shall be used for the operation of local public enterprises of the people, for the care of the young and the aged, the poor and the sick, for famine relief, as well as to meet various public demands.

12. In the various *hsien*, natural resources and large-scale industrial and commercial enterprises, the opening and development of which lie beyond the means of these *hsien* and require external capital, should be started and developed with the help of the National Government. Net profits so realized shall be divided equally between the central and the local governments.

13. With regard to its obligation to the National Government, every *hsien* shall contribute a percentage of its annual revenue towards the central government's annual expenditure. Such percentage shall be determined each year by citizens' delegates, but it shall not be lower than 10 percent or more than 50 percent of the *hsien* revenue.

14. Every *hsien*, upon its adoption of self-government, may elect one delegate for the formation of a representative body to participate in political affairs of the National Government.

15. All candidates and appointed officials, whether belonging to the central or the local government, shall be persons found qualified in the examinations held by the National Government or adjudged qualified by the personnel registration organ of the National Government.

16. The constitutional period shall commence in a province when all the *hsien* of the province have attained complete self-government. The body of citizens' delegates may elect a governor to supervise self-government of the province. In matters involving national administration the governor shall be subject to the direction of the National Government.

17. In this period the authority of the central government and that of the provincial government shall be kept in equilibrium. Matters which by nature require uniform action on the part of the nation shall be assigned to the National Government; matters which by nature should be dealt with locally shall be assigned to the local government. There shall be no tendency either to the centralization or to the decentralization of power.

18. The *hsien* is the unit of local self-government. The province stands between the National Government and the *hsien* to bring about a closer relationship.

19. As soon as the constitutional period begins, the National Government should complete the formation of the five yuan to experiment on a quintuple-power government. The five yuan are named in the following order: The Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan, the Judicial Yuan, the Examination Yuan, and the Control Yuan.

20. The Executive Yuan tentatively shall have the following ministries: (1) The Ministry of Interior; (2) The Ministry of Foreign Affairs; (3) The Ministry of Military Affairs; (4) The Ministry of Finance; (5) The Ministry of Agriculture and Mining; (6) The Ministry of Industry and Commerce; (7) The Ministry of Education; (8) The Ministry of Communications.

21. Before the promulgation of a Constitution, the presidents of the five Yuan shall be appointed or removed and directed by the President of the National Government.

22. The draft of the Constitution should be prepared by the Legislative Yuan in accordance with the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* and the achievements in the period of political tutelage and the constitutional period. It should, from time to time, be made public to the

people in order to facilitate its adoption when the proper time comes.

23. When more than one-half of the provinces have reached the constitutional period, that is when they have completely adopted local self-government, the National Assembly shall be convened to decide on and promulgate the Constitution.

24. After the promulgation of the Constitution the governing power of the National Government shall be returned to the National Assembly for execution. That is, the National Assembly shall exercise the powers of election and recall in regard to officials of the central government, as well as the powers of initiative and referendum in regard to the laws of the central government.

25. The day of the promulgation of the Constitution marks the culmination of constitutional government. All citizens of the nation shall, in accordance with the Constitution, hold a general election. The National Government shall be dissolved within three months after the completion of the election and shall be succeeded by the now popularly-elected government. Whereupon the great task of national reconstruction will be regarded as accomplished.

DR. SUN YAT-SEN'S WILL

"For forty years I have devoted myself to the cause of the people's revolution with but one end in view, the elevation of China to a position of freedom and equality in the family of nations. My experiences during these forty years have firmly convinced me that to attain this goal we must bring about a thorough awakening of our own people and ally ourselves in a common struggle with those peoples of the world who treat us on the basis of equality.

"The work of the Revolution is not yet accomplished. Let all our comrades follow my *Plans for National Reconstruction*, *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction*, *Three People's Principles*, and the Manifesto issued by the First National Congress of our Party, and strive on earnestly for their consummation. Above all, our recent declarations in favor of the convocation of a national convention and the abolition of unequal treaties should be carried into effect with the least possible delay. This is my heartfelt charge to you.—(Signed) SUN WEN, March 11, 1925. Written on February 20, 1925."

**PRESIDENT CHIANG KAI-SHEK'S ADDRESS TO THE PARTY AND NATION ON THE OCCASION OF THE 50TH ANNIVERSARY OF THE KUOMINTANG
November 12, 1944**

The Father of our Republic, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, organized in 1894 the *Hsing Chung Hui* (Regenerate China Society), the forerunner of the Kuomintang, and launched the revolutionary movement for national salvation. This year marks the 50th anniversary of the organization of the Kuomintang.

Today is also the birthday anniversary of Dr. Sun. His birth marked the birth of a savior to China and brought good tidings to humanity. His organization of a political party for revolution heralded a new life for China. It restored to us self-confidence; it heightened our hope for the regeneration of our country and made us conscious of the need for progress in keeping with that of the modern world.

In promoting the revolution, Dr. Sun wished to revive our nation and to win national freedom and independence. The earlier documents of the Kuomintang made it clear that the foundation of the revolution rests with the people. The unwavering belief of Dr. Sun had always been that the interest of the country takes precedence over that of the party. There would be no party, if ever the party should be separated from the people. After the establishment of the Republic, the Kuomintang has exerted its utmost efforts to safeguard the Republic. The party's object is to discharge its special duties, not to seek special privileges.

It was Dr. Sun who formulated the Three People's Principles, the highest guiding principles of the Republic. The Principle of Nationalism is directed toward securing the liberation of the Chinese nation and the equality of all racial groups within the nation. The Principle of People's Rights aims at the people's realization of their direct political rights in addition to their indirect rights. The Principle of People's Livelihood aims at the equalization of land ownership and the restriction of capitalistic monopoly.

To make it more specific, the Principle of Nationalism has as its objective the saving of China from destruction and the bringing about of her national independence. The Principle of People's Rights aims at the establishment of a nation whose sovereign power rests entirely with the people; and the Principle of People's Livelihood is to prevent a capitalistic monopoly and class struggle and to give

to the people an equal opportunity in life. These are what the Chinese people have been striving for in the last 50 years.

At the very beginning, Dr. Sun decided that the national revolution was an enterprise for the whole nation to undertake. From the days of the *Hsing Chung Hui* to the present time, the Kuomintang has been reorganized six times. In each reorganization, the party gathered together more revolutionary patriots. Whatever progress China has made during the past 50 years should be attributed largely to the efforts and sacrifices made by our comrades.

Revolution and national salvation are not a wrangle over privileges and positions, but they mean the shouldering of duties and responsibilities. Personal interests must not be placed before the supreme interest of the country. We must not be afraid of sacrifices; we must endure all criticisms and sufferings. We must not in any way neglect our duties. Only thus can we live up to the expectations of Dr. Sun and the martyrs who have gone before us.

Particularly at this moment, we should redouble our effort to win the war. Every one of us must exert his utmost to carry on the struggle. The greatest enemy to our revolution and to our national reconstruction is Japan. In his *International Development of China*, published in 1921, Dr. Sun pointed out that "the militaristic policy of Japan is to swallow China." He predicted that "the next aggression from Japan will be resolutely resisted by the Chinese people. Japan will not be able to dominate China at any time or in any place." By "organize for war," he meant the aggression block of the Fascist nations, and by "organize for peace," he meant the anti-aggression Allies who would fight for the preservation of peace. We have fought with determination for more than seven years. Our common victory in this anti-aggression war is in sight. We believe that after this war, there will emerge an effective guarantee for international peace and security, and that means will be found for economic cooperation and mutual help among the nations. But at this moment, when we have not yet recovered our lost territories, and when the enemy is still running rampant, the nation should continue to fight Japan.

Our immediate concern is the defeat of the enemy. The people of the Republic of China and the loyal revolutionists must jointly and with a single purpose overcome the greatest enemy of our revolution

and of our national reconstruction, and achieve the object the Father of the Republic set forth 50 years ago.

**MANIFESTO OF THE SIXTH
NATIONAL CONGRESS
(Issued on May 21, 1945)**

Significantly, the Sixth Party National Congress of the Kuomintang is held in this eighth year of our war when the final victory is in sight and constitutionalism is soon to materialize and when the entire world is emerging from chaos and darkness.

Recalling the past and dwelling on the present, we realize even more fully that our responsibilities and hardships are without parallel. For the information of all our party members and the entire nation, a review of the deliberations and results achieved in the congress is set forth here.

First, China's most urgent task today is to strengthen her armed forces for the decisive battles and the destruction of the enemy. In eight years of bitter struggle, the enemy has occupied large sections of our country and millions of our gallant soldiers have fallen in battle while countless numbers of our men and women have suffered untold cruelties and violent death. Only the recovery of all our lost territories and the complete destruction of Japanese imperialism will redeem in part our enormous sacrifices. Only by the liberation of our long lost people in the Northeastern Provinces, the return of Formosa to its motherland, and the restoration of independence to Korea which she had enjoyed for thousands of years, and the total extermination of the seeds of Japanese aggression may we consider the victory completely won.

Japan has now lost her disreputable partners. The anti-aggression nations will soon transfer their forces to the Far East. Japan, in desperation, is certain to make her last stand on the Chinese mainland. The decisive battles ahead are, therefore, bound to be the hardest and severest in the eight years. It is necessary that the entire nation should with one heart and purpose build up our striking power, thoroughly mobilize our resources, and with determination overcome all unpredictable dangers and hardships.

Second, our allies and friends, especially the United States, Great Britain, and the U.S.S.R., have bestowed upon us great sympathy in our long fight for justice. They also supplied us with arms, materials, and economic aid. The Chinese Army and people are genuinely grateful for such friendship and will always remember it.

While the enemy is yet to be crushed, we will prosecute the war vigorously with everything at our command and faithfully adhere to the United Nations and the Four-Power Declarations until victory is won and support wholeheartedly the establishment of an international security organization. Japan remains as the only obstacle to China's revolutionary national reconstruction and to world peace. After clearing this last obstacle, China will, in accordance with her traditional policy, strengthen friendly relations with her allies. We shall welcome financial and technical cooperation from all nations to carry out our industrial program. Reconstruction in China will be promoted on the principles of mutual benefit and of hastening world prosperity.

Third, the purpose of our Principle of Nationalism is to secure independence for China and equality for all the racial groups within the country. In order to insure the attainment of this dual object, this congress reiterates the declaration adopted by the First National Congress of the Kuomintang in 1924 that a free and united Republic of China shall be established after the successful conclusion of the revolution. We shall strive with all our power to free all frontier racial groups from the oppression they suffer as a result of Japanese invasion. We shall actively aid the economic and cultural development of the frontier racial groups, respect their languages, religions, and customs and promote local self-government. A high degree of autonomy will be granted to Outer Mongolia and Tibet. The full realization of the Principle of Nationalism will mean for our nation enduring peace and unity.

Fourth, the Principle of People's Rights as advocated by Dr. Sun Yat-sen aims at the attainment of a complete and progressive democracy. Ever since the inception of the Kuomintang and its predecessors as a political party we have labored ceaselessly for democracy and constitutionalism. This is the time to hasten our great task of national reconstruction. The *Tsungtsai* of our Party has proposed, and the Congress has adopted, the resolution that the National Assembly shall be convened on November 12 of this year to adopt and promulgate a constitution. Before the assembly meets we shall with absolute sincerity seek the collaboration of all the truly patriotic leaders of the nation towards the early inauguration of constitutionalism. The coming six months may be described as the eve of constitutionalism in China. It coincides with the period when the most difficult

battles against the enemy will be fought. It is the government's as well as the people's duty to see to it that wartime public opinion is fostered, freedom within law is respected and the foundation for self-government is soundly developed. We are convinced that the Chinese people, fully cognizant of their hard-won independence and freedom, will not permit any force to set Chinese history back thirty years, or jeopardize the foundation of the Republic laid by our martyrs, thereby plunging the nation once more into chaos. Our attitude is plain and straightforward. Our spirit is sincere and just. We shall exert our utmost to establish a sound foundation for constitutionalism and insure the future welfare of the nation.

Fifth, Dr. Sun taught that in national reconstruction the question of the people's livelihood should receive first attention. The congress, after examining our past records, regrets that due to numerous obstacles, we have not carried out the policies of equalization of land and restriction of private capital.

In this opening address to the congress, the *Tsungtsai* said that we should from now on pay special attention to carrying out, without reserve, the Principle of People's Livelihood. All measures, including the prevention of monopoly by capitalists, the elimination of hindrances to production, the prevention of land aggrandizement, the promotion of the policy of farmers owning the land they till, the improvement of the living standards of the front line soldiers, the safeguarding of the livelihood of the farmers and laborers, and of the government and school employees, and affording youths a chance of receiving education and security jobs, shall be faithfully carried out.

The fundamental objective of the Principle of People's Livelihood is to increase the productive capacity and to improve the general standards of living. We shall from now on adhere to the directions provided in the *Fundamentals of National Reconstruction* to meet the people's needs for food, clothing, shelter, and communications and to accept foreign financial and technical assistance in order to achieve a balanced development of industry and agriculture. We shall, on the one hand, encourage the people to engage in private enterprises under the general plan of national economic reconstruction, and, on the other hand, develop state capital to engage in large-scale economic enterprises, especially the development of communications and motive power. The fruits of

such economic reconstruction and development of enterprises shall be enjoyed by the entire people.

During the session of the Congress, numerous messages of encouragement and congratulation from our friends abroad were received. This is unprecedented in the history of the Kuomintang. It is an honor conferred on us as a result of the concerted efforts of our army and people in the struggle against aggression.

We believe that the closer we come to the successful conclusion of our revolution, the more responsibility we shall shoulder. It is our fervent hope that the leaders of the nation will take to heart the crisis the country faces and the suffering our people endure and work with one heart and the utmost sincerity to drive out the enemy and to secure for our nation permanent peace.

POLITICAL PROGRAM

(Adopted on May 18, 1945)

The 6th National Congress of the Kuomintang adopted on May 18, 1945, a revised *Political Program* as proposed by President Chiang Kai-shek, *Tsungtsai* of the party. The first *Political Program* of the Kuomintang was adopted by the First Party National Congress in January, 1924. The revised program reads:

Accepting the Three People's Principles as the highest guiding policy, the Kuomintang in its 50 years of revolutionary history overthrew the Manchu regime, swept away warlordism, and led in the war of resistance and national reconstruction. The mission of the Kuomintang can be clearly seen from the *Political Program* adopted by the First Party National Congress and the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction* adopted by the Extraordinary Party National Congress. The achievements of the Kuomintang are also common knowledge.

The Kuomintang shall redouble its efforts for the early achievement of final victory, constitutionalism, and improvement of the people's livelihood. To accomplish this, the following political program and policies are adopted and it is urged that all fellow party members and the entire nation unite to attain the objective.

I. PERTAINING TO NATIONALISM

The Principle of Nationalism seeks to attain independence for China and equality for all the racial groups within the country. In the present phase, the urgent task is to strive for early victory, to strengthen

the foundation of the nation, to assist in the development of the frontier racial groups so as to achieve an independent, free, and united nation, and to strengthen international cooperation to enable China to bear her proper responsibility in the promotion of international peace. Therefore, the Kuomintang advocates:

1. The mobilization of our entire national strength for the war against Japan; to beat Japan to unconditional surrender, to disarm the enemy militarily and economically, and to eliminate his ideology of aggression.

2. The realization of the Cairo declaration: helping China attain her territorial, sovereign, and administrative integrity, and assisting Korea to win her independence.

3. Collaboration with the allied nations to establish an international security organization to secure permanent world peace.

4. The conclusion of mutual aid pacts with the different allied nations for permanent friendly relations, particularly in the economic and cultural fields for world security and prosperity.

5. The conclusion of commercial treaties of equality and reciprocity with other nations and working toward the betterment of conditions for overseas Chinese.

6. Granting a high degree of local autonomy to Mongolia and Tibet, and assisting the frontier racial groups attain a balanced economy and cultural development as a part of the foundation of a free and united Chinese Republic.

7. The protection and strengthening of the unity of the nation and the strict enforcement of government laws and regulations to prevent any action detrimental to unity in the fields of foreign, military, financial, communications, and currency affairs of the nation.

8. Positive steps to augment the equipment of the national army, reorientation of military education, improvement of conscription administration, improvement of the livelihood of officers and men, and betterment of the personnel and commissariat system to build up a modern army.

9. Universal promotion of the people's health and the expansion of sanitary and health enterprises to improve national health.

10. The encouragement of scientific research, improvement of the policy of sending students to study abroad, and increase the facilities for academic research for cultural independence and development.

II. PERTAINING TO PEOPLE'S RIGHTS

The Principle of People's Right seeks to promote indirect as well as direct sovereign rights. At the present stage of development it aims at the early establishment of a constitutional government, consummation of local self-government, popularization of universal education and protection of women so that the entire people can enjoy the rights, and the recreation of a civil service system to guarantee administrative independence and to safeguard legal rights of the people. Therefore, the Kuomintang advocates:

1. The convocation of the National Assembly to adopt a Five-Power Constitution and establish a constitutional government.

2. The protection of the people's freedom of speech, press, assembly, organization, religion, and academic research.

3. The promotion of local autonomous activities in accordance with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's "Measures for the Initiation of Local Autonomy," to hasten the establishment of representative organs and to elect within a specific period of time magistrates and mayors in order to consummate local self-government.

4. The rendering of assistance to local autonomous activities and public utilities.

5. The strict enforcement of laws, severe punishment for corruption, improvement of administrative efficiency, establishment of clean government, and improvement of the treatment of public functionaries and schools teachers and their protection through the institution of health insurance, retirement, and pension systems.

6. The rationalization of the administrative machinery, establishment of a sound civil service system, fixing the terms of offices of political officials of various ranks, and the promotion of personnel on a fair and equitable basis.

7. The realization of true equality between men and women economically, socially, politically, and educationally.

8. The popularization of mass education within a designated period and the promotion of supplementary education for adults to eliminate illiteracy.

9. Equal opportunity for all institutes of education, and free tuition in middle schools and colleges for needy students with high scholastic standing and honorably discharged members of the Youth Army.

10. The safeguarding of judicial unity and independence, simplification of legal procedure, institution of prison reforms, reformation of prisoners, and protection for the livelihood of prisoners who have served their terms.

III. PERTAINING TO PEOPLE'S LIVELIHOOD

The Principle of People's Livelihood has two very important policies, the equalization of land and the restriction of private capital. The Government shall be responsible for meeting the people's needs for food, clothing, shelter, and transportation. It shall assist them to develop agriculture to supply food and the textile industries for their clothing; to launch large-scale housing projects for shelter, and to improve roads and waterways to provide them transportation. Present efforts should be concentrated on the increase of war production, the planning of postwar economic reconstruction, the assistance of private enterprises, the encouragement of foreign capital and technical cooperation, the protection of the interests of farmers and workers, the maintenance of a balance between urban and rural development, the planning of demobilization of servicemen and wounded veterans for absorption into peacetime work so as to safeguard their social security and elevate the people's standard of living. Therefore, the Kuomintang advocates:

1. In accordance with Dr. Sun Yat-sen's plan of industrial development, foreign capital and technical assistance should be sought in the task of postwar economic reconstruction. To implement this plan, priority should be accorded to the development of communication, electric power, and a balanced development of agriculture and industry. All enterprises which are monopolistic in nature and beyond the reach of private capital should be undertaken by the State or local authorities. All others should be undertaken by private individuals.

2. The stabilization of the exchange rate and the value of the Chinese dollar through international cooperation and im-

provement in the financial policy. International trade should be developed to further China's industrialization and the prosperity of the world.

3. The improvement of the taxation system in order to simplify the process of collection. Direct taxes should be levied on a progressive scale and the amount of inheritance be duly restricted.

4. All land in urban areas should be taken over by the State. With the exception of public land, all farm land should be distributed to the farmers in the quickest possible time. All farm land not cultivated by the owner should be gradually bought by the State with land bonds.

5. The development of farmers' organizations to protect farmers' interests and to improve their livelihood. The system of collective farms should be enforced and the industrialization of Chinese agriculture should be promoted.

6. The development of labor organizations, improvement of labor conditions, promotion of cooperation between labor and capital, improvement of working efficiency and the protection of women and child laborers.

7. Universal promotion of social insurance and welfare activities, particularly unemployment insurance and the care of children.

8. Special treatment for families of military personnel, planning of postwar demobilization and re-employment, pensions to families of fallen soldiers, protection of wounded veterans.

9. Prompt relief for people in war areas and territories recovered by our forces.

10. Registration of the property of public functionaries and those in the employment of public enterprises. No government official should be allowed to engage in any business enterprises.

IMPORTANT OFFICIALS OF THE KUOMINTANG

(June 1949)

Tsungtsai: Chiang Kai-shek

Central Executive Committee

Members of the Standing Committee:

(Those marked with an asterisk were expelled from the Kuomintang in 1949)

Ting Wei-fen
Chu Chi-ching
Mai Ssu Wu Teh
Wu Te-chen
Chang Chun
Soong Ching-ling*
Tien Kun-shan

T. V. Soong
Pan Kung-chan
Li Chen*
Tuan Hsi-peng (deceased)
Ho Hao-jo
Chang Chi-yun
Lai Lien

Li Wen-ya
Chen Yen-fen
Tang Ju-yen
Huang Yu-jen
Chiang Ching-kuo
Chu Cheng
Li Wen-fan

*Central Executive Committee*Members of the Standing Committee (*continued*)

Tsou Lu	Liu Chien-chun	Chien Ta-chun
Li Tsung-huang	Yuan Shou-chien	Fan Yu-sui
Chang Chih-chung*	Kang Tse (deceased)	Cheng Cheng
Chu Chia-hua	Chao Chung-yung	Chang Li-sheng
Sun Fo	Yu Yu-jen	Ho Chung-han
Pai Chung-hsi	Wu Chung-hsin	Wang Chi-chiang
Hsiao Tung-tze	Ma Chao-chun	Huang Shao-ku
Liang Han-chao	Tai Chuan-hsien	Hsiao Cheng
Chang Tao-fan	(deceased)	Liu Ke-shu
Chen Li-fu	Chen Pu-lei (deceased)	Teng Wen-yi
Ku Cheng-kang	Pai Yun-ti	Cheng Ssu-yuan
Ho Lien-kuei	Chen Kuo-fu	

Central Supervisory Committee

Members of the Standing Committee:

Wu Ching-heng	Wang Chung-hui	Shao Li-tze*
Liu Wen-tao	Yao Ta-hai	Wang Ping-chun
Shao Hua	Chang Chih-pen	Chang Mo-chun
Li Yung-hsin	Lu Tang-ping	Chu Chin-nung
Li Man-kwei	Pai Yu	Liu Tsan-chou
Chu Kuang-chien	Cheng Tien-fang	Li Shih-chun

Officers of Central Executive Committee:

Secretary-General: Cheng Yen-fen
 Director, Board of Organization: Ku Cheng-ting
 Director, Board of Information: Cheng Tieng-fang
 Director, Board of Overseas Affairs: Chen Ching-yun
 Director, Board of Farmers and Labor Movement: Ma Chao-chun
 Chairman, Training Committee: Tuan Hsi-peng (deceased)
 Chairman, Party Affairs Committee: Cheng Yen-fen
 Chairman, Pension Committee: Ting Wei-fen
 Chairman, Party History Compilation and Editing Committee: Hsu Jen-ju (acting)
 Chairman, Revolutionary Achievements Committee: Wu Ching-heng
 Chairman, Financial Affairs Committee: Chen Kuo-fu
 Chairman, Cultural Movement Committee: Chang Tao-fan
 Chairman, Women's Movement Committee: Liu Heng-ching (Miss)
 Chairman, Personnel Committee: Cheng Yen-fen
 Chairman, Ideology Research Committee: Liang Han-chao

*Central Political Council*Chiang Kai-shek, Chairman *ex-officio*

Members:

Chang Jen-chieh	Tseng Yang-pu	Chu Shao-liang
Yen Hsi-shan	Chi Shih-ying	Li Ching-chai
H. H. Kung	Yuan Shou-chien	Kan Nai-kuang
Li Tsung-jen	Lu Chung-lin	Peng Hsueh-pei
Hsu Yung-chang	Li Yu-ying	(deceased)
Chen Chi-tang	Hsiung Ke-wu	Fang Chih
Hsu Kan	Cheng Chien*	Ku Cheng-ting
Yu Ching-tang	Ho Ying-chin	Cheng Yen-fen

Emergency Council

Chairman: Chiang Kai-shek
 Vice-chairman: Li Tsung-jen

Members:

Sun fo	Chang Chun	Wu Chung-hsin
Yu Yu-jen	Chu Chia-hua	Wu Te-chen
Yen Hsi-shan	Chu Cheng	Chen Li-fu
	Ho Ying-chin	

Secretary-General: Hung Lan-yu

THE COMMUNIST PARTY

EARLY HISTORY

The Communist organization in China dates from the formation of the Institute of Marxism by Chen Tu-hsiu in Shanghai in 1920. Chen, a young professor at the National Peking University, joined the Third International while visiting in Moscow in 1921. Upon his return to China he convened the First National Congress of the Chinese Communist Party in Shanghai on July 1, 1921. Mao Tse-tung was among those present.

Meanwhile, Chinese students in Europe, including Chou En-lai, organized a Chinese Communist Youth Movement in Paris in 1920. This later became the Chinese Communist headquarters in France.

At the First National Congress, Chen was elected Chairman of the party. Its membership then totalled only 100. This was increased to 300 by 1922, when the Second National Congress was held in Canton. Chen remained in charge of the party, and later became its general secretary, then the most influential post in the Communist party. The most important resolution adopted at the Second Congress was that the Chinese Communist party should join the Third International and serve as the latter's China branch.

Relations between the Communists and the Kuomintang began in this period. Upon order from the Third International, the Chinese Communist party resolved to join the Kuomintang, as decided in August, 1922. In December, the same year, A. Joffe, Special Soviet Envoy to China, arrived in Shanghai. Li Ta-chao, a young professor at National Peking University and a Communist, was the first one to join the Kuomintang.

A large number of Soviet advisors arrived in Canton in 1923, including Michael Borodin and Marshal Blucher (then known in China as General Galens) who served as political and military advisers respectively to Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

Members of the Communist party holding important posts in the Kuomintang in 1924 included Tan Ping-shan who became head of the Kuomintang Board of Organization, and Lin Tsu-han who became director of the Kuomintang Board of Farmers. Others held influential positions in practically all departments of the Kuomintang and later in the National Government. Ten leading Communists, including Mao Tse-tung and Li Ta-chao, were on the Central Executive and Supervisory

Committees of the Kuomintang. Their main objective was to destroy the Kuomintang from within.

By 1925, when the Communist party held its Fourth National Congress, membership had increased to 1,500, and was again doubled after the general strike in Shanghai in May, 1925. Their main objective remained unchanged, to destroy the Kuomintang and to expand the Communist party. They were opposed to the Northern Expedition against the warlords for fear that success would make the Kuomintang too strong for the Communists.

As subversive activities increased in intensity, the Kuomintang in 1927 took steps to purge its rank and file of all communists. In July, the same year, the communists decided on a program of armed insurrection which has continued up to the present with the exception of the armed truce during the war years. (For further details on early Kuomintang-Communist relations, see *The Communist Issue*.)

ARMED REBELLION

After the 1927 purge, internal struggle started among the communists themselves. Chu Teh, Li Li-san, Chou En-lai, Ho Lung, Yeh Ting, and others organized a revolutionary committee in Kiangsi on August 1, 1927, and started a series of abortive uprisings at Changsha, Nanchang, Canton and other places. Their slogans then included: "enforce land revolution," "build up rural administration," "dispossess owners with over 50 mow of land" and "protect the interests of the farmers and workers."

Chen Tu-hsiu called a conference at Kuling on August 7, 1927, and resigned as General Secretary of the Communist party after being attacked by Mao Tse-tung and Chu Chiu-po, both being members of the Central Committee. Chu, who advocated armed uprisings, became the center of attack after the failure of these revolts and had to step down from his position in the Communist party after the Sixth National Congress held in August, 1928, in Moscow.

In 1929 Chen Tu-hsiu was expelled from the Communist party because of his opposition to the party's support of Russia during the Sino-Soviet dispute over the Chinese Eastern Railway in the northeast (Manchuria). The real reason for Chen's expulsion was his association in Moscow with some Chinese student Trotsky sympathizers in August, 1928. Chen finally became leader of Trotsky-ites in China.

Shortly afterwards, Li Li-san, who directed the Communist political activities in the Northeast after the end of the war, became the center of power in the Communist party. In 1930, when Hsiang Chung-fa was the party's general secretary, Li tried to seize power in the party, regarding himself as the Lenin of China. His program was to pave the way to world revolution by inducing the U.S.S.R. to invade China's northeast, declare war on Japan and start a world war. He proposed Hankow as the site for a general strike and for the establishment of a Soviet government in China. His program was rejected by the party's Central Committee. During this period, Chen Shao-yu (alias Wang Ming) and his internationalist clique were the moving spirits in the Chinese Communist party. He became its general secretary in 1931 after the death of Hsiang Chung-fa.

"THE SOVIET GOVERNMENT"

Upon orders from the Third International, the "Soviet Republic of China" was established in Juikin, Kiangsi province, in November, 1931, with Mao Tse-tung as chairman. At that time, the Chinese Communist Armies were concentrated in Central China. Chu Teh was their commander-in-chief.

Mao has been the real boss in the Chinese Communist party since the early 1920's. After he failed in the Hunan uprisings in 1927, he massed his armed groups at Chinggangshan (mountain) in Ningkan on the Hunan-Kiangsi border and, after absorbing some local bands, created the so-called "First Farmers and Workers Revolutionary Army." Chu, who is the rebels' present commander-in-chief, later joined Mao there.

The National Government was compelled to seek the suppression of the communists by military force. After several years of hostilities, Government forces succeeded in tightening the ring around Juikin. Faced by total destruction in November, 1935, the communists, led by Mao, Chu and Chou En-lai, started on their "Long March" across several provinces, finally settling in a small area around Yen-an, in the northwest.

From then till 1937, the communists

switched slogans to fit their moods and schemes. As Japan's aggressive activities in north China became more and more unbearable for the Chinese people as a whole, the communists changed their early slogan of: "oppose Chiang Kai-shek and resist Japan" to: "unite with Chiang Kai-shek and resist Japan." This was done in accordance with directives from the Third International.

The "Chinese Soviet Government" was abolished in 1937, shortly after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, and the Communist Armies were reorganized into the Eighth Route Army (later the 18th Group Army) with Chu Teh and Peng Teh-huai as commander-in-chief and deputy commander-in-chief respectively. The communists appealed to the National Government for such measures as early as May, 1936. They then agreed to abolish the Soviet system, reorganize their troops into the National Army, stop class struggle, discontinue the policy of land confiscation, and to follow Dr. Sun Yat-sen's *Three People's Principles*.

On October 1, 1949, the communists established the "People's Central Government of the People's Republic of China" in Peiping, with Mao Tse-tung as chairman. The next day the Soviet Union granted the puppet government official recognition, followed by several countries in Eastern Europe. (For details of communist activities during the war and since the end of the war, see *The Communist Issue*.)

PRESENT ORGANIZATION

In the Chinese Communist party today the highest organ of authority is the National Congress, under which is the Central Committee composed of 44 members and 33 reserve members. Under the C.C. are the various grades of local units and the central departments in charge of organization, publicity, training, youth, and farmers' and workers movement.

The most powerful organ in the Communist party under the Central Committee is the Politburo, of which Mao is the chairman. The Politburo stations officers in areas under Red domination and in all Red Army units. It also controls the secret service and the Communist youth movement.

Central Committee (1948)

Members:

Mao Tse-tung
Jen Pi-Shih
Tung Pi-wu
Kwan Shang-yin
Li Fu-chun
Lo Yung-huan

Wang Jo-fei (deceased)
Chen Yi
Cheng Wei-san
Teng Hsiao-ping
Yeh Chien-ying
Teng Tze-hui

Tung Tai-yuan
Hsu Teh-li
Chen Shao-yu (Wang Ming)
Chu Teh
Lin Tsu-han

Central Committee members (continued)

Chen Yun	Wu Yu-chang	Peng Chen
Chen Tan-chiu	Chang Ting-chang	Ho Lung
Jao Shu-shih	Tan Chen-ling	Liu Po-cheng
Kang Sheng	Chin Pang-hsien	Tsai Chang (Miss)
Chang Yun-yi	(deceased)	Tseng Sheng
Chou En-lai	Liu Shao-chi	Peng Teh-huai
Chang Wen-tien	Lin Piao	Lin Feng
Lu Ting-yi	Hsu Shang-chien	Li Hsien-nien
Nieh Yung-chen	Kao Kang	Po Yi-po
	Li Li-san	

Reserve Members

Liao Cheng-chih	Chen Yu	Wang Chen
Chen Po-yuan	Liu Tze-chiu	Chang Chi-chun
Wang Shou-tao	Lu Cheng-chao	Yun Tse (Ulan Hu; Tumut)
Teng Yin-chao	Chen Keng	Wan Yi
Liu Hsiao	Hsi Chung-hsun	Tseng Ching-ping
Cheng Tze-hua	Liu Lan-tao	Ma Ming-fang
Shu Yu	Wang Chia-hsiang	Chang Shun
Sung Jen-chun	Huang Ke-cheng	Lo Jui-ching
Chao Cheng-sheng	Li Yu	Wang Tsung-wu
Wang Wei-chou	Chen Shao-ming	Hsiao Ching-kuang
Ku Ta-cheng	Tan Cheng	
	Liu Chang-sheng	

The Politburo (1948)

Chairman: Mao Tse-tung

Secretary: Chen Shao-yu (Wang Ming)

Members:

Chou En-lai, Chen Shao-yu (Wang Ming)

Chin Pang-hsien (deceased)

Ho Chang-kung, Liu Shao-chi, Chang Wen-tien

THE DEMOCRATIC LEAGUE**A BRIEF HISTORY**

In 1939 a number of People's Political Council members formed the "Association of National Unification and Reconstruction" in Chungking. Mostly members of minority parties and groups, they regard themselves as a bridge between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist party.

In June, 1942, when the association reorganized as the "Federation of Democratic Political Parties and Associations," it announced its intention "to mediate the Kuomintang - Communist dispute and to promote constitutional government." Participants in the federation were the Young China party, the National Socialist (later Democratic Socialist) party, the Third Party, the National Salvation Association, the Rural Reconstruction Group, the National Association of Vocational Education, and the Northeast Salvation Association, as well as independents.

The Federation was reorganized as the "Democratic League" in Chungking on October 20, 1944. The League proposed the immediate formation of a coalition

government as a preliminary step toward a constitutional government.

At the inaugural session the League elected a Central Executive Committee of 33 members and a Standing Committee of 13 members.

Standing Committee:

Li Huang (Young China)
Tseng Chi (Young China)
Tso Shun-sheng (Young China)
Tung Shih-chin (Agriculturist, later Chinese Farmers')
Carsun Chang (Democratic Socialist)
Lo Lung-chi (Democratic Socialist)
Chang Po-chun (Third Party)
Shen Chun-ju (National Salvation)
Chang Shen-fu (National Salvation)
Huang Yen-pei (Vocational Education)
Liang Shu-ming (Rural Reconstruc- tion)
Chang Lan (Independent)
Chou Ching-wen (Young China)

Central Executive Committee:

Chairman: Chang Lan
General Secretary: Tso Shun-sheng
Committee chairmen:
Organization: Chang Po-chun
Publicity: Tso Shun-sheng
Financial Affairs: Chang Lan

Cultural: Chang Shen-fu
 Domestic Relations: Lian Shu-ming
 Foreign Relations: Carsun Chang

The Young China party then held key positions in the League. Soon afterwards there was a split in the organization. As a result, the Young China party withdrew in 1944. Tung Shih-chin also withdrew because his proposals on agriculture were not adopted by the League's Extraordinary National Congress held in October, 1945.

During the war the League's centers of activities were Chungking, Chengtu and Kunming. After the war, its headquarters were moved to Shanghai. Its important officials then were:

Chairman: Chang Lan
 Director, Secretariat: Liang Shu-ming
 Committee Chairman:
 Organization: Chang Po-chun
 Publicity: Lo Lung-chi
 Cultural: Chang Shen-fu
 Financial Affairs: Chang Lan
 Industrial and Commercial Affairs:
 Huang Yen-peí
 Youth Movement: Shen Chun-ju
 Women's Movement: Liu Ching-yang
 Mass Movement: Tao Hsing-chih
 (deceased)
 Overseas Affairs: Cheng Chen-wen
 Domestic Relations: Liang Shu-ming
 Foreign Relations: Carsun Chang

In 1946 the Nationalist Socialist group was renamed the Democratic Socialist party, after its merger with the Democratic Constitutional party. Shortly afterwards, it decided to take part in the National Assembly convened by the National Government. This resulted in its expulsion from the Democratic League.

THE DEMOCRATIC LEAGUE OUTLAWED

As the League's collusion with the Chinese Communist party became more obvious, the National Government outlawed it on October 27, 1947. The withdrawal of the Young China party in 1944, as a result of communist intrigue, had already placed communist sympathizers in a dominant position in the League. After the expulsion of the Democratic Socialists, control of the League passed completely into the hands of fellow travellers and incognito communists.

During and after the Political Consultation Conference held in Chungking in January, 1946, the Democratic League sided with the Chinese Communist party practically on all issues. When the National Assembly was in session in November - December, 1946, it joined the

communists in boycotting the assembly, and later refused to recognize the constitution adopted by the assembly. By then, its participation in the communist rebellion, both in words and in action, became common knowledge. After the government's promulgation of the "General Mobilization Order" for the suppression of the Communist Rebellion in July, 1947, it did its best to assist the communists in sabotaging the "General Mobilization Order."

Members of the League worked in communist areas, collaborated with the communists in inciting labor trouble and student unrest, sabotaged the General Mobilization Order, and participated in an anti-American movement.

After the ban, Chang Lan, chairman of the Democratic League, announced that his organization would discontinue all activities in accordance with the Government's order. Many of its important members, however, soon left for Hongkong where they resumed anti-government activities under the leadership of Shen Chun-ju who, meanwhile, became the League's acting chairman.

THE YOUNG CHINA PARTY

EARLY HISTORY

The Young China party was founded in Paris on December 2, 1923. Among the founders were Tseng Chi, Li Huang, Ho Lu-chih, Chang Tze-chu, and Cheng Chen-wen. In March, 1924, Tseng Chi was elected chairman of the party.

Most of its leaders returned to China in 1924 and published in Shanghai the *Awakening Lion Weekly* as their official organ. Tso Shun-sheng, Chen Chi-tien, Yu Chia-chu and others of the former Young China Society then joined forces with those who had recently returned from Paris. The party's principles then were "to promote nationalism and to oppose warlords, the Communist party, and the pro-Russian policy of the Kuomintang, for the purpose of building up a free, independent and prosperous China."

The Young China party held its First National Congress in Peiping (then Peking) in July, 1926. At that time its stand was against the use of force in the unification of the nation. Following the "Mukden Incident" of 1931, some of its members were engaged in guerilla warfare against the Japanese. In the 1932 war in Shanghai, General Wong Chao-yuan, a member of the Young China party, distinguished himself as a gallant defender of Woosung Fort.

In 1932, the National Government convened a National Crisis Conference. Among those invited to participate were nine leaders of the Young China party who refused to attend. They insisted that the Kuomintang forthwith conclude its party rule. Their demand, chorused by other minority parties, was the immediate formation of a "National Defense Government."

WARTIME ACTIVITIES

Immediately after the outbreak of the war in July, 1937, the National Government invited leaders of the various political parties and groups, as well as independents, to Kuling for conversations on current problems. A number of Young China party leaders including Tseng Chi, Tso Shun-sheng, and Li Huang participated. As a result a "National Defense Council" was formed, and Tseng, Tso and Li were among those appointed to the council.

In April, 1938, the Kuomintang Extraordinary National Congress had adopted the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*. The Young China party, through its representative, Tso, exchanged letters with Generalissimo Chiang, *Tsungtsai* of the Kuomintang, pledging support to the national war effort. Mr. Tso said in his letter that "since the National Government is the highest authority of the country by which the war is being carried on, we are determined to support it. . . . We have no other wish but to cooperate with the Kuomintang for the preservation of the nation." The Generalissimo, in reply, pointed out the Kuomintang's need for the cooperation of others, and said, in part: "The common expectation throughout the country today is the expulsion of the Japanese invader and the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles. In view of the seriousness of the duties laid upon the Kuomintang, we are anxious to seek the cooperation of all men of ability. If your aim coincides with ours, we shall surely be able to work in unison for the welfare of the nation."

In July, the same year, when the "People's Political Council" was established, six leaders of the Young China party were chosen as members. They were: Tseng Chi, Li Huang, Tso Shun-sheng, Chen Chi-tien, Yu Chia-chu, and Chang Nai-teh. Seventeen other Young China party members were later chosen members of the People's Political Council. In July, 1945, Tso went to Yenan with four other members of the People's Political

Council in an effort to get the communists to cooperate with the National Government. The mission, like several others, failed.

POST-WAR PERIOD

In January, 1946, the National Government convened a Political Consultation Conference, which was attended by all parties and independents, including the communists. A number of resolutions was adopted concerning the convocation of the National Assembly, the establishment of constitutional government, the revision of the draft constitution, and the Government-Communist dispute. The Young China party was represented by Tseng Chi, Chen Chi-tien, Yu Chia-chu, Yang Yung-chun, and Chang Nai-teh.

The communists participated in the conference, but refused to abide by its resolutions. No agreement was reached in the subsequent protracted negotiations between the government and the Chinese Communists.

The Young China party sent 100 delegates to the National Assembly held in Nanking in November-December, 1946. By this time, the communists and the Democratic League had definitely decided not to cooperate with the Government. The Young China party and the Democratic Socialist party and the independents continued negotiations with the Government for the formation of an interim government.

In March, 1947, thirteen members of the Young China party were appointed members of the Legislative Yuan, and six, as members of the Control Yuan. On April 17, 1947, Tseng Chi, together with representative of the Kuomintang and the Democratic Socialist party as well as independents signed an agreement for the reorganization of the Government. Tseng Chi, Yu Chia-chu, Ho Lu-chih and Chang Nai-teh (deceased) were later chosen State Councillors of the National Government. Four members of the Young China party were included in the new cabinet, namely, Chen Chi-tien, minister of economic affairs; Tso Shun-sheng, minister of agriculture and forestry; Yang Yung-chun and Cheng Chen-wen, ministers without portfolio.

The coalition government lasted until June, 1948, when it was succeeded by a new cabinet formed upon the conclusion of the First National Assembly, which met in March-April, 1948. In the new government, members of the Young China party are taking part not only in the Executive Yuan, the Legislative Yuan and

the Control Yuan (the last two being electiv bodies) in the National Government, but in local administrations as well.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION

Organization of the Young China party, although on a smaller scale, is similar to that of the Kuomintang. Highest organ of authority is the National Congress, under which are the Central Executive and Supervisory Committees, followed by the provincial and *hsien* organs. In central headquarters, there are a secretariat and a number of boards and committees.

The Party's Central Executive Committee has 99 members and its Central Supervisory Committee 21 members. The C.E.C. elects a 19-men Standing Committee from among its own members. The Standing Committee of the C.S.C. has five members.

Standing Committee of the Young China Party C.E.C., 1948

Chairman: Tseng Chi

Members:

Tseng Chi
Cheng Chen-wen
Wang Ssu-tseng
Li Huang
Chen Chi-tien
Ho Lu-chih
Liu Tung-yen
Hsia Tao-sheng
Tso Shun-sheng
Yu Chia-chu
Yu Fu-hsien
Yang Yung-chun
Lin Ko-chi
Tan Shen-hsiu
Yu Hsiao-chuan
Liu Ssu-ying
Liu Ching-yuan
Chang Tze-chu
Wang Lai-seng

Secretary-General: Yu Fu-hsien

Board Directors:

Internal Affairs: Tan Sheng-hsiu

External Affairs: Li Huang

Organization: Hsia Tao-sheng

Publicity: Wang Ssu-tseng

Training: Yu Chia-chu

Social Movement: Wang Lai-seng

Committee Chairmen:

Women's Movement: Yu Hsiao-chuan

Financial Affairs: Cheng Chen-wen

Cultural Movement: Chou Chien-chung

Technical on Political Affairs: Chang Po-lun

Technical on Economic Affairs: Liu Ssu-ying

Standing Committee of the C.S.C., 1948

Chairman: Li Pu-wei

Vice-Chairman: Chang Meng-chiu

Members: Chang Hua-chu

Ching Cheng-lich

Hsiao Li-yun

THE DEMOCRATIC SOCIALIST PARTY

A BRIEF HISTORY

The Democratic Socialist party resulted from amalgamation of the National Socialist party and Democratic Constitutional party in August, 1946. It advocates, as its name indicates, democracy and socialism.

One of its parents, the National Socialist party, was established in 1934 and held its first national congress in Peiping that year. The leaders then included Carsun Chang, Chang Tung-sun, Hu Shih-ching, Lo Lung-chi, Hsu Fu-lin, and Liang Chiu-shui.

National socialism was first advocated by Chang Tung-sun in *The China Times*, a Chinese daily in Shanghai, in 1920. In 1931, Chang Tung-sun joined Carsun Chang and Lo Lung-chi in forming the "Rebirth Society" in Peiping and published *The Rebirth Magazine*. The two Changs and Lo were all university professors in Peiping. Most members of the Rebirth Society were students and teachers.

Between 1934 and 1937, membership of the party increased considerably. Carsun Chang as leader of the party frequently expressed the party's views on current events in various newspapers and periodicals in Peiping and Shanghai.

The party's relations with the Kuomintang were generally similar to those of the Young China party. Like the Young China party, the National Socialist party exchanged letters with the Kuomintang shortly after the outbreak of the war to pledge support to the national war effort. On behalf of the National Socialist party, Carsun Chang wrote to Generalissimo Chiang explaining in detail the similarities between the program of the National Socialist party and the *Three People's Principles* of Dr. Sun Yat-sen. He stated that "at the present critical moment nothing is more important than wholehearted and unreserved support for the National Government," and that he and his colleagues were ready to discuss all questions with the Kuomintang in a spirit of cordial cooperation.

In reply, the Generalissimo said, in part, "I hope men of ability will either join the Kuomintang or sympathize with the Kuomintang principles and endeavor to have them realized. As to the freedom of speech, the freedom of press, and the freedom of assembly, these are clearly defined in the *Program of Armed Resistance and National Reconstruction*. This guarantee shall serve as the rallying point both for the members of the Kuomintang and for non-members in their efforts to achieve national salvation."

Seven members of the National Socialist party were invited to take part in the First People's Political Council, formed in 1938. They included Carsun Chang, Chang Tung-sun, and Lo Lung-chi. The party was also represented in the Political Consultation Conference in 1946, and participated in the two national assemblies of 1946 and 1948.

The Democratic Constitutional party, the second of the Democratic Socialist party's parent bodies, was an offshoot of the Chinese Constitutional (monarchists) party in America, led by Li Ta-ming. When Carsun Chang went to San Francisco as a member of the Chinese delegation to the United Nations conference in 1945, he met Li and began negotiations for the merger of the two parties which was effected in 1946.

Carsun Chang represented the Democratic Socialist party in signing the agreement for the organization of the interim government in April. Hsu Fu-lin, Wu Hsien-tze, Chi Yi-chiao, and Hu Hai-men of the party were chosen state councillors of the National Government, and Li Ta-ming and Chiang Yun-tien were appointed minister without portfolio. Hsu Fu-lin ran in the 1948 vice-presidential elections. In the new government formed in May, 1948, members of the Democratic Socialist party participated in all branches of the administration. One of them Shih Chih-chuan, was made vice-president of the Judicial Yuan.

Leaders of the Democratic Socialist party were divided in their opinions on the participation in the government. Some of them, including Wu Hsien-tze, Liang Chiu-shui, Chang Tung-sun and Li Ta-ming, were opposed to Carsun Chang's decision to join the government. They formed a reform committee of the Democratic Socialist party in August, 1947. As a result, a number of them were expelled from the party. In October, 1948, the reform committee announced the formation of the so-called Liberal Socialist party.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION

The Democratic Socialist party has a central headquarters and provincial and *hsien* branches. The supreme organ of authority is the Party National Congress, under which are the Central Executive and Supervisory committees.

Standing Committee of the Democratic Socialist Party C.E.C., 1948

Carsun Chang (Chairman)

Carsun Chang (Chairman)

Hu Hai-men

Chiang Yun-tien

Chin Lung-chang

Hsiang Kou-fu

Shih Chih-chuan

Hsu Fu-lin

Tang Chu-hsin

Feng Chin-po

Sun Ya-fu

Li Sheng-tse

Chi Yi-chiao

Chang Ling-kao

Yang Yu-tze

Tsui Hsin-yi

Lo Ching-hsuan

Secretary-General: Chin Hou-cheng

Deputy Secretaries—General: Yang Yu-tze, Sun Ya-fu

Board Directors

Organization: Chi Yi-chiao

Deputies: Cheng Chi-chih, Wang Shih-hsien

Publicity: Hsu Fu-lin

Deputies: Chiang Yun-tien, Tsui Hsin-yi

Social Affairs: Wu Cheng

Deputies: Chen Shu-kun, Li Chih-sheng

Overseas Affairs: Yang Chun-ming (acting)

Deputies: Yang Chun-ming, Cheng Tien-shih

Women's: Lo Ching-hsuan

Deputy: Chen Ting-hsiu

Representative in Nanking: Chiang Yun-tien

Spokesman: Tsui Hsin-yi

OTHER PARTIES AND GROUPS

THE THIRD PARTY

The "Third Party" was formed in 1927 after the split between the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist party. Its leaders were opposed to both parties. The founder of the party was Teng Yen-ta. Its original name was the "Chinese Revolutionary party," renamed the "Extraordi-

nary Action Committee of the Kuomintang" in 1930. Soon there was a split within the party between Hsu Chien in north China and Chang Po-chun in the south. The two groups met in Hongkong in 1935, and the party's name was changed to the "Chinese National Liberation Action Committee," which remains its official title.

Immediately after the outbreak of the war in 1937, the Third Party pledged itself to support the National Government. Chang Po-chun later became a member of the first and the fourth People's Political Council, and took part in the Political Consultation Conference in 1946.

THE NATIONAL SALVATION ASSOCIATION

The "National Salvation Association" was formed in Shanghai in 1936. Among its founders were Shen Chun-ju, Tsou Tao-fen, (deceased), Chang Shen-fu, Wang Chao-shih, Chang Nai-chi, Li Kung-pu (deceased), Shih Liang (Miss), and Sha Chien-li.

Activities were greatly extended in December, 1936, when Japanese aggression intensified in north China. It organized students' demonstrations and initiated appeals to the Government in favor of war with Japan. Meanwhile, it set up cells among students, in women's organizations, cultural groups and business associations. Finally a "Federation of National Salvation Associations" was established.

After the outbreak of the war in 1937, the association was reorganized into the "United Anti-Japan and National Salvation Association." Its leaders played an important part in leading the Democratic League down the communist line.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The "National Association of Vocational Education" was formed in Shanghai

in 1927. Among its leaders were Huang Yen-pei, Yang Wei-yu, and Chiang Heng-yuan. It remained purely as an academic society until 1931, when, because of the Japanese invasion of the northeast, it added "national salvation" to its working program.

Association headquarters are in Shanghai and branches in various parts of the country. Members are mostly educators and industrialists.

In 1945, Huang organized the "Democratic National Reconstruction Association" with "economic democratization" as its political creed, advocating the development of private enterprises. Members of the Standing Committee of its Board of Executives are: Huang Yen-pei, Hu Chueh-wen, Chang Nai-chi, Chien Yung-ming, C. C. Lee, Ssu Fu-liang, Yang Wei-yu, Huang Mo-han, Hu Tze-ying, Y. S. Djang, and Sun Meng-chi.

THE RURAL RECONSTRUCTION GROUP

This group originally consisted of the "Shantung Institute of Rural Reconstruction," the "National Association for the Advancement of Mass Education," the "Hsukungchiao Experimental Station of the National Association of Vocational Education" and other organizations of rural reconstruction and reform. In 1931, the "National Association for Rural Reconstruction" was inaugurated. Among the leaders were Liang Shu-ming, James Y. C. Yen, Y. S. Djang, and Cato Yang.

In 1941, when the "Federation of Democratic Parties and Associations" was formed in Hongkong, Liang Shu-ming took part as a representative of the "Rural Reconstruction Group," and later attended the Political Consultation Conference in 1946.

CHAPTER 11

THE COMMUNIST ISSUE

EARLY KUOMINTANG-COMMUNIST RELATIONS

The Kuomintang's relations with the Chinese Communist party have been long and ruinous. In December, 1922, A. Joffe, the Soviet Union's special envoy to China, met Dr. Sun Yat-sen in Shanghai. The following January, they issued a joint statement, which reads in part as follows:

"Dr. Sun Yat-sen holds that the communistic order or even the soviet system cannot actually be introduced into China, because there do not exist here the conditions for the successful establishment of either communism or sovietism. This view is entirely shared by Mr. Joffe, who is further of the opinion that China's paramount and most pressing problem is to achieve national unification and attain full national independence, and regarding this task, he has assured Dr. Sun that China has the warmest sympathy of the Russian people and can count on the support of Russia."

In January, 1924, following the reorganization of the Kuomintang, an understanding was reached whereby individual Chinese Communists were allowed to join the Kuomintang "in order to bolster the strength of revolutionary elements in the country." Li Ta-chao, then an important member in the Chinese Communist party declared: "In joining the Kuomintang, communists of the Third International are to obey Kuomintang discipline and to participate in the national revolution. They have not the slightest intention of turning the Kuomintang into a Communist party. Those communists who join the Kuomintang do so as individuals and not on a party basis."

Soon after they were admitted, however, the communists began to work against the Three People's Principles. At first, they were opposed to the Northern Expedition. After it had been launched, they infiltrated into political and military organs, spread their surreptitious activities and tried to establish control over the

masses. Early in 1927, after the nationalists had reached the Yangtze river, important communists sabotaged the expedition by creating a reign of terror in Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi behind the nationalist lines.

In order to salvage the expedition, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek and other Kuomintang leaders left for Nanking. In April, 1927, Nanking was declared the national capital of China. Simultaneously, an anti-Communist purge was effected within the Kuomintang.

In July, the same year, the communists adopted a program of armed insurrection. From then on, for a period of about eight years, the communists maintained a separate army and an independent government over parts of several central China provinces with their "capital" in Juikin, southern Kiangsi. This was done in deliberate defiance of the National Government at Nanking. Finding it impossible to countenance such acts of insubordination, the government resorted to military measures. Numerous campaigns were launched. By early 1935, as a government ring began to tighten around Juikin, the communists fled westward across many provinces, until they finally reached northern Shensi.

The increasing Japanese menace after the invasion of the Northeastern provinces (Manchuria) in 1931, and the realization of the futility of further armed opposition to the National Government made the communists see the necessity of reconciliation with the Kuomintang. In May, 1936, they appealed to the National Government that the punitive campaign against communist forces be discontinued in order that they could join hands against Japanese aggression. Three months later, they repeated their appeal to the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang and sent delegates to conduct negotiations with Kuomintang leaders.

At the Third Plenary Session of its Fifth Central Executive Committee held in Nanking in February, 1937, the

Kuomintang discussed concrete proposals of the Chinese Communist party and resolved that a reconciliation could be effected only on the following four conditions, which were subsequently accepted by the communists:

(1) Abolition of the communist army and its incorporation into the united command of the nation's armed forces.

(2) Dissolution of the "Chinese Soviet Republic" and similar organizations and unification of government power in the hands of the National Government.

(3) Absolute cessation of communist propaganda and acceptance of the Three People's Principles.

(4) Stoppage of class struggle.

In July, 1937, Japan launched her premeditated attack on north China. China rose in self-defense. Accepting these conditions, the communist troops were first reorganized into the Eighth Route Army and later into the 18th Group Army, with Chu Teh and Peng Teh-huai as commander and deputy-commander. The Chinese Communist party's declaration to the nation on September 22, 1937, contained the following important points:

(1) In order to safeguard the independence and freedom of the Chinese nation, a war of resistance shall be proclaimed. Only as the result of such a war can the lost provinces be restored and the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the country be maintained.

(2) The Communist party is prepared to fight for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles because they answer the present-day needs of China.

(3) The policy of insurrection which aims at the overthrow of the Kuomintang political power, the policy of land confiscation, and the policy of communist propaganda shall be discontinued.

(4) With the disappearance of the "Chinese Soviet Government," a system of political democracy shall be put into practice, so that the country may be politically unified.

(5) The former Chinese Red Army which has been reorganized into the Eighth Route Army shall be under the control of the National Military Council, and always ready to be sent to the front.

Commenting on this declaration, Generalissimo Chiang in a press interview on September 23, 1937, said: "The declaration made by the Chinese Communist party clearly shows that national interests supersede all other considerations. The points contained in it tend to strengthen the National Government in its resistance to foreign invasion. The reference made

by the Communist party to its readiness to fight for the realization of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary principles further shows that the efforts of the entire nation are directed to one single aim."

COMMUNIST PLEDGES

Despite its pledges to support the National Government, the Chinese Communist party persisted in insubordination and refused to carry out military and administrative orders of the government. The 18th Group Army caused numerous disturbances in the northern provinces. Meanwhile, the New Fourth Army, formed of remnants of communist troops south of the Yangtze after the fall of Nanking in December, 1937, was expanding at the expense of the national forces.

During the early stage of the Sino-Japanese War, the government took the communist pledges at their face value, and respected their avowed intention of fighting shoulder to shoulder with the national forces against the Japanese invaders. It treated communist units on an equal basis with other units fighting the Japanese, and a considerable amount of arms, munitions, equipment and other supplies were given to them. But subsequent events proved that the communists had sinister designs of their own.

Shortly after their incorporation into the national forces, Chu Teh was ordered to move his men westward into Shansi to augment the forces under General Yen Hsi-shan. Communist units under Ho Lung were deployed in the Wutai mountains in north Shansi, those under Liu Po-cheng, in the Tayueh mountains in central Shansi and those under Lin Piao, in the Luliang mountains in the western part of the province. They were to harass the enemy's rear so that General Yen's forces could fight pitched battles against the Japanese coming down the Tatung-Puchow railway.

Instead of carrying out these orders, the communists were soon found attacking national forces in areas unpenetrated by the enemy. In 1939, when General Yen was training a new army in southeast Shansi preparatory to a counterattack, communist elements infiltrated into the new army and instigated a revolt against Yen, who was consequently compelled to retreat to Lingchuan and Linhsien on the Shansi-Honan border. By the time the battles of the Chungtiao mountains were fought in 1940, the communists under Ho Lung and Lin Piao had pushed so far down into the Tayueh mountains that national forces had to withdraw from

Shansi into Honan across the Yellow river in order to escape total annihilation.

At the end of a three-year-long battle for Shansi, national forces had lost the Chengting-Taiyuan railway, and the Ta-tung-Puchow railway and their adjacent areas to the enemy, and every district not occupied by the enemy to the communists. The fact was then established that if the communists were not in collusion with the Japanese, at least their operations were well coordinated with the Japanese movements.

Encouraged by their initial successes in Shansi, communist forces started in 1939 to penetrate into the neighboring province of Hopei, where General Chang Ying-wu's militiamen had held the Japanese at bay along the railway lines for almost two years since the withdrawal of national forces. At one time or another they were so successful that they even brought the war to the Japanese in Paoting, capital of the Hopei province. Their very gallantry had aroused the jealousy of the communists, and Chang's militia forces of 300,000 men were forced to wage a two-way battle against the Japanese and the communists at the same time. In less than two years of uphill fight, this tremendous force was reduced to nothing and Chang himself was compelled to flee from the province.

The communists under Hsu Hsiang-chien, seeing that the countryside of Shansi and Hopei was firmly in their grasp, began in 1940 their attacks on the national forces in Shantung. General Yu Hsueh-chung's mobile units, scattered over all the hilly regions in the coastal province, already hard-pressed by the Japanese, found it exceedingly difficult to resist communist encroachment. In 1941, when the Japanese started a general offensive against Yu, communists took advantage of the situation to oust Yu from the province and absorb his forces. In the Battle of Anchiu in 1941, General Chin Chi-jung, director of the field headquarters of the Shantung provincial government, was captured and tortured to death by the communists.

While the communists were stretching their tentacles in north China, the New Fourth Army in the lower Yangtze valley provinces, attacked friendly national forces and sought to enlarge the size of their army. When first organized in January, 1940, it had only 5,000 men. By the middle of the year, its ranks had already swollen to 13,000 men. In November, it attacked in rapid succession the government 40th Division in south Kiangsu, and part of the government 32nd Army Corps

in south Anhwei. To uphold discipline, General Ku Chu-tung, commander-in-chief of the third war zone, in January, 1941, ordered its disbandment, resulting in the capture of its commander, Yeh Ting. Part of the communists under Yeh's command fled to north Kiangsu. There, in defiance of the government order, they reorganized themselves into a new army with Chen Yi as their commander.

In 1943, when the national forces were battling powerful Japanese contingents in west Honan, communists under Li Hsien-nien swooped down from Shantung and others under Wang Chen drove from Shensi, making their way through heavily-guarded government areas to the Tahung and the Tapiieh mountains, thereby giving aid and comfort to the enemy. When victory finally came, the communists on the Honan-Hupeh border were still expanding.

According to official estimates, communist forces of 25,000 at the time of their incorporation into the National Army were increased at the end of the war to 310,000. The 18th Army Group had originally two divisions totalling 20,000 men; by V-J Day its ranks were already increased to nine divisions, one army, one column and seven independent brigades, totalling 190,000 men. The disbanded New Fourth Army claimed 120,000 officers and men at the end of the war, approximately 24 times its strength when it started out in 1937.

The "Chinese Soviet Government," which the communists promised to dissolve in their 1937 declaration, reappeared under other names. In the northwest, there appeared the so-called "Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Government" and the "Shansi-Chahar-Hopei Border Government," both set up by the communists without any authorization from the National Government. In these regions, the communists not only circulated their own currencies, collected taxes and appointed local officials, but also indoctrinated the masses in communism.

Throughout these harassing years, Generalissimo Chiang adhered to a tolerant policy. In November, 1942, he asserted that the communists would be treated like all other armed forces and civilians of the nation so long as they obey laws, refrain from disturbing social order, organize no army of their own, cease occupation by force, abstain from hindering the prosecution of the war, or undermining national unity; and, in accordance with their manifesto of September 22, 1937, in which they had expressed their readiness to face the national crisis in

cooperation with the rest of the country, obey the orders of the National Government and work for the realization of the Three People's Principles.

Trying to seek a political settlement of the communist question, negotiations between the National Government and the Chinese Communist party began on May 4, 1944 at Sian. The government representatives were Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, then minister of information, and General Chang Chih-chung, then minister of political training of the National Military Council. The Chinese Communist party was represented by Lin Tsu-han. The Sian talks lasted for 10 days. Finally the communist demands, as made by Lin, were put down in writing and forwarded to the government for consideration. The important points in these demands were:

In regard to military matters, the communist troops agreed to obey government orders. They, however, wanted the government to recognize them as 12 divisions instead of their original three, and to give them similar treatment as other units in the National Army in regard to pay and supplies. There shall be no change of officers in the communist forces. Nor did they want to be transferred from their present locale; instead they asked to be allowed to fight the enemy in their original areas.

Politically they wanted the government to give legal recognition to the Shensi border area and to endow it with a higher degree of autonomy. On its part the "border area government" would observe within its area all laws and regulations of the National Government. It also would agree to register with the government the regulations specially adapted to local conditions, to stop printing or circulating border area banknotes, leaving to the Ministry of Finance the responsibility of finding a solution for the notes already in circulation. Besides, the communists wanted the "government blockade" of the border area discontinued. They also wanted the government to grant the Chinese Communist party a legal status.

These proposals were brought to Chungking by the representatives of both parties. On June 5, 1944, the government's reply, in which most of the communist demands were accepted, was handed to the communist representative. The government was willing to recognize 10 communist divisions. Later President Chiang stated in his report to the People's Political Council which met in September, that the government was willing even to consider the communist demand for 13 divisions.

Meanwhile, Lin Tsu-han reported that on June 4, he had new instructions from Yen-an demanding 16 divisions, and also asking the government to accord legal recognition to the communist "north China bases." Later, they wanted the government to recognize their "north China, central China and south China bases."

In early November of the same year, Major-General Patrick Hurley came to China as President Roosevelt's special envoy and offered his good offices in the negotiations. He flew to Yen-an upon the invitation of the communists. There he had long talks with Mao Tse-tung. Finally he brought back a draft agreement signed by Mao himself. The major demands in the new communist proposal were the organization of a "coalition government" and of a "United National Military Council," and the recognition of the legality of the Chinese Communist party.

General Chou En-Lai had replaced Lin Tsu-han as the communist representative and had flown to Chungking with General Hurley. The National Government, in reply, rejected the coalition government offer, but consented to the incorporation of the Chinese Communist forces in the National Army and the inclusion of communist members in the National Military Council. It further agreed to pursue policies designed to promote the progress and development of democratic processes in government.

Chou flew back to Yen-an. From there he wired, accusing the government of insincerity, adding that it would not be possible for the Chinese Communist party to accept the government's counter-proposals. General Hurley, who had by then become the American Ambassador to China, sent several telegrams to Chou urging him to return to Chungking to continue the negotiations. Chou answered that four prerequisites, implying malpractices without foundation in fact, must be fulfilled before he would come. They were: (1) lifting the blockade of the border area, (2) release of political prisoners, (3) abolishing of laws curtailing the people's freedoms, and (4) abolishing of secret police.

The government considered the four conditions not in agreement with the facts. Out of its desire to create interparty harmony, the government offered to give the communists representation in the war cabinet within the framework of the Executive Yuan, to establish a three-man committee to consider all matters concerning the reorganization and treatment of communist troops and to appoint an

American officer to command the communist troops during the war. The communists refused to accept the new proposals on the grounds that the Executive Yuan had no power to make final decisions. At this juncture, they came forth with a new proposal for the convocation of a "conference of parties" to discuss a joint program.

No progress in the negotiations was made in the ensuing months. The Communist party still maintained contact with the government and kept on making new demands. When the Chinese Delegation to the San Francisco Conference was appointed, the government included Tung Pi-wu, communist member of the People's Political Council, as a member of the delegation.

SUMMARY OF TALKS

During the last days of the Sino-Japanese War, the National Government felt more than ever the need for national unity and Government-Communist rapprochement in order to achieve speedy postwar reconstruction and rehabilitation. There was a necessity for speeding up the Government-Communist talks. Three invitations were extended by President Chiang Kai-shek to Mao Tse-tung to come to Chungking for direct negotiations. Accompanied by U. S. Ambassador Patrick J. Hurley, Mao arrived in Chungking on August 28, 1945, and stayed for about one month during which he had several talks with President Chiang. Meanwhile, conversations went on between Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Shao Li-tze, General Chang Chun and General Chang Chih-chung on behalf of the government; and General Chou En-lai and Wang Jo-fei on behalf of the communists.

A summary of the talks published by the government on October 10, 1945, reporting the conversations between the government and the communists, reaffirmed the government's program. It stated in substance:

1. *Basic policy on peaceful national reconstruction.*—It was agreed that under the leadership of President Chiang, co-operation should be made permanent and resolute measures be taken to avert internal strife so that a new China, independent, free and prosperous, might be built and the Three People's Principles fully implemented. Both parties further agreed that political democratization, nationalization of troops and recognition of the equal status of the political parties were essential to the achievement of peaceful national reconstruction.

2. *On political democratization.*—It was agreed that the period of political tutelage should be brought to an early conclusion, that constitutional government should be inaugurated and that necessary preliminary measures should be immediately adopted, such as the convocation of the National Assembly and a Political Consultation Conference, to which all parties and non-partisan leaders would be invited, to exchange views on national affairs and discuss questions relating to peaceful national reconstruction and the convocation of the National Assembly.

3. *On the National Assembly.*—Three proposals were advanced by the Chinese Communist party, namely, re-election of all delegates to the National Assembly, postponement of the date of convocation and revision of the May 5 Draft Constitution. The government representatives maintained that the election of the delegates to the National Assembly already held should be valid, but that the number of delegates may be reasonably increased. As regards the May 5 Draft Constitution, the government representatives reminded the communists that the draft constitution had already been submitted to the public for study, and suggestions for its revision were invited. No agreement was reached on those points. But the communist representatives made it known that they did not wish to permit national unity to be ruptured by the differences. Both parties agreed that the points concerned should be brought before the proposed Political Consultation Conference for settlement.

4. *On the people's freedoms.*—It was agreed that the government was to guarantee the freedoms of person, religion, speech, publications and assembly. Existing laws and decrees should be either abolished or revised in accordance with this principle.

5. *On the legality of political parties.*—Both parties agreed that all political parties should be equal before the law and the fact should be given immediate recognition.

6. *On the special service agencies.*—Both parties agreed that the government should strictly prohibit all officers other than law courts and police to make arrests, conduct trials and impose punishment.

7. *On release of political prisoners.*—Both parties agreed that all political prisoners with the exception of those guilty of treason should be released. The Chinese Communist party may submit a list of people who they thought should be released.

8. *On local self-government.*—Both sides agreed that local self-government should be vigorously promoted. General elections should be conducted from the lower levels upward. However, the government expressed the hope that this would not affect the convocation of the National Assembly.

9. *On the nationalization of troops.*—It was proposed by the communists that the government should effect an equitable and rational reorganization of the entire Chinese Army; decide on the program and different stages of recognition; redemarcate the military zones; and inaugurate a conscription and replenishment system with a view to unifying military command. Under this program, the Chinese Communists finally expressed their readiness to reduce the troops under their command to 24 divisions or to a minimum of 20 divisions. The government representatives stated that the national troops reorganization program was being carried out, and the government was willing to reorganize the communist-led anti-Japanese troops into 20 divisions, if other issues coming up in the present talks could be satisfactorily settled.

The government also indicated that it was ready to consider proposals made by the communists that their military personnel should participate in the National Military Council and the various ministries under the council, and that the government would respect the personnel system of the army units and commission the original officers after the reorganization of the units.

In order to formulate concrete plans in regard to questions concerning the reorganization of the National and Communist Armies, it was agreed that a subcommittee of three, with one representative each from the Board of Military Operations of the National Military Council, the Ministry of War and the 18th Group Army, be formed.

10. *On local governments in the "liberated areas."*—The communist representatives proposed that the government should recognize the popularly elected government in the "liberated areas." The government representatives pointed out that after the unconditional surrender of Japan the term "liberated areas" became obsolete and the integrity of the administrative authority of the country should be respected.

The initial formula advanced by the communists was to redemarcate the provincial and administrative areas according to the conditions then prevailed in the 18 liberated areas. And to preserve

administrative integrity, the Communist party would submit to the government a list of officials of the popularly elected governments for reappointment.

The government replied that the redemarcation of provincial boundaries would involve changes of unusual magnitude, and the question should be very carefully and thoroughly considered and could not be resolved in a short time. Furthermore, the government indicated that after the unification of the military command and administrative authority, the National Government would take into consideration administrative personnel nominated by the Communist party. The government would consider retaining the services of those functionaries who had served in the recovered areas during the war on the basis of their ability and record without regard to party affiliations.

After lengthy discussions on the topic, the communist representatives proposed the formula that all liberated areas temporarily retain their *status quo* until the constitutional provision for the popular election of provincial government officials had been adopted and put into effect. For the time being, an interim arrangement was to be worked out to guarantee the restoration of peace and order.

Finally, both parties agreed that this particular problem be submitted to the Political Consultation Conference for discussion and settlement.

11. *On traitors and puppet troops.*—Both parties agreed in principle that traitors should be severely punished and puppet troops disbanded. The government representatives advanced the opinion that traitors should be dealt with according to law and the disbandment of puppet troops should be carried out in such a manner that peace and order in the areas concerned would not be disturbed.

12. *On accepting the surrender of Japanese army.*—The communist representatives asked that the communist troops be allowed to participate in the task of accepting the surrender of Japanese troops and that the areas of surrender should be redefined. The government representatives answered that the participation of the Communist party in accepting the surrender of Japanese troops could be considered after the troops of the Communist party had accepted the orders of the National Government.

While conversations were continuing in Chungking, communist troops indulged in aggressive activities in east and north China. Railways, surrendered by the Japanese to government troops, were cut by

the communists and *hsiens* occupied by them increased from 81 throughout the country when Japanese surrendered, to more than 300 in the middle of October, some of them from Japanese and puppet troops already surrendered to the government troops, and some seized from the National Army.

On October 26, government representatives made a three-point proposal to the communist representatives. The government demanded that firstly, railway communications should be restored; secondly, communist troops should evacuate railway zones and the *status quo* in the areas already under communist occupation should be maintained; and thirdly, General Yeh Chien-ying, representative of the 18th Group Army, should come to Chungking at the earliest possible time so that the Military Sub-Committee could commence discussion on the reorganization of the communist troops and their garrison areas.

The communist representatives transmitted this proposal to Yen-an and asked for instructions. On October 29, the communists made a counter-proposal: First, that in order to avoid a civil war and to restore communications, the movement of troops, all acts of attacking and occupying, and the employment of the services of the Japanese and puppet troops should cease and both sides should not station troops on the eight main railway lines, namely, the Peiping-Suiyuan, the Tatung-Puchow, the Chengting-Taiyuan, the northern section of the Peiping-Hankow, the eastern section of Lunghai, the Tientsin-Pukow, the Tsingtao-Tsinan, and the western section of the Peiping-Mukden railways. When it was necessary for the government to move troops on these railways to Tsingtao, Peiping and Tientsin, the communists should first be consulted: Secondly, the Military Sub-Committee should work out a solution only after an agreement on the above-mentioned problems had been reached in principle: Thirdly, if no understanding could be reached on these problems, the communists would not oppose the early convocation of the Political Consultation Conference, which should first of all discuss the question of avoiding civil war and restoring communications.

On October 31, the government gave the communists a reply, suggesting the following:

1. Both sides should order their troops to remain at their respective positions and cease offensive action.

2. Communist troops should evacuate the points ten kilometers distant from the

railways. The Central Government would dispatch railroad police units instead of troops to garrison the railway zones evacuated by the communists.

3. The People's Political Council organize and dispatch a communications supervision and inspection group to various railways in order to make investigations on the spot in conjunction with local inhabitants of known integrity and publish reports of their findings from time to time.

4. Government troops should consult with the communists when they had to be transported on the Peiping-Suiyuan, the Tatung-Puchow, the Chengting-Taiyuan, the Tsingtao-Tsinan, and the Lunghai railways and the northern section of the Tientsin-Pukow railway.

5. Both sides should consult each other and work out fundamental measures for the organization of communist troops and the delineation of the communist garrison areas within one month so as to facilitate peaceful national reconstruction.

6. The proposed Political Consultation Conference should be convoked as scheduled.

The government did not receive the communists' reply until November 3. The communist note, in fact, failed to touch upon any of the things the government had suggested. Instead, it raised four new demands:

1. The National Military Council should order national troops all over the country to cease attacks on the "liberated areas."

2. National troops should be completely withdrawn from their advance posts.

3. National troops should evacuate the eight railways.

4. The National Government should repeal the badit suppression order and guarantee that no further offensives would be launched against the "liberated areas."

The conversations thus reached an impasse.

On November 27, U. S. Ambassador Hurley resigned and General George C. Marshall was appointed as President Truman's special envoy to China. Following his arrival, conversations between the government and the communists were resumed and preparations for the convocation of the Political Consultation Conference accelerated.

POLITICAL CONSULTATION CONFERENCE

The Summary of Conversation between the government and representatives of the Chinese Communist party, published on October 10, 1945, reported the decision

of the conferees to convoke a Political Consultation Conference to which all parties and non-partisan leaders would be invited to exchange views on national affairs and discuss questions relating to peaceful national reconstruction and the convocation of the National Assembly.

On January 6, 1946, the National Government approved and promulgated the measures for the convocation of the Political Consultation Conference and released the names of its 38 members including eight from the Kuomintang, seven from the Chinese Communist party, 14 from other minority political parties and nine non-partisan leaders.

Delegates to the PPC were as follows:

Kuomintang.—Sun Fo, Wu Te-chen, Wang Shih-chieh, Chen Li-fu, Chang Li-sheng, Shao Li-tze, Chang Chun, Chen Pu-lei.

Chinese Communist Party.—Chou En-lai, Tung Pi-wu, Wang Jo-fei, Yeh Chien-ying, Wu Yu-chang, Lu Ting-yi and Miss Teng Ying-chao.

Young China Party.—Tseng Chi, Chen Chi-tien, Yang Yung-chun, Chang Nai-teh, Yu Chia-chu.

Chinese Democratic League.—Chang Lan, Lo Lung-chi, Carsun Chang, Chang Tung-sun.

National Salvation Association.—Shen Chun-ju, Chang Sheng-fu.

Vocational Education Association.—Huang Yen-pei.

The Third Party.—Chang Po-chun.

Rural Reconstruction Group.—Liang Shu-min.

Non-Partisans.—Mo Teh-hui, Shao Tsung-en, Wang Yung-wu, Fu Ssu-nien, Hu Lin, Kuo Mo-jo, Chien Yung-ming, Miao Chia-min, Li Chu-chen.

On January 10, the conference was formally opened in Chungking. Thirty-six delegates attended the opening session, the only absentee being Mo Teh-hui, who could not arrive from the northeast in time, and Carsun Chang, who was on his way back from abroad.

President Chiang Kai-shek presided over the inaugural session, and before making the opening address, expressed great pleasure at being able to announce measures for the cessation of hostilities in the country, and that the Cease-Fire Order would be immediately issued. The conference, originally scheduled to last two weeks, was prolonged for another week. It finally adjourned on January 31. In a spirit of mutual concession, the following resolutions were adopted at the PCC:

ON GOVERNMENT REORGANIZATION

1. The number of State Councillors would be increased to 40, and the presidents of the Executive, Legislative, Judicial, Examination and Control Yuan would be *ex-officio* members. They would be chosen by the President of the National Government. Half of the councillors would be chosen from among Kuomintang members, and the other half from among members of other political parties as well as prominent social leaders. The allocation would be discussed later.

2. The State Council would be the supreme organ of the government in charge of national affairs. The President of the National Government would have the authority to resubmit for second consideration any decision of the State Council which he deemed difficult of execution. In case three-fifths of the State Councillors, upon reconsideration, should vote to uphold the original decision, it would be carried out accordingly.

3. All ministers of the Executive Yuan would be *ipso facto* ministers of state. There would be three to five ministers of state without portfolios. Of the existing ministers under the Executive Yuan, and the proposed ministers of the state without portfolios, seven or eight would be appointed from among non-Kuomintang members. The number of ministries to be given to non-Kuomintang members would be discussed after the adjournment of the PCC.

ON THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

1. The National Assembly should be convened on May 5, 1946.

2. The authority of the first National Assembly should be to adopt a constitution.

3. The passage of the constitution should be made with the concurrence of three-fourths of the delegates present.

4. The 1,200 regional and vocational delegates, who had already been elected according to the electoral law of the National Assembly, should be retained.

5. An additional 150 regional and vocational delegates should be provided for Taiwan and the Northeastern provinces.

6. Seven hundred seats should be added to the National Assembly, these to be apportioned among the various parties and social leaders. The ratio of apportionment should be decided later.

7. The total number of delegates to the National Assembly should be 2,050.

8. The organ to enforce the constitution should be set up six months after the adoption of the constitution.

ON THE PROGRAM OF PEACEFUL NATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

1. The Three People's Principles should be the guiding policy for national reconstruction.

2. All forces of the nation should unite under the leadership of President Chiang Kai-shek to work for the construction of a united, free and democratic New China.

3. The principles of the democratization of the government and the nationalization of armed forces and the equality and legality of all political parties, as advocated by President Chiang, should be recognized as the indispensable courses through which peaceful national reconstruction should be achieved.

4. Political disputes should be settled through political means to ensure peaceful national development.

5. The people's freedom of person, thought, religion, speech, publication, assembly, residence, travel and communication should be safeguarded. Existing legislation that conflicts with the above principle should be revised or rescinded.

6. All administrative measures should fully respect the legitimate interests of people of all districts, classes and professions, and allow their equitable development. In order to increase administrative efficiency, various grades of the government machinery should be readjusted, a sound system of civil service should be established, the unity and independence of judicial power guaranteed, local self-rule intensively promoted, and the principle of power-equalization should apply in the demarcation of authority between the central and local governments.

ON MILITARY AFFAIRS

1. The Army belongs to the state, and the soldier's duty is the defense of the country and the protection of the people. Military education should be permanently placed above partisan and personal affiliations.

2. No party or individual may make use of the Army as an instrument for political disputes; no soldier on active service in the Army may serve concurrently as a civil official; and the Army should be strictly forbidden to interfere in political affairs.

3. Upon completion of the preliminary measures for the reorganization of the Army, the National Military Council should be reorganized into a Ministry of National Defense under the Executive Yuan. The Minister of National Defense should not necessarily be a soldier.

4. The country's fighting forces should be reorganized into 50 or 60 divisions.

ON THE DRAFT CONSTITUTION

1. A committee for reviewing the draft constitution should be established. It would have a total membership of 25 of whom five would be nominated by each of the five political parties participating in the PCC. In addition, 10 technical experts outside the PCC would be appointed to serve. The committee would draw up a comprehensive scheme for the revision of the 1936 May 5 Draft Constitution on the basis of the principles recommended by the PCC and taking into consideration the revised draft of the Constitutional Government Promotion Association, and the opinions advanced by various circles.

2. The National Assembly should be the organ through which the electorate of the entire nation exercises its rights of election, initiative, referendum and recall.

3. The Legislative Yuan should be the highest legislative organ of the nation and should be elected by universal suffrage. Its powers should correspond to those of the congress in a democratic country.

4. The Control Yuan should be the highest supervisory organ of the country, and should be elected by the various provincial and municipal councils. It should exercise the powers of concurrence, impeachment and supervision.

5. The Judicial Yuan should be the Supreme Court of the country. It should deal with judicial administration, and should be composed of a number of grand judges. Judges of all ranks and members of the Examination Yuan should be above party affiliations.

6. The president of the Executive Yuan should be nominated by the President and appointed with the concurrence of the Legislative Yuan. The Executive Yuan should be responsible to the Legislative Yuan.

7. When the Legislative Yuan expresses a lack of confidence in the Executive Yuan as a whole, the Executive Yuan should either resign or request the President to dissolve the Legislative Yuan. The same president of the Executive Yuan, however, would not be empowered to request the dissolution of the Legislative Yuan more than once.

8. The province should be regarded as the highest unit of local self-government, and the provincial governor should be elected by the people. The demarcation of authority between the province and the central government should be based on

the principle of power-equalization. While a province may formulate its own provincial constitution, it should not contravene the provisions of the National Constitution.

9. The power for the revision of the constitution should be vested in a joint conference of the Legislative Yuan and the Control Yuan. The proposed amendments should be ratified by the organ electing the President.

When the PCC was in session, General Chang Chih-chung, representing the government, and General Chou En-lai, communist representative, exchanged views with General Marshall on the reorganization of the Chinese Army. The trio formed the PCC's military sub-committee. Starting from February 24, they formally discussed the basis for the reorganization of the armed forces and the integration of the communist troops into the National Army in accordance with the principles laid down by the PCC. An agreement was reached with regard to the army reorganization, and it was signed on February 25, 1946. Under its provisions, the Chinese Army should consist of 108 divisions of 14,000 men each at the conclusion of a 12-month period. Of these, 18 would be formed of communist forces. Within the following six months, government troops would be further reduced to 50 divisions and the communist forces to 10 divisions bringing the total down to 60 divisions.

It was further prescribed in the agreement that within three weeks of the promulgation of the agreement, both contracting parties were to submit lists and documents giving data on the divisions to be retained and the order of units to be disbanded. After the signing of the agreement, General Marshall, Chang and Chou started on February 28 their inspection tour in north China and central China. They visited Peiping, Kalgan, Tsining, Tsinan, Hsuechow, Sinsiang, Taiyuan, Kweishui, Yen-an and Hankow. Their joint trip, which lasted six days, contributed substantially to the solution of many important problems concerning the cessation of hostilities, as well as the resumption of communications.

The three-man military sub-committee planned an inspection trip to the northeast, but the plan was dropped following the departure of General Marshall for the United States on March 13 to report on his duties. Before he left, the three-man military sub-committee met, and it was agreed to extend the scope of activities of the Executive Headquarters, established in Peiping early in January, to

enforce the cease-fire order and supervise the restoration of communications. Under this agreement the headquarters was given authorization to extend its activities into the northeast by sending field teams to northeast points to see that hostilities were actually halted.

In less than three months after his arrival in China as President Truman's special envoy, General Marshall had helped in writing a cease-fire agreement, in having the PCC resolutions adopted and in the conclusion of the Agreement on Military Reorganization.

But things in China took an abrupt turn during General Marshall's absence in Washington. First the communists accused the Kuomintang of scrapping the PCC resolutions, and the Agreement on Military Reorganization on the grounds that the Kuomintang's Central Executive Committee at its Second Plenary Session had discussed these resolutions and the agreement. Fighting in the northeast assumed serious proportions following repeated communist obstruction of the government's efforts to take over the northeast.

In point of fact, all agreements entered into by the Kuomintang were ratified by the Kuomintang's CEC. Where the Kuomintang, out of its earnest desire to abide by Dr. Sun Yat-sen's bequeathed teachings, found in the resolutions recommendations difficult to implement, it asked its members of the Draft Constitution Examination Committee to explain, on behalf of the party, the difficulties the Kuomintang had encountered and submit some revisions for deliberation. These included recommendations regarding the powers of the National Assembly, the relationship between the Legislative Yuan and the Executive Yuan, and the question of provincial constitutions. The Kuomintang had also made it clear that should the Draft Constitution Examination Committee decide, upon careful deliberation to stick to the original suggestions, it would respect its decisions and withdraw the proposed revisions.

At no point did the Kuomintang insist on the acceptance of its views. On the other hand, the communists, disregarding the Agreement on Military Reorganization, refused to submit data on their military forces. Furthermore, they were steadily expanding their armed forces, as was evidenced by the creation in the northeast of the "United Democratic Army," which they wanted the government to recognize.

THE NORTHEAST PROBLEM

Since the Japanese surrender, the Chinese Government had tried hard to restore Chinese sovereignty in the northeast. At first it intended to land troops in Dairen, but the Soviet Union disagreed. Later, the Soviets indicated that Chinese troops could land at Yingkow, but when the ships carrying national forces arrived at the port, units of the communist Eight Route Army were already there building defense works. To avoid hostilities, these ships withdrew. Then, the communists tried to prevent national forces from moving by train via Shanhaikwan. The latter had to fight their way through to the northeast.

There were no Chinese Communist forces in the northeast prior to August, 1945. During the intervening months between Japanese surrender and the Soviet evacuation in March, 1946, Chinese Communists moved into Manchuria in large numbers. They succeeded in seizing 150 districts, more than four-fifths of its total area. They came into possession of arms and ammunition previously taken away from the once powerful Japanese Kwantung Army by the Soviet occupation forces.

China went to war in 1937 to recover the northeast. In seeking to restore Chinese sovereignty there, the government did not act in contravention of the cease-fire order, which specifically stipulated: "The cessation of hostilities order does not prejudice the military movement of forces of the National Army into or within Manchuria, which are for the purpose of restoring Chinese sovereignty."

Following the Soviet evacuation of Szepingkai, strategic point south of Changchun, communist troops attacked and occupied the town on March 16, blocking the advance of the national troops pushing northward. The three-man military sub-committee agreed on March 27 to send field teams to the northeast to check the spread of fighting. The communists, however, stood in the way and made it impossible for the field teams to carry out their mission there.

On April 14, the communists started attacking Changchun itself. General Marshall returned to China on April 17. The following day the communists occupied Changchun.

With Changchun in their hands, the attitude of the communist delegation in Chungking stiffened. On April 21, Chou En-lai sent a letter to Chang Chun, Shao Li-tze and Chang Li-sheng, government representatives, stating that the Communist party could not consider the choice

of officials to participate in the government and that it could not present its list of delegates to the National Assembly. In so doing, the communists openly tore up the PCC resolutions on government reorganization and the scheduled convention of the National Assembly on May 5.

The National Government yielded to the communist demand that the National Assembly be postponed. Early in May, the government returned to Nanking.

As the communists refused to resume negotiations, government troops retook Szepingkai on May 19, and Changchun on May 23. President Chiang made a 12-day visit to the northeast. When he returned to Nanking on June 3, negotiations had already been resumed. Three days later, President Chiang issued another cease-fire order to the government troops in the northeast for a period of 15 days. In issuing the order, which obliged all government troops in the northeast to stop further advance, the President declared:

"This step is to enable the Chinese Communists to have another opportunity to implement the agreements entered into by them. This move does not affect the government's right to recover sovereignty in the northeast according to the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945. The following points should be settled satisfactorily within 15 days: (1) details for the complete cessation of hostilities in the northeast; (2) details and methods for the restoration of communications in areas south of Shanhaikwan and (3) a sound foundation for executing the agreement on February 25 regarding military demobilization and reorganization."

The committee of three—General Hsu Yung-chang, General Chou En-lai and General Marshall—met on June 10 to discuss the three points mentioned in the cease-fire order. To prevent delay in their enforcement, the government proposed to vest the power of arbitration in the U. S. representative. After two weeks of parley, the two sides came closer regarding the question of cease-fire and the resumption of communications. No agreement was possible over the question of arbitration power and military reorganization.

On June 21, when the 15-day truce expired, the government accepted the suggestion of Chinese minority parties and extended it for eight more days. The communist delegation demanded that an indefinite truce be declared in the northeast in the name of the committee of three. However, the details for military reorganization suggested by the com-

munists completely nullified the agreement on military reorganization. Thus no complete accord on the northeast problem was possible.

On June 30, the government issued a statement, declaring: "Although the extended truce was up, the government's policy of peace and unity remains unchanged. Except in the case of self-defense, as necessitated by circumstances, government troops will refrain from military operations against communist forces in order to await the final solution of the various issues."

PEACE NEGOTIATIONS DRAG ON

Despite its failure to work out a peaceful settlement with the communists, the government went ahead and made preparations to terminate the period of Kuomintang political tutelage and to usher in the constitutional era. The Supreme National Defense Council, therefore, decided on July 3 to convene the National Assembly on November 12, 1946.

On July 9, Dr. J. Leighton Stuart was appointed U. S. Ambassador to China. Shortly afterwards, President Chiang went to Kuling, China's unofficial summer capital. Meanwhile, the communists started a violent anti-American campaign in various parts of the country. With their troops making some temporary gains in the field, they showed no more interest in resuming the peace parleys.

General Marshall and Ambassador Stuart, in their joint statement of August 10, explicitly pointed out that the redistribution of troops and the character of the local or county governments at places evacuated as a result of a redistribution of troops were hard knots in the current Chinese situation.

On August 14, the first anniversary of the Japanese surrender, President Chiang reiterated in a statement the government's stand to solve internal problems through political means. "The core of the present situation," he said, "lies in the fact that the Chinese Communist party, unlike opposition political parties in other countries, possesses independent armed forces and dominates certain regions. Despite this, a solution to all the current problems can still be found if the communists can prove their sincerity in deeds." To consolidate peace and national unity, he said, the fundamental way would be through the convocation of the National Assembly and the adoption of a democratic constitution.

During the ensuing negotiations, the communist troops were besieging Tating, in northern Shansi, and cutting the Tating-Pucheng railway in southern Shansi. The communists had also launched a drive along the Lunghai railway. At this point, U. S. Ambassador Dr. Stuart proposed the formation of a committee of five, consisting of two representatives from the government, two from the Communist party and himself. His proposal was accepted. The committee first considered the question of reorganizing the government, in the belief that this would provide the basis for solution of other problems like cessation of hostilities, restoration of communications and reorganization of the armed forces. The prospects of the new committee were dimmed at once when the communists demanded immediate cessation of hostilities throughout the country and 14 seats for themselves and their satellite, the Democratic League, in the State Council. As the State Council could effect decisions by two-thirds majority, 14 seats would give the communists veto power to turn down any law or act that might not be to their liking, for they were sure they could count on the Democratic League for support under any circumstances.

On September 22, the communists presented a memorandum to General Marshall, asking the immediate convening of the three-man military sub-committee. President Chiang, upon his return to Nanking from Kuling on September 26, agreed but proposed the simultaneous convocation of both the committee of five and the committee of three. On October 1, the communists presented a letter to President Chiang, threatening that "if the Government does not instantly cease its military operations against Kalgan and the communist-held areas in its vicinity, the Communist party feels itself forced to presume that the National Government is thereby making public announcement of a total national split and abandonment of its professed policy of peaceful settlement." To the government's fresh proposal, they made no answer at all. In a statement issued on October 2, the government frankly set two maximum concessions to the communists:

1. The government was ready to give the communists 13 seats, instead of the original 12, in the State Council, on condition that they would without delay produce a list of its candidates for the State Council, as well as a list of its delegates to the National Assembly.

2. For immediate implementation of the program for the reorganization of the

army, location of the 18 communist divisions should be immediately determined and the communist troops should enter those assigned places accordingly. The above should be decided by the committee of three and carried out under the supervision of the Executive Headquarters in Peiping.

These offers failed to elicit any reply from the communists. In compliance with the communist demand that there be no further advance on Kalgan, the government proposed a truce of 10 days. This was rejected by the communists on the ground that cessation of hostilities should have no time limit. On October 21, representatives of various minority parties gathered in Nanking as intermediaries. They produced a mediatory proposal. But Yen-an objected to the entire proposal and insisted that the government call off the National Assembly already scheduled for November 12, 1946.

On November 8, President Chiang issued an order instructing all government troops throughout China, beginning at noon, November 11, to cease firing and remain at their respective positions. The communist delegation in Nanking, which has been clamoring for an unconditional cease-fire order as the prerequisite to any successful peace talks, replied by denouncing the President's cease-fire order as "merely a preparation for further government attacks."

On November 11, the government announced a three-day postponement of the National Assembly to allow time for settlement of the outstanding internal problems and to enable parties other than the Kuomintang to attend the convocation. The communist spokesman demanded that President Chiang call off the "one-party" assembly and let the PCC convene it. He also demanded that the government withdraw its troops to their January 13 military positions.

When the government's cease-fire order became effective as of November 11, its troops stopped firing. The Yen-an Communist headquarters started on the following day a general mobilization movement in the Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia border region and began to attack Yulin in northern Shensi. Members of the minority parties thereupon decided to abandon their role as mediators. Non-partisan leaders, such as Mo Teh-hui, Hu Lin, Hu Shih, and Miao Chia-min, members of the Young China party and of the Democratic Socialist party led by Carsun Chang all participated in the assembly.

The delegates to the assembly, according to the PCC resolution, were to total 2,050. Out of the 1,744 representatives elected and nominated, 847 (48%) were non-partisans; 725 (42%) Kuomintang members; and 172 (10%) members of the Young China party and the Democratic Socialist party. Following the adoption of the new constitution, the National Assembly was adjourned on Christmas Day, 1946.

During the 40-day meeting of the National Assembly, General Marshall and Ambassador Stuart made every effort to bring about the resumption of government-communist negotiations. Before Chou En-lai's return to Yen-an on November 19, General Marshall asked him if the communists wanted him to continue his mediatory efforts. On December 6, almost a month later, Chou cabled General Marshall the conditions upon which the government-communist talks could be resumed,—dissolution of the 21-day-old National Assembly and restoration of troop positions as of January 13, 1946.

Three days later, President Chiang reaffirmed the government's intention to work for a political rather than military settlement of the government-communist disputes, but rejected Chou's two conditions as unacceptable.

END OF THE MARSHALL MISSION

General Marshall was appointed U. S. Secretary of State on January 7, 1947. Before he left Nanking, he declared that salvation of China would be the assumption of leadership by the liberals in the government and in the minority parties. He blamed extremists in both the Kuomintang and the Chinese Communist party for frustrating his efforts to restore peace in China.

General Marshall spoke of the new constitution as "a democratic constitution which in all major respects is in accordance with the principles laid down by the all-party Political Consultation Conference."

"It is unfortunate," he said, "that the communists did not see fit to participate in the assembly, since the constitution that has been adopted seems to include every major point that they wanted."

On January 16, President Chiang notified the communist representative and spokesman in Nanking, Wang Pin-nan, through U. S. Ambassador Dr. Stuart, of the government's intention to send General Chang Chih-chung to Yen-an to resume peace talks. The following day,

the Yen-an Communist headquarters issued a statement through the New China News Agency, saying, "This is absolutely deceptive in effect."

In a communique published on January 20, the government announced its desire to resume negotiations with the Chinese Communist party in order to put an end to the civil strife and to reorganize the government with the participation of all minority parties. It set forth the following four points:

(1) The government was willing to send a representative to Yen-an, or to invite communist delegates to come to Nanking to resume the peace negotiations, or to call a round-table conference to be attended by representatives of the various parties and independents.

(2) The government and the communists would immediately order their troops to cease hostilities and remain at their positions and negotiate effective measures to ensure cessation of hostilities.

(3) The government was prepared to resume negotiations with the communists for enforcement of the army reorganization program and restoration of communications in conformity with principles laid down by the Committee of Three.

(4) In regions where hostilities were taking place, the government was ready to negotiate with the communists for a fair and reasonable solution.

The government, on January 24, requested Ambassador Stuart to convey to the communists these four points. The communists rejected them and insisted on the government's acceptance of their own conditions, namely, the restoration of the military positions of January 13, 1946, and the abolition of the constitution.

As a result of the Communist party's insistence on their two impossible demands, the U. S. Government announced on January 29 the abandonment of U. S. efforts to mediate between the Chinese Government and the communists. The decision involved the severance of U. S. relations with the committee of three established for the purpose of terminating hostilities in China, of which General Marshall was the chairman, with its Executive Headquarters in Peiping, and withdrawal of all American forces from China.

No sooner had the U. S. Government announced its decision than Chinese Communists were attempting to sever the important Peiping-Tientsin railway. Communist offensives were also intensified against Paoting on the Peiping-Hankow line, and in Shantung and Kansu provinces. "There is no more meditation," the

communist spokesman in Nanking was quoted to have said, "the only way out is to fight."

Statements from Yen-an were daily becoming more arrogant and belligerent. The American action, they said, was not enough; complete withdrawal of U. S. interest—an American hands-off policy with respect to China—was demanded. The Chinese Communists, as if anticipating a day when they would control all China, declared that they would not recognize treaties, agreements and other transactions between China and the United States, as concluded by their respective governments.

The attitude of the National Government could be summarized as follows: (1) the government had not abandoned, and would not abandon, its policy of settling political problems by political means, and (2) China's political democratization would be carried on, with or without communist participation.

In April, 1947, the base of the Chinese Government was broadened to include the Kuomintang, the Democratic Socialist party, the Young China party and non-partisans. The State Council, which would direct China's affairs during the transitional period, was to carry out the mandate of the National Assembly of 1946 and prepare for the inauguration of the constitutional government.

The composition of the State Council was as follows: the presidents of the five Yuan (*ex officio* members) five seats; Kuomintang, 12; Democratic Socialists, four; Young China party, four; and independents, four. Eleven seats were held open for the communists and the Democratic League. The reorganization of the State Council was preceded by the election of minority party members to the Legislative Yuan and Control Yuan. In the subsequent Executive Yuan reshuffle, the minority parties and independents were given the vice-premiership, five portfolios (communications, economic affairs, agriculture and forestry, public health and Mongolian and Tibetan affairs) and five ministerships without portfolio. The process of transforming the one-party government into a multi-party government was thereupon completed.

The reorganized government still adhered to the policy of resolving the communist problem by political means. In his administrative report to the People's Political Council on May 21, 1947, Premier Chang Chun declared: "Settlement by peaceful means shall remain the basic principle for solution of the Chinese Communist problem. If only the communists

show willingness for peace and the railway communications can be completely restored, the government will seek national peace and unity through political channels!"

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

MILITARY CAMPAIGNS, 1948

Communist disturbances spread throughout north and northeast China in spite of repeated efforts exerted by the government to restore peace. The government soon realized that if communist rebellion was not speedily suppressed, constitutional democracy, unity and security would be jeopardized. The people in consequence would continue to be exposed to great hardships and suffering.

On July 4, 1947, President Chiang Kai-shek's proposal for national general mobilization to quell the communist rebellion was adopted by the National Government. Hostilities had been raging for some time between the government and communist forces. The general mobilization order formally ended the period of uncertainty.

By the end of 1948, more than a year after large scale fighting began, battles and skirmishes extended from Changchun in the northeast to places south of the Yellow river in central China. Outnumbered by the communists, government forces successively abandoned all important cities in the northeast, including Changchun and Mukden.

In their fanatic attempts to oust the government forces from the northeast, the communists under Lin Piao had launched as many as seven offensives in the winter of 1947-48 alone. Fighting continued throughout 1948, and both sides suffered very heavy casualties.

The situation in the northeast became tense in October, 1948, when the Reds launched an all-out attack on Changchun, which was lost to the communists on October 23. The evacuation of Mukden by the nationalists was announced on November 2. Communist troops attacking Mukden, according to the Ministry of National Defense, totalled ten armies and five independent divisions. The evacuation of Mukden was soon followed by that of Yingkow and Chinwangtao. The entire northeast thus went behind the Iron Curtain.

Lin Piao's troops almost immediately moved into north China to threaten Tientsin and Peiping. Tangshan, an important railway city northeast of Tientsin, was taken by the communists on December 12, 1948. By the middle of December, com-

munist troops coming from the northeast to the Peiping-Tientsin area totalled 11 columns or armies, which, together with Nieh Yung-chen's Red units, gradually pushed to the outer defense areas of the two great north China cities. Peiping had been besieged by the communists since December 15.

The fall of Shihchiachwang, a railway hub in Central Hopei, on November 14, 1947, was the first major reverse for government forces in north China. During the following year, though under the unified command of General Fu Tso-yi, government troops made little improvement. By the end of 1948, with the Reds well consolidated in the northeast and fighting gradually shifting toward the Yangtze river regions, the defense of north China had become even precarious. Kalgan, capital of Chahar, fell into communist hands on December 25, 1948, and as a result, General Fu's forces suffered irretrievable losses.

In Shansi, government troops under General Yen Hsi-shan held Taiyuan and its adjacent areas. Fighting there continued throughout the year. Taiyuan, the capital, and its immediate environs were the scene of a bitter battle for many months. The communists did not succeed in breaking through the city defenses until April, 1949.

Further to the west, following the capture of Yen'an and other cities in north Shensi in March, 1947, some of General Hu Tsung-nan's divisions were transferred across the Yellow river to south Shensi. The communists under Peng Teh-huai and Ho Lung, taking advantage of the situation, staged a comeback in north Shensi early in 1948. The communists first attacked Yichwan and then Lochwan, on the highway from Yen'an to Sian. While their attempt on Lochwan ended in a debacle, the communists in a five-day battle beginning February 24 took Yichwan.

The loss of Yichwan led to a drastic change in the government's strategy. Instead of spreading its forces over a wide area, the government began to concentrate its forces in a few well-chosen strategic spots, meanwhile sending out strong columns against communist field forces. Yen'an, isolated since the fall of Yichwan, was evacuated on April 21. About the same time, General Hu Tsung-nan's army laid a trap in the areas of Linyu, Fenghsiang and Yenyang in west Shensi and inflicted heavy losses on Peng Teh-huai's contingents. Shortly afterwards, cavalry units under General Ma Chi-yuan of

Chinghai routed Peng's remnants near Chingchwan in eastern Kansu on May 5.

As a result of this battle, the government's position in the northwest was considerably improved and the control over the Sian-Lanchow highway was regained.

The areas between the Yellow river and the Yangtze valley saw most of the battles fought in the past year. Following the government's offensive in central Shantung, from the spring till late autumn in 1947, Chen Yi's rebel forces had to flee in two columns, one to northern Kiangsu and the other to Hopei via western Shantung. Liu Po-cheng's forces, coming down to meet Chen Yi's units, found after crossing the Yellow river to the south that their own retreat had been cut off by government troops. Liu had to improvise his strategy and headed southward, cutting a swath in the thinly-guarded government areas in Honan, Anhwei and Hupeh and pushing down to points only a few miles from Kiukiang, the gateway to Kiangsi across the Yangtze river. Chen Yi's forces, after a few futile attempts on Hsuehchow, government stronghold in north Kiangsu, fled by the middle of October to north Anhwei and to the formerly flooded Yellow river areas in east Honan. Meanwhile, Chen Keng's units in south Shansi crossed the Yellow river in late August and reached the Funiu mountains in east Honan a month later, bringing total communist strength south of the Yellow river to some 240,000 men.

Liu Po-cheng's venture into the Yangtze river districts proved of short duration. Pushed back by strong government columns, Liu led his six armies into the Tapien mountains on the Honan, Anhwei and Hupeh borders, hoping to turn this into a base from which to threaten Nanking in the southeast and Hankow in the southwest. He boasted that he would cross the Yangtze river in May, 1948, and enter Szechwan in August. As a counter-measure, the government set up a new command at Kiukiang with General Pai Chung-hsi, then Minister of National Defense, in charge of operations. Toward the end of November, 1947, the bulk of Liu's forces was dislodged from the Tapien mountains.

After that, Liu's forces were kept on the run until they reached southern Honan. From there, with the help of Chen Keng's men who had previously taken Loyang on April 6, Liu started attacking Nanyang and its adjacent areas during the last week of May, 1948. Again foiled, Liu used Tangho in south Honan as an operating base, foraging into northern

Hupeh in the direction of Hsiangyang and Fancheng. These two cities fell under the communist onslaught in mid-July, but Hsiangyang was recovered by government forces on August 5. Then Liu Po-cheng's forces fled back to south Honan in areas around Fangcheng and Wuyang.

Like Liu Po-cheng's contingents, Chen Yi's forces were under constant pressure by government troops since their escape from Shantung. In the middle of June, 1948, Chen Yi sent three armies against Kaifeng, the provincial capital of Honan, and deployed four more armies in the surrounding areas to engage government reinforcements moving to relieve Kaifeng.

Land communication between Kaifeng and the outside was cut off on June 22. The following day the Red forces broke into the city. Four days later, however, they were driven out by government forces. In a subsequent battle in the former Yellow river flooded areas, which began in June 28, some 150,000 rebels were surrounded between Suihsien and Tunghsu. At first the government's 74th Division and other units suffered considerable losses. With the support of the air force, powerful government forces closing in from both flanks had inflicted over 40,000 casualties on the rebels by July 4. Three days later, the rebels, realizing that they had lost the battle, broke off and started a general retreat. The remnants of the six armies comprising Chen Yi's main strength withdrew into western Shantung while his 3rd and 8th Armies headed for hills in south Honan.

Even before the battle in east Honan took place, such of Chen Yi's troops as had been in Shantung began to besiege Yenchow, railway town south of Tsinan. With the return of Chen Yi's battered units into Shantung, the rebels stepped up their attack against Yenchow. The small government garrison evacuated Yenchow in mid-July.

Having previously occupied Weihhsien, east of Tsinan, along the railway to Tsingtao, on April 28, and now with Yenchow in their hands, the communists proceeded with their plan for the conquest of Tsinan, the provincial capital of Shantung. On September 16, they launched the expected offensive against Tsinan with some 180,000 men under Chen Yi.

During the first two days of the battle, strong government airborne reinforcements landed at regular intervals at Tsinan's airfield. Government garrisons totalling some 80,000 men under Wang Yao-wu were thus enabled to hold their positions in the city's immediate vicinity against incessant assaults.

By September 9, however, the communists had completely surrounded Tsinan following their capture of the city's north airfield. On September 25, after ten days of severe fighting, Tsinan fell. The fall of Tsinan marked a decisive turn in the entire war situation which was followed by a series of government reverses.

The greatest battle ever fought in China's civil war was the battle of Hsuehchow, which lasted from November 9 to December 4. The communists threw into this battle 550,000 men, composed of 19 columns (or armies) and three independent brigades under Chen Yi, five columns under Liu Po-cheng and two columns under Chen Keng. The government troops used slightly fewer troops. After the battle was concluded, the communists suffered at least 200,000 casualties.

This battle was immediately followed by the battle of Pengpu and Suhsien, which dragged into late December. The government lost some of its best armies, including those under the command of Huang Po-tao and Chiu Ching-chuan, who were killed in action.

Hsuehchow was given up on December 3 when its defenders went to the aid of other government units fighting in Suhsien and other areas south of Hsuehchow. This battle began late November and ended by the middle of December, during which period the communists lost 159,000 men.

Following the loss of Hsuehchow, the fighting drew closer and closer to Nanking. Intense political activities began both in Nanking and Shanghai in December, 1948, resulting in the retirement of President Chiang Kai-shek in January, 1949.

RESUMPTION OF PEACE NEGOTIATIONS

President Chiang Kai-shek announced his retirement on January 21, 1949, when he left Nanking for his home town, Feng-hwa in Chekiang province. His statement on retirement reads:

"Since I issued my New Year message urging the restoration of peace, the entire nation, with one accord, has echoed its unreserved support. However, although more than two weeks have now elapsed, warfare has not yet drawn to a close and the ultimate aim of achieving peace has not been realized. Consequently an end to the people's suffering still is not in sight.

"With the hope that the hostilities may be brought to an end and the people's suffering be relieved, I have decided to retire. As from January 21, Vice-President Li Tsung-jen will ex-

ercise the duties and powers of President in accordance with Article 49 of the constitution, which provides that in the event the President, for any reason, is unable to perform his functions, his duties and power shall be exercised by the Vice-President. I hope the entire nation, including both military and civilian population, as well as the various government departments and agencies, will unreservedly, and with one heart, support Vice-President Li in order that a lasting peace may be achieved.

"I have devoted my entire life to the work of the people's revolution, observing strictly the Three Principles of the People. From the fifteenth year of the Republic when we set out from Canton on the Northern Punitive Expedition to the time when national unity was achieved, I never for a moment failed to consider it my sacred duty to implement the principle of nationalism, give effect to the principle of democracy, and improve the livelihood of the people.

"At the same time, I have always realized that it is absolutely necessary to secure peace for the country before a sound foundation can be laid for the improvement of the nation's political and economic life. This is why for more than twenty years, while I was sometimes forced to resort to military measures in dealing with domestic affairs, I have always been prepared to make personal sacrifices and concessions. The only exception was the war of resistance against Japanese aggression, in which case I was determined to fight to the bitter end. This is a record well borne out by facts.

"My earnest prayers will have been answered if the Communist party henceforth comes to the full realization of the grave situation confronting the country, orders a cease-fire, and agrees to commence peace talks with the government. Thus the people will be spared intense suffering, the spiritual and material resources of the nation may be preserved and its territorial integrity and political sovereignty maintained, and the continuity of the nation's history, culture and social order may be perpetuated and the people's livelihood and freedom safeguarded."

President Chiang Kai-shek also urged a peaceful settlement of the communist problem in his New Year message to the Chinese people, in which he said, among other things,

"If a negotiated peace is not detrimental to the national independence and sovereignty, but will contribute to the welfare of the people; if the constitution is not violated and constitutionalism preserved, the democratic form of government maintained; if the entity of the armed forces is safeguarded; and if the people's free mode of living and their minimum living standard are protected, then I shall be satisfied. If peace can be secured, I am not at all concerned about my own position."

After prolonged deliberation, the communists gave their answer in a statement by Mao Tse-tung, issued on January 14. In this statement Mao listed eight conditions for the commencement of peace negotiations. These demands were:

- (1) Punishment of war criminals. [The communists had previously issued an incomplete list of 45 "first-class war criminals," headed by President and Madame Chiang Kai-shek and including nearly all high government officials. A second list was issued later to include more government officials and some prominent social and educational leaders.]
- (2) Abrogation of the constitution.
- (3) Abolition of the legitimacy of Kuomintang political institutions.
- (4) Reorganization of the revolutionary armies in accordance with democratic principles.
- (5) Confiscation of bureaucratic capital.
- (6) Reformation of the agrarian system.
- (7) Abrogation of the treaties of national betrayal. [These include practically all treaties concluded with the U.S.A. after the end of the war.]
- (8) Convocation of a Political Consultation Conference without the participation of reactionary elements, establishment of a democratic coalition government and the take-over of all powers from the Nanking Kuomintang reactionary government and its lower levels of government.

The harsh communist terms, which many observers believed to be equivalent to a demand for unconditional surrender, did not deter the government from continuing its peace efforts. On January 19, the Executive Yuan issued the following statement: "The government, in deference to the general wishes of the people for the early realization of peace, hereby makes known its desire for both the government

and communist forces to cease fire unconditionally and immediately and for both sides to appoint delegates to start peace negotiations."

During this period, the Chinese Government had requested the allied powers to mediate in the dispute. On January 8, identical notes were sent to the United States, British, Soviet and French governments through their ambassadors in Nanking, signifying the Chinese Government's sincere desire for a peace settlement with the Chinese Communist party and its readiness to accept any possible intermediary for the initiation of negotiations. On January 20, a spokesman of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced that answers from the four governments had been received. While indicating their hope for any early restoration of domestic peace in China, they did not feel in a position to act as an intermediary in the current situation.

Under the direction of Acting President Li Tsung-jen, however, repeated efforts were made for the beginning of the negotiations. Telegrams and letters were exchanged between Acting President Li and Mao Tse-tung for concrete arrangements. It was later agreed that the place for the meeting should be Peiping.

On January 22, the government appointed a peace delegation, whose departure from Nanking was repeatedly delayed owing to the negotiation of local peace for the Peiping area. A local truce for Peiping was announced on January 22, and a joint office for the take-over was established on February 2. Peiping was thus thrown under communist rule.

On February 14, 1949, an unofficial peace delegation left Shanghai for Peiping to make preliminary arrangements for the negotiation. This delegation consisted of W. W. Yen, Chang Shih-chao, Kiang Yung, and Shao Li-tze. They met Yeh Chien-ying and other communist leaders in Peiping. On February 25, they proceeded to Shihchiachwang to meet Mao Tse-tung and Chou En-lai. Their talks also covered the resumption of postal and shipping services between Shanghai and north China.

This unofficial delegation left Peiping for Nanking on February 27, bringing the peace talks one step further.

On March 26, the government announced the reorganization of the peace delegation to Peiping: The delegates were Chang Chih-chung, Shao Li-tze, Huang Shao-hsiung, Chang Shih-chao, and Li Chen. Later, the appointment of a sixth member, Liu Fei, was also announced.

The communist delegation included: Chou En-lai, Lin Tsu-han, Yeh Chien-ying, Lin Piao and Li Wei-han.

The government delegation left Nanking for Peiping on April 1, when the discussions were formally started. The discussions were based on Mao Tse-tung's eight-point proposal, but no results were reached.

On April 16, Huang Shao-hsiung, one of the government delegates, returned to Nanking, bringing back a draft agreement prepared by the communists, who demanded the signing by the government representatives. This draft contained eight articles and 24 paragraphs, which amounted to nothing but unconditional surrender. The communists demanded the immediate abolition of the constitution and the immediate take-over of all government areas and their resources. They demanded the immediate crossing of the Yangtze river by the communist troops and the establishment of a joint committee, to be headed by a communist, for the reorganization of all government armed forces. They demanded the government delegates to sign the proposed agreement by April 20, which date was fixed by the communists as the time limit for the negotiations.

On April 20, the government informed the communists that these terms were unacceptable and expressed hope that the communists would reconsider their attitude. On the following day, Mao Tse-tung and Chu Teh ordered a general offensive against government forces, and communist troops crossed the Yangtze river to attack Nanking. The peace negotiations were thus brought to a tragic close, and large-scale fighting resumed on all fronts.

Fearing that the communists might not be sincere in the negotiations, the government had started the evacuation of government departments and agencies to Canton in January for even during the negotiations the communists did not cease hostilities. Their attack in the vicinity of Nanking was intensified at the time of the departure of the Government peace delegation from Nanking. On January 19, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs notified the diplomatic corps in Nanking that, in view of the closeness of the capital to the war areas and as a measure for their safety, members of the diplomatic missions were requested to make preparations to move to Canton.

MILITARY CAMPAIGN, 1949

Following their occupation of the entire northeastern provinces, Lin Pao's communist troops continued to push toward

the Tientsin-Peiping area. Meanwhile, Nieh Yung-chen's Red units became more active in areas west and south of Peiping. Severe fighting raged in the Tientsin sector along the Peiping-Mukden railway. After the fall of Tientsin into communist hands on January 15, 1949, however, only skirmishes took place until the announcement of a local truce for Peiping on January 22, when Fu Tso-yi virtually surrendered to the communists.

In central China, communist troops reached the northern bank of the Yangtze river by the end of January. Since then no major fighting occurred until April 21, when the Reds crossed the river at Tikang, southwest of Nanking. The nationalists evacuated Nanking on April 23, and the communists entered the capital on the following day.

After taking Nanking, the communists drove southeastward to the Kiangsu-Chekiang border. They took Hangchow, the provincial capital of Chekiang, on April 30. Shanghai was thus thrown under a complete siege. Fighting continued in the immediate environs of Shanghai for two weeks before the government forces finally evacuated the great port on May 26. The communists employed 600,000 men in the operations in the Shanghai area and sustained some 100,000 casualties.

Following the loss of Shanghai, government troops suffered further setbacks, and by October 14, 1949, Canton had also been evacuated. The following are the dates of the fall and evacuation of important cities: Hankow, May 16; Sian, May 20; Nanchang, July 21; Foochow, August 17; Lanchow, August 27; Canton, October 14; Amoy, October 17; Swatow, October 21; Kweilin, November 22; Liuchow, November 25; Chungking, November 30; and Chengtu, December 26.

HARBIN AND MOSCOW PACTS

On October 16, 1949, the Central News Agency made known two secret pacts signed separately at Harbin and Moscow between the Chinese Communists and the Soviet Union; giving the latter virtual control of China's military, economic and political affairs. The pacts also stipulate that the Chinese Communists must assist Russia in the event of another war.

The main points of the Harbin pact are:

1. Russia will give full support to the Chinese Communists in foreign and military affairs.
2. Russia and the Chinese Communists should cooperate in exploiting the economy of China's Northeast (Manchuria).

3. The Chinese Communists recognize Russia's special rights to inland and air communications in the Northeast.

4. Russia will supply and maintain a standing air force of 50 planes for the Chinese Communists.

5. Russia will hand over captured Japanese arms and ammunition to the Chinese Communists in two batches.

6. Russia will sell all the military equipment and supplies to the Chinese Communists under her control in the Northeast at reasonable prices.

7. In the event of violent changes in the Northeast, the Chinese Communist armies there will be allowed to retreat to Soviet Russia via northern Korea.

8. Russia consents to the establishment of air force training centers by the Chinese Communists in northern Korea and in Siberia.

9. Russia will secretly assist the Chinese Communists in the event of any landing operations against the Northeast by the Kuomintang forces.

10. The Chinese Communists should supply all information and intelligence reports regarding Kuomintang China and the United States.

11. Except a certain percentage needed locally, all cotton, soybeans and other strategic materials produced in the Northeast should be sent to Russia.

12. Russia should assist the Chinese Communists to expand their activities in Sinkiang.

13. Special areas in Liaoning and Antung provinces should be designated for the stationing of northern Korean troops, and when necessary, these areas should be ceded to northern Korea.

The following are the main points of the Pact signed in Moscow:

1. Russia enjoys priority in mineral rights in China. A Chinese commercial company under the joint management of Russia and the Chinese Communists should be organized to implement such priority.

2. Russia should be allowed to station troops in the Northeast and Sinkiang.

3. In the event of another world war, the Chinese Red Army should fight side by side with Russia. The overall supreme commander should be named by Russia and the deputy commander named by the Chinese Red Army.

4. Russia should assist the Chinese Communists in organizing an air force.

5. The organization of the Chinese Communist party should be enlarged and the Far Eastern Cominform should be established in China.

6. In the event of another war in Europe involving Russia, the Chinese Communists should send an expeditionary force of 100,000 and a labor corps of 1,000,000 men to assist Russia in her war effort.

7. Russia should train and equip 11 divisions of the Chinese Red Army in the nearest future.

"THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA"

On October 1, 1949, the Chinese Communists established a "People's Central Government" of the so-called "People's Republic of China" in Peiping after ten days' meeting of the so-called "People's Political Consultation Conference." The communist leader, Mao Tse-tung, was made chairman of the "Council of the People's Central Government" which is composed of 56 members.

Six vice-chairmen were later appointed. They are: Chu Teh, the communist commander-in-chief; Liu Shao-chi, head of the Communist party's organization bureau; Li Chi-shen, head of the so-called "Revolutionary Committee of the Kuomintang"; Madame Sun Yat-sen; Chang Lan, chairman of the outlawed Democratic League; and Kao Kang, chairman of the "People's Government of Manchuria." Chou En-lai was appointed premier and concurrently foreign minister of the puppet government.

On October 9, 1949, the eve of the 38th anniversary of the Chinese Republic, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek issued a message to the Chinese people, condemning Russia's aggressive designs on China and her creation of the puppet communist regime. The following is the full text of the message:

"Tomorrow will be the 38th anniversary of the Republic of China. Since the founding of the Chinese Republic by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, whenever this solemn day came around, our people celebrated it with great rejoicing. But, on the eve of this anniversary, those of our compatriots who live in the communist areas will remember it as a day of bitterness and sorrow.

"On the Double Tenth 38 years ago, the 2,000-year-old monarchical system was uprooted, and then Manchu autocracy was overthrown. The Republic of China was then born. Soon afterwards, however, we were plunged into

a second revolution. We fought Yuan Shih-kai against his monarchical conspiracy. We fought against the restoration of Manchu rule thereby protecting the constitution. In 1926-28, we launched the Northern Expedition against the warlords, and finally in 1937, the War of Resistance against Japan. Through great sacrifices, we succeeded in consolidating the Republic and in preserving our national flag and national anthem. During these 38 years, the Republic has become the symbol of our national spirit and the highest organization that dominates our common life. The republican system, name, flag and anthem constitute a permanent and indelible basis of our life and completely engage and represent our interests, our thoughts and action.

"Now the Chinese Communists had convened the so-called 'People's Political Consultation Conference' which was composed of a group of undesirable elements of the country, shameless traitors and opportunists. In less than ten days, they had carried out what the Communist Internationale previously planned for them. They had abolished the Chinese Republic, established a Soviet totalitarian form of government, adopted a red flag of the Russian type, and changed our national anthem. Those of our compatriots who have already suffered greatly behind the Iron Curtain cannot see our national flag or sing our national anthem. It is imaginable how much they have been suffering from the loss of their families and their country. At this time of international tension and national crisis our people in the rear or abroad must realize the difficulties involved in the creation of the Chinese Republic and must assume the responsibility of saving our country and working for national existence. Though I have left the government, I join my fellow countrymen in doing the utmost for the completion of the National Revolution and continuing the fight against the communists in order to give rebirth to our nation.

"The revolt of the Chinese Communists is not merely for the seizure of political power and the overthrow of our government but it has been instigated by Soviet Russia to destroy our country. This is why they had adopted exactly the same methods with which Russia conquered her eastern European satellites. During the

past four years, under Russian instigation, the first step of the Communist parties of eastern Europe, using the name 'New Democracy,' was to raise the slogan of coalition government for the purpose of deceiving the people. Then in the name of the so-called people's democratic dictatorship, they had established the totalitarian form of government, called Central People's Government, with which to control the people and make them subservient to Soviet Russia.

"The Chinese Communists fully realize that if they should try to bring the Chinese people under Russian rule, they would not only be opposed by the people but would likely cause a split in the ranks and files within their party. Thus they had long ago laid the foundation by first suppressing the national feeling and sentiment. In the past seven years, they started a rigid disciplinary movement which was soon followed by the cruel three point investigation program, aiming at the liquidation of the free way of life, the family relationship, and national morality. Indirectly, such movements served only to deal a crushing blow to national consciousness. Following the denunciation of Titoism by the Cominform, the Chinese Communists adopted a program formally declaring war against nationalism. In April this year, they went one step further by announcing their determination to fight side by side with the Soviet Union in the event of World War III. In early July, they further made known their intention to work for the interests of Soviet Russia.

"The democratic system of the Chinese Republic is a safeguard for the free rights of the Chinese people. The national flag of the Republic is the symbol of the National Revolution. The name of the Republic is the binding force of the people's patriotic sentiments. The anthem of the Chinese Republic tells the purpose of our national reconstruction based on the Three People's Principles.

"The Double Tenth anniversary is celebrated in commemoration of the founding of the Republic. This forms an epic written with the blood and tears of our revolutionary fathers, soldiers and people. It represents our national consciousness and love for our land.

"So long as there is one single national flag of Blue Sky and White Sun flying on the soil of the Chinese terri-

tory, it will distinctively mark the existence of freedom and independence. This is why Yuan Shih-kai dared not openly use his imperial year of Hung Hsien, and Wang Ching-wei dared not change our national flag. Supported as they were by the imperialistic countries, they did not dare to offend our national spirit. Now the Chinese Communists are so insolent as to change not only the substance but also the form of the Chinese Republic. The Chinese Communists are even more traitorous than Yuan Shih-kai or Wang Ching-wei. The Russian aggressor is even more malicious than the Japanese militarists.

"The melodrama now being staged in Peiping is entirely directed by Soviet Russia. The following two points will make this clear. First, from the theoretical point of view by which the bogus regime was created, Mao Tse-tung, in July this year, summed up his party's autarchical and traitorous activities in a formula—the union between the working class and the people's democratic forces of the world through the people's democratic dictatorship with the communist-led workers and peasants federations as foundation. This is what they called the People's Political Consultation Conference which adopted the so-called organic law of the People's Central Government and the Common Program of the People's Political Consultation Conference. These are based on the realization of the people's democratic dictatorship and union with Soviet Russia and the new people's republics. This is exactly the formula proposed by Mao Tse-tung.

"We must know that the so-called people's democratic dictatorship is nothing but the dictatorship of the Communist party, and the so-called people's republics are those satellite countries behind the Iron Curtain now under Russian control. We can now see that the government set up by the People's Political Consultation Conference is a totalitarian dictatorship subject to Soviet rule. We can also understand that leadership of the working class is the leadership of the Communist party, having nothing to do with the real working class. What they call people's democratic dictatorship is the dictatorship of the Communist party, contrary to democracy. For four years, Moscow, using such cunning and ambiguous phraseology as a smoke screen, went ahead with her ag-

gressive designs and devoured the various countries of eastern Europe. The formula Mao Tse-tung used today is what Moscow had employed in creating bogus governments in eastern Europe, whose purpose is to destroy our country and to enslave our people.

"Second, let us see how simply the Chinese Communist puppet regime was created. When the so-called Council of the People's Central Government was set up on October 1, Mao Tse-tung made a proclamation, which was sent to the consulates of the various powers in China by the puppet premier and foreign minister, Chou En-lai. On the following day, Soviet Deputy Foreign Minister Gromyko announced Russia's recognition of the bogus regime. Eighteen years ago, when Doihara created the puppet Manchukuo, there were formal documents exchanged between Tokyo and Changchun. But today when the Soviet Union recognized the bogus regime in Peiping, it was based upon mere news broadcasts from Peiping and Moscow. The way they did it was even more perfunctory. It is quite obvious that everything was done according to a prearranged schedule.

"The melodrama staged by Soviet Russia has the following purposes: diplomatically, to cheat the democratic countries of the world, and militarily, to prepare the battlefield for World War III. What Mao Tse-tung, Chu Teh and other communists try to do is to use our 450-million people as cannon fodder for the Soviet Union, to offer the twelve million square miles of our territory as a battlefield, and to sacrifice the life and property of the Chinese people and our national resources to Soviet Russia as a hostage. It is more shameless and heartless than Yuan Shih-kai who accepted Japan's Twenty-one demands in order to further his monarchical dreams, or Wang Ching-wei who signed the Program for the Adjustment of Sino-Japanese Relations in order to accelerate the establishment of his puppet regime.

"Fellow countrymen! If Russia should conquer China, she would be just like a tiger with wings. There would be no peace in the world. And if Mao and Chu should succeed in destroying our country for the benefit of Soviet imperialism, thereby placing one fourth of the world population behind the Iron Curtain, there would

be no chance for the Chinese nation to revive again. There is no doubt that the destiny of mankind hinges on whether Soviet Russia would be successful or not in her aggressive designs. China being the first country which falls prey to Russia's expansionist program, our territory and sovereignty have been infringed upon, our system of government and name of the Republic destroyed, our national flag and anthem changed, and finally, our 450-million people will be subjected to long foreign rule.

"During this life and death struggle, the only way by which our compatriots can save themselves as well as their country is to fight the communists to the bitter end and struggle against Russia. Those of our compatriots in the communist areas must unite themselves, guard against destruction by the communist agents, work hard, preserve every bit of available strength, wait for the Nationalist Army to come to their rescue, and render every assistance when our army begins its counter-attack. I can guarantee that under whatever circumstances and in spite of all difficulties, our army will be ready within a short time to start a counter-offensive. We will not disappoint our people living in the communist occupied areas. Those of us who are in Free China should be more on the alert, and unite for the fight. We must know that in a fallen nest, no eggs can be kept intact. This is the time for all patriots to fight with united efforts against our common enemy. We can never save our life unless we are determined to offer it to the national cause. We can never save our family unless we are determined to sacrifice it for the country. We must support the government, obey its laws, exterminate the communists with unremitting efforts, and fight against Russia. Do not covet temporary comfort. Forget personal interests. When we live, we must be a free man. When we die, we die in a free land. We should not be willing to become slaves under foreign rule. So long as the Soviet Union occupies a single inch of our territory, we will not shirk our responsibility in defending our country.

"Here I must point out that the recognition of the puppet Peiping regime by the Russian aggressor not only has violated the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of 1945, but also torn up the Yalta agree-

ment. It has violated not only international treaties and agreements but also the Charter of the United Nations. This can well be compared with Germany's disregard of the Versailles Treaty, Italy's challenge to the League of Nations Convention, and Japan's violation of the Nine-Power Pact.

"The Soviet creation of the puppet communist regime may be likened to the Japanese creation of the puppet state of Manchukuo in 1932. Every one knows that the establishment of Manchukuo was a prelude to the Japanese armed invasion of China which finally led to World War II. The communist rebellion in the past four years has created a situation in China even more serious than the situation existing during 1931-37.

"Now that Russia, in defiance of all, has been openly directing the puppet show in Peiping, not only the true features of the Chinese Communist rebellion have been exposed but also Russia has admitted her role as the ringleader of an international war. In other words, Russia's recognition of the bogus government signifies her direct participation in an aggressive war against China. Such is the plain fact which means the beginning of World War III, even though the world seems still unaware of it.

"China does not wish to utilize a world war to solve her communist problem. Even now we ourselves are fighting to the utmost in preventing the spread of the communist conflagration to other parts of the western Pacific and southeast Asia. But, if the democratic nations do not take action for collective security in time, the designs of the Russian militarists cannot be checked. In fact, the Russian militarists are already very active in the Far East in manufacturing another world war.

"In leading China's National Revolution during the past 25 years, I have had dealings with the communists. From my experience I know that the Far Eastern policies of Czarist and Soviet Russia are one and the same. The Chinese Communist party is not an ordinary political party, but the fifth column of Moscow's Communist Internationale. The Soviet seizure of Outer Mongolia and Sinkiang and her designs on China's Northeast are but a continuation of the Czarist aggressive policy. Since 1925, the communist infiltration into the Kuomintang, their attempt to prevent the Northern Ex-

pedition of 1926-28, and their subversive activities during the war against Japan, were all instigated by the Communist Internationale. At the end of the war, the Chinese Communists, under the direction of the Moscow aggressor, intrigued to overthrow the National Government of China and to seize sovereign power through armed rebellion. I am, therefore, convinced that our war against the communist rebellion would indirectly curb Russian aggression. Such a war will be the key to the existence of the Chinese nation and the success of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Three People's Principles. I cannot but take this as my life-long mission.

"Unfortunately, our friends both at home and abroad have failed to understand this stand. Even the United States, our wartime ally, for the past four years mistook the Chinese Communists for agrarian reformers and thought their demand for a coalition government was a demand for democratic government. Our friends also dismissed the fact that the Chinese Communists are but Russia's slaves. Such misunderstanding has resulted in America's pursuing a contradictory policy toward China, which still prevails in America today.

"Let us, however, believe that the United States, now leading the world's democratic forces in opposition to aggression, is a country where faith and justice prevail. So long as our government continue to fight the communists and so long as our Northeast remains unrecovered, the United States cannot abandon international justice and evade her political responsibility. I cannot believe that the United States is a country which places her own interests above international justice. We have already suffered severe blows in our holy war against aggression and totalitarianism.

"In China some unstable elements who called themselves 'liberals' have directly or indirectly helped the communists in starting anti-civil war movements in government controlled areas, which proved to be a serious hindrance to the government's conscription and food requisition programs. During the past nine months, these shameless traitors used the high-sound name of peace as a camouflage to promote their pro-communist and pro-Russian activities and undermine the morale of the people and the armed forces. This has caused temporary setbacks in our anti-

communist war. But if we continue to fight, our contribution to the Far Eastern and world peace will be great and its significance will be far-reaching. Now that the aggressor and his puppets have come out into the open as may be seen in the establishment of the puppet regime in Peiping and the immediate recognition of it by Russia, it can be proved that the Chinese Communists are only Moscow's tools for aggression on China, thereby endangering Far Eastern peace. It also proves that our war is fought for the preservation of freedom and independence and serves as a vanguard for the world-wide anti-communist and anti-aggression movement.

"My fellow countrymen! Since the creation of the puppet communist regime and its recognition by Soviet Russia, the international crisis has been further aggravated and the hope for world peace has further receded. The world cannot preserve its freedom if half of it is enslaved. While war goes on in one part of the world, there can be no peace in the rest of the world. In our anti-communist war, we have vast territory and the support of the people. The people in the communist areas have high hopes in us and will give us their cooperation. In spite of temporary setbacks, we will achieve final victory. We are confident that right will eventually prevail over might and righteousness begets strength. We are confident too that in this war for the independence of the Chinese Republic, for the maintenance of the freedom of the people, and for the preservation of international justice and world peace, the final victory will be ours.

"All people who do not wish to become slaves must unite as one man under the banner of Blue Sky and White Sun and do their utmost in continuing the war against communist aggression and tyranny. This war is for the recovery of our lost territory, the safeguarding of our national sovereignty, the maintenance of our free and democratic way of life, and for the preservation of our glorious history. Only by continuing the struggle can we preserve our nation, its form and title, our national colors, anthem and our National Day, the Double Tenth. Only by fighting can we remain true to the memory of the Father of our Republic and the revolutionary martyrs."

CHAPTER 12

FOREIGN AFFAIRS

China's foreign policy was defined by President Chiang Kai-shek in his inauguration address as President of the Republic of China under the new Constitution, in Nanking on May 20, 1948, as follows:

"First, concerning the United Nations. Following its establishment—the new government's first tasks, insofar as foreign policy is concerned, is to continue to support the United Nations and to strengthen it. Article 141 of our Constitution clearly prescribes China's obligations vis-a-vis the United Nations.

"We fought against the Axis powers for eight years and made heavy sacrifices because we had hoped that the ideal of world peace as signified by the United Nations would become a reality. It is true that the United Nations is as yet not powerful enough to maintain world peace. Because of the numerous setbacks the United Nations has encountered during the past two years, many have become dubious about its future. In fact, some have even begun to question whether the United Nations is worth having. On the contrary, because of the existence of such misgivings, we should redouble our efforts to sustain and strengthen it.

"Insofar as China is concerned, we did not bear the principal responsibility for the failure of the League of Nations. However, if the United Nations should unfortunately fail too, we cannot evade our share of the responsibility to mankind and to posterity. This is because China was one of its sponsor nations and has been a permanent member of the Security Council.

"Second, concerning international cooperation in general. Since the surrender of Germany and Japan, relations among the Allied powers have deteriorated. In place of cooperation, there is today mutual suspicion. The Chinese people are greatly disturbed

over this state of affairs. China's policy, however, has been one of peace and cooperation. In dealing with any issue requiring international cooperation, we shall never be guilty of self-seeking or of neglecting the world's need for peace, prosperity and progress.

"In economic affairs, our industries and commerce cannot yet compare with those of other countries. However, this shall not deter us from participating in international trade and tariff agreements.

"In political matters, though we still have an armed rebellion at home and though the general educational standards of the nation are still comparatively low, we have not hesitated to participate in the Freedom of Information Conference and other projects calling for international cooperation in the social and cultural fields.

"We have regarded peace and cooperation as two of the highest ideals in international relations since the end of the recent war. The Chinese people, both those at home and others residing abroad, have maintained happy and cordial relations with the peoples of other nations. In the spirit of equality and reciprocity, they have constantly endeavored to promote friendship and mutual respect.

"It is true that for our economic recovery we shall need international assistance. But we fully realize that only through self-help could we make international aid really effective. Following the establishment of the new Government, we shall continue to adhere to our policy of international cooperation, and shall carry out a program of self-help at the same time.

"Third, concerning China's attitude toward the conclusion of peace treaties. At the time of the Japanese surrender, I declared that China would not seek revenge for what Japan had inflicted on the Chinese people. It has been my

belief that, both toward Germany and toward Japan, members of the United Nations should one and all adopt a policy of magnanimity. This should not be construed as a sign of weakness. On the contrary, reasonable magnanimity points the road to the attainment of our lofty ideals.

"In connection with Japan, we believe two points deserve attention. One, the Allied powers should do their best to foster the growth of truly democratic forces in Japan, so that there could be a genuine change in that nation's political and social systems and in the thoughts of the Japanese people with a view to uprooting Japanese militarism. Whether our policy of magnanimity will prove fruitful depends on whether our efforts are realistic. Two, China has no excessive demands to make upon Japan. After having suffered from Japanese aggression for more than eight years, China cannot but ask the other Powers to recognize that she is entitled to a special position when the Japanese peace terms are to be decided.

"The three points mentioned represent the major policies in our external relations. As Dr. Sun Yat-sen pointed out to us, the Chinese people should discharge their duties and enjoy their rights as befitting a civilized nation. This means that internationally we should seek to strengthen ourselves by our own efforts and externally to secure equality for China in the community of nations and at the same time to offer cooperation to the other nations. In this spirit, our country shall make its contributions toward upholding international righteousness and the preservation of world peace."

RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES

I. STATEMENTS OF POLICIES

On November 27, 1945, President Harry S. Truman appointed General George C. Marshall as his special envoy to China with ambassadorial rank. On December 15, 1945 he defined U. S. policy in China in the following words:

"As China moves toward peace and unity along the lines described above, the United States would be prepared to assist the National Government in every reasonable way to rehabilitate the country, improve the agrarian and industrial economy, and establish a military organization capable of dis-

charging China's national and international responsibilities for the maintenance of peace and order.

"In furtherance of such assistance, it would be prepared to give favorable consideration to Chinese requests for credits and loans under reasonable conditions for projects which would contribute toward the development of a healthy economy throughout China and healthy trade relations between China and the United States."

At a press conference held in Washington on March 11, 1948, President Truman affirmed U. S. policy toward China. While suggesting that the base of the Chinese government be broadened, he stated emphatically, however, that this policy did not mean that communists should be included. He added that he did not want communists in the Chinese government or anywhere else.

China's policy toward the United States was explicitly defined in a report made by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, then Minister of Foreign Affairs, at the first constitutional National Assembly of China on April 13, 1948:

"Sino-American friendship has both a long history and a solid basis. During the last four years, American opinion has been critical of us. Much of this adverse opinion consists of legitimate criticism but some of it is the result of malicious communist propaganda. The recent decision to continue aid to China by the United States Congress and Administration has again demonstrated the fundamental soundness of Sino-American friendship.

"Since V-J Day, the United States of America has afforded us, among other things, two major kinds of assistance: (1) She has helped our Government in repatriating two to three million Japanese, both military and civilian. Had it not been for this action, there would be an additional obstruction in our present campaign of communist suppression, (2) She helped to transport to north China and northeast China large contingents of our troops to accept surrender of Japanese troops.

"Our policy towards the United States of America is to maintain and to further the traditional friendship and cooperation that have so long characterized our relations."

2. POLITICAL

Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation—After the signing of the

New Sino-American Treaty* on January 11, 1943, the United States and China began negotiations with a view to concluding a commercial treaty. The result was the Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation which was signed in Nanking on November 4, 1946, by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, then Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Dr. J. Leighton Stuart, then U. S. Ambassador to China.

**TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP, COMMERCE
AND NAVIGATION BETWEEN THE
REPUBLIC OF CHINA AND THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**

*Signed at Nanking on
November 4, 1946*

The Republic of China and the United States of America, desirous of strengthening the bond of peace and the ties of friendship which have happily long prevailed between the two countries by arrangements designed to promote friendly intercourse between their respective territories through provisions responsive to the spiritual, cultural, economic and commercial aspirations of the peoples thereof, have resolved to conclude a Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation, and for that purpose have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China:

Dr. Wang Shih-Chieh, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China, and

Dr. Wang Hua-Cheng, Director of the Treaty Department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China; and

The President of the United States of America:

J. Leighton Stuart, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the United States of America to the Republic of China, and

Robert Lacy Smyth, Special Commissioner and Consul-General of the United States of America at Tientsin;

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers found to be in due form, have agreed upon the following Articles:

ARTICLE I

1. There shall be constant peace and firm and lasting friendship between the Republic of China and the United States of America.

2. The Government of each High Contracting Party shall have the right to send to the Government of the other High Contracting Party duly accredited diplomatic representatives, who shall be received and, upon the basis of reciprocity, shall enjoy in the territories of such other High Contracting Party the rights, privileges, exemptions and immunities accorded under generally recognized principles of international law.

ARTICLE II

1. The nationals of either High Contracting Party shall be permitted to enter the territories of the other High Contracting Party, and shall be permitted to reside, travel and carry on trade throughout the whole extent of such territories. In the enjoyment of the right to reside and travel, the nationals of either High Contracting Party shall be subject, within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, to the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, provided that they shall not be subject to unreasonable interference and that they shall not be required to apply for or carry any travel documents, other than (a) valid passports, or (b) other documents of identification issued by the competent authorities of their respective countries.

2. The nationals of either High Contracting Party shall, throughout the whole extent of the territories of the other High Contracting Party, be permitted, without interference, to engage in and to carry on commercial, manufacturing, processing, scientific, educational, religious and philanthropic activities not forbidden by the laws and regulations enforced by the duly constituted authorities; to engage in every profession not reserved exclusively to nationals of the country; to acquire, hold, erect or lease, and occupy appropriate buildings, and to lease appropriate lands, for residential, commercial, manufacturing, processing, professional, scientific, educational, religious, philanthropic and mortuary purposes; to employ agents or employees of their choice regardless of nationality; to do anything incidental to or necessary for the enjoyment of any such rights and privileges; and to exercise all these rights and privileges upon the same terms as nationals of such other High Contracting Party in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities.

* For full text of the New Sino-American Treaty, see CHINA HANDBOOK, 1943.

3. The nationals of either High Contracting Party shall not in any case, in the enjoyment of the rights and privileges provided by paragraphs 1 and 2 of this Article, receive treatment with respect to such rights and privileges less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals of any third country.

4. Nothing in this Treaty shall be construed to affect existing statutes of either High Contracting Party in relation to immigration or the right of either High Contracting Party to enact statutes relating to immigration; provided, however, that nothing in this paragraph shall prevent the nationals of either High Contracting Party from entering, traveling and residing in the territories of the other High Contracting Party in order to carry on trade between the Republic of China and the United States of America, or to engage in any commercial activity related thereto or connected therewith, upon terms as favorable as are or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals of any third country entering, traveling and residing in such territories in order to carry on trade between such other High Contracting Party and such third country or to engage in commercial activity related to or connected with such trade; and provided further that nothing in the provisions of Section 3 of the Immigration Act of the United States of America dated February 5, 1917, which delimit certain geographical zones for the purpose of restricting immigration, shall be construed as preventing admission into the United States of Chinese persons and persons of Chinese descent.

ARTICLE III

1. As used in this Treaty the term "corporations and associations" shall mean corporations, companies, partnerships and other associations, whether or not with limited liability and whether or not for pecuniary profit, which have been or may hereafter be created or organized under the applicable laws and regulations enforced by the duly constituted authorities.

2. Corporations and associations created or organized under the applicable laws and regulations enforced by the duly constituted authorities within the territories of either High Contracting Party shall be deemed to be corporations and associations of such High Contracting Party and shall have their juridical status recognized within the

territories of the other High Contracting Party, whether or not they have a permanent establishment, branch or agency therein. Corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall have the right to establish their branch offices in the territories of the other High Contracting Party and to fulfill their functions therein after they have complied with requirements of admission not inconsistent with the provisions of the following paragraph, provided that the right to exercise such functions is according to this Treaty or the exercise of such functions is otherwise consistent with the laws and regulations of such other High Contracting Party.

3. The High Contracting Parties, adhering generally to the principle of national treatment with respect to the matters enumerated in this paragraph, agree that corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall be permitted, throughout the whole extent of the territories of the other High Contracting Party, in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, to engage in and carry on commercial, manufacturing, processing, financial, scientific, educational, religious and philanthropic activities; to acquire, hold, erect or lease, and occupy appropriate buildings, and to lease appropriate lands, for commercial, manufacturing, processing, financial, scientific, educational, religious and philanthropic purposes; to employ agents or employees of their choice regardless of nationality; to do anything incidental to or necessary for the enjoyment of such rights and privileges; and to exercise all these rights and privileges, without interference, upon the same terms as corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party unless otherwise provided by the laws of that High Contracting Party. The preceding sentence, and all other provisions of this Treaty according to corporations and associations of the Republic of China rights and privileges upon the same terms as corporations and associations of the United States of America, shall be construed as according such rights and privileges, in any state, territory or possession of the United States of America, upon the same terms as such rights and privileges are or may hereafter be accorded therein to corporations and associations created or

organized in other states, territories or possessions of the United States of America.

4. Corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall not in any case, in the enjoyment of the rights and privileges provided by this Article, receive treatment with respect to such rights and privileges less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to corporations and associations of any third country.

ARTICLE IV

1. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy, throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party, rights and privileges with respect to organization of and participation in corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party, including the enjoyment of rights with respect to promotion and incorporation, the purchase, ownership and sale of shares and, in the case of nationals, the holding of executive and official positions, in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, upon the same terms as nationals, corporations and associations of any third country. Corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party, organized or participated in by nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party pursuant to the rights and privileges enumerated in this paragraph shall be permitted to exercise the functions for which they are created or organized, in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, upon the same terms as corporations and associations that are similarly organized or participated in by nationals, corporations and associations of any third country. With respect to the ownership of stock by nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party in corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party engaged in mining on public lands of such other High Contracting Party, neither High Contracting Party shall be obligated by the provisions of this paragraph to accord rights and privileges greater than those which its nationals, corporations and associations receive from the other High Contracting Party.

2. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy, throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party, and in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, the right to organize and participate in, including the right to control and manage, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party for engaging in commercial, manufacturing, processing, scientific, educational, religious and philanthropic activities; provided, however, that neither High Contracting Party shall be obligated to accord within its territories to the nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party, treatment with respect to such organization and participation, including the right to control and manage, as favorable as that which is or may hereafter be accorded to its own nationals, corporations and associations.

3. Corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party organized and participated in, including those controlled and those managed by nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party pursuant to the rights and privileges enumerated in the preceding paragraph shall be permitted to engage in and carry on such commercial, manufacturing, processing, scientific, educational, religious and philanthropic activities within the territories of the High Contracting Party under the laws of which they are organized upon the same terms as corporations and associations of such High Contracting Party organized and participated in, including those controlled and those managed, by its own nationals, corporations and associations, in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities.

ARTICLE V

Should either High Contracting Party hereafter accord rights in respect of exploration for and exploitation of mineral resources in its territories to nationals, corporations or associations of any third country, such rights shall be accorded to nationals, corporations or associations of the other High Contracting Party, in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities.

ARTICLE VI

1. Throughout the whole extent of the territories of each High Contracting Party the nationals of the other High Contracting Party shall receive the most constant protection and security for their persons and property, and shall enjoy in this respect the full protection and security required by international law. To these ends, persons accused of crime shall be brought to trial promptly, and shall enjoy all the rights and privileges which are or may hereafter be accorded by the laws and regulations enforced by the duly constituted authorities; and nationals of either High Contracting Party, while within the custody of the authorities of the other High Contracting Party, shall receive reasonable and humane treatment. In so far as the term "nationals" where used in this paragraph is applicable in relation to property, it shall be construed to include corporations and associations.

2. The property of nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall not be taken within the territories of the other High Contracting Party without due process of law and without the prompt payment of just and effective compensation. The recipient of such compensation shall, in conformity with such applicable laws and regulations as are not inconsistent with paragraph 3 of Article XIX of this Treaty, be permitted without interference to withdraw the compensation by obtaining foreign exchange, in the currency of the High Contracting Party of which such recipient is a national, corporation or association, upon the most favorable terms applicable to such currency at the time application therefor is filed, provided application is made within one year after receipt of the compensation to which it relates. The High Contracting Party allowing such withdrawal reserves the right, if it deems necessary, to allow such withdrawal in reasonable installments over a period not to exceed three years.

3. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party receive protection and security with respect to the matters enumerated in paragraphs 1 and 2 of this Article, upon compliance with the laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, no less than the protection and security which is or may hereafter

be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party and no less than that which is or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of any third country.

4. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy freedom of access to the courts of justice and to administrative tribunals and agencies in the territories of the other High Contracting Party, in all degrees of jurisdiction established by law, both in pursuit and in defense of their rights; shall be at liberty to choose and employ lawyers, interpreters and representatives in the prosecution and defense of their rights before such courts, tribunals and agencies and shall be permitted to exercise all these rights and privileges, in conformity with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, on terms no less favorable than the terms which are or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party and no less favorable than are or may hereafter be accorded to the national, corporations and associations of any third country. Moreover, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party which do not have a permanent establishment, branch or agency within the territories of the other High Contracting Party shall be permitted to exercise the rights and privileges accorded by the preceding sentence upon the filing, at any time prior to appearance before such courts, tribunals or agencies, of reasonable particulars required by the laws and regulations of such other High Contracting Party without any requirement of registration or domestication. In the case of any controversy susceptible of settlement by arbitration, which involves nationals, corporations or associations of both High Contracting Parties and is covered by a written agreement for arbitration, such agreement shall be accorded full faith and credit by the courts within the territories of each High Contracting Party, and the award or decision of the arbitrators shall be accorded full faith and credit by the courts within the territories of the High Contracting Party in which it was rendered, provided the arbitration proceedings were conducted in good faith and in conformity with the agreement for arbitration.

ARTICLE VII

The dwellings, warehouses, factories, shops, and other places of business, and all premises thereto appertaining, of the nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party, located in the territories of the other High Contracting Party, shall not be subject to unlawful entry or molestation. There shall not be made any visit to, or any search of, any such dwellings, buildings or premises, nor shall any books, papers or accounts therein be examined or inspected, except under conditions and in conformity with procedures no less favorable than the conditions and procedures prescribed for nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party under laws and regulations, of the duly constituted authorities within the territories thereof. In no case shall the nationals, corporations or associations of either High Contracting Party in the territories of the other High Contracting Party be treated less favorably with respect to the foregoing matters than the nationals, corporations or associations of any third country. Any visit, search, examination or inspection which may be permissible under the exception stated in this Article shall be made with due regard for, and in such a way as to cause the least possible interference with, the occupants of such dwellings, buildings or premises or the ordinary conduct of any business or other enterprise.

ARTICLE VIII

1. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall be permitted to acquire, hold and dispose of real and other immovable property throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party subject to the conditions and requirements as prescribed by the laws and regulations of such other High Contracting Party, and, subject to the provisions of the succeeding sentence, the treatment accorded to such nationals, corporations and associations shall not be less favorable than that accorded to nationals, corporations and associations of any third country. In the case of any state, territory or possession of the United States of America which does not now or does not hereafter permit the nationals, corporations and associations of the Republic of China to acquire, hold or dispose of real and other immovable property upon the same

terms as nationals, corporations and associations of the United States of America, the provisions of the preceding sentence shall not apply. In that case, the Republic of China shall not be obligated to accord to nationals of the United States of America domiciled in, and to corporations and associations of the United States of America created or organized under the laws of, such state, territory or possession treatment more favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded within such state, territory or possession to nationals, corporations and associations of the Republic of China.

2. If a national, corporation or association of either High Contracting Party, whether or not resident and whether or not engaged in business or other activities within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, is on account of alienage prevented by the applicable laws and regulations within such territories from succeeding as devisee, or as heir in the case of a national, to real or other immovable property situated therein, or to interests in such property, then such national, corporation or association shall be allowed a term of three years in which to sell such property or interest, this term to be reasonably prolonged if circumstances render it necessary. The transmission or receipt of such property shall be exempt from the payment of any estate, succession, probate or administrative taxes or charges other or higher than those now or hereafter imposed in like cases upon the nationals, corporations or associations of the High Contracting Party in whose territory the property is or the interests therein are situated. Moreover, such devisee or heir shall, in conformity with such applicable laws and regulations as are not inconsistent with paragraph 3 of Article XIX, be permitted without interference to withdraw the proceeds of the sale of such property, by obtaining foreign exchange, in the currency of the High Contracting Party of which the devisee is a national, corporation or association, or of which the heir is a national, during a period not in excess of three years after application therefor, upon the most favorable terms applicable to such currency at the time application for the withdrawal of such proceeds is filed, provided such application is made within one year after receipt of the proceeds of sale to which it relates.

3. Nothing in paragraphs 1 and 2 of this Article shall modify or supersede

Article IV of the Treaty of January 11, 1943, between the Republic of China and the United States of America for the Relinquishment of Extraterritorial Rights in China and the Regulation of Related Matters for the paragraph relating to that Article in the exchange of notes accompanying that Treaty.

4. The nationals of either High Contracting Party shall have full power to dispose of personal property of every kind anywhere within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, by testament, donation or otherwise, and their heirs, legatees or donees, being persons of whatever nationality or corporations or associations wherever created or organized, whether resident or non-resident and whether or not engaged in business within the territories of the High Contracting Party where such property is situated, shall succeed to such property, and shall be permitted to take possession thereof, either by themselves or by others acting for them, and to retain or dispose of it at their pleasure, exempt from any restrictions, taxes or charges other or higher than those to which the heirs, legatees or donees of nationals of such other High Contracting Party are or may hereafter be subject in like cases. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall be permitted to succeed, as heirs, legatees and donees, to personal property of every kind within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, left or given to them by nationals of such other High Contracting Party or by nationals of any third country, and shall be permitted to take possession thereof, either by themselves or by others acting for them, and to retain or dispose of it at their pleasure, exempt from any restrictions, taxes or charges other or higher than those to which the nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party are or may hereafter be subject in like cases. Nothing in this paragraph shall be construed to affect the laws and regulations of either High Contracting Party prohibiting or restricting the direct or indirect ownership by aliens or foreign corporations and associations of the shares in, or instruments of indebtedness of, corporations and associations of such High Contracting Party carrying on particular types of activities.

5. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall, subject to the exception in paragraph 2 of Article X, receive treat-

ment, in respect of all matters which relate to the acquisition, holding, leasing, possession or disposition of personal property, no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be received by nationals, corporations and associations of any third country.

ARTICLE IX

The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall be accorded within the territory of the other High Contracting Party effective protection in the exclusive use of inventions, trademarks and trade names, upon compliance with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, respecting registration and other formalities which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities; unauthorized manufacture, use or sale of such inventions, or imitation or falsification of such trademarks and trade names, shall be prohibited, and effective remedy therefor shall be provided by civil action. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall be accorded throughout the territory of the other High Contracting Party effective protection in the enjoyment of rights with respect to their literary and artistic works, upon compliance with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, respecting registration and other formalities which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities; unauthorized reproduction, sale, diffusion or use of such literary and artistic works shall be prohibited, and effective remedy therefor shall be provided by civil action. In any case, the nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy, throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party, all rights and privileges of whatever nature in regard to copyrights, patents, trademarks, trade names, and other literary, artistic and industrial property, upon compliance with the applicable laws and regulations, if any, respecting registration and other formalities which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities, upon terms no less favorable than are or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party, and, in regard to patents, trademarks, trade names and other industrial property, upon terms no less favorable than are or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of any third country.

ARTICLE X

1. The nationals of either High Contracting Party residing within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, and the nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party engaged in business or in scientific, educational, religious or philanthropic activities within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, shall not be subject to the payment of any internal taxes, fees or charges other or higher than those which are or may hereafter be imposed by laws and regulations enforced by the duly constituted authorities upon the nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party. Moreover, in the case of corporations and associations specified in the preceding sentence, such taxes, fees or charges shall not be imposed upon or measured by any income, property, capital or other criterion of measurement in excess of that reasonably allocable or apportionable to the territories of such other High Contracting Party.

2. The nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall not be subject to the payment of any internal taxes, fees or charges imposed by laws and regulations enforced by the duly constituted authorities within the territories of the other High Contracting Party other or higher than those which are or may hereafter be imposed upon the nationals, residents, corporations and associations of any third country, except that the foregoing provisions of this paragraph shall not apply to any advantage in respect of internal taxes, fees or charges which is or may hereafter be granted to the nationals, residents, corporations or associations of any third country, either (a) pursuant to legislation extending the same advantage to all countries, or to the nationals, residents, corporations or associations thereof, on the basis of reciprocity, or (b) in a treaty or other agreement concluded with such third country for the avoidance of double taxation or the mutual protection of revenue.

ARTICLE XI

Commercial travelers representing manufacturers, merchants and traders domiciled in the territories of either High Contracting Party shall, on their entry into and sojourn in the territories of the other High Contracting Party and on their departure therefrom, be

accorded treatment no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to commercial travelers of any third country in respect of customs and other privileges and, subject to the exception in paragraph 2 of Article X, in respect of all taxes and charges of whatever denomination applicable to them or to their samples.

ARTICLE XII

1. The nationals of either High Contracting Party shall, throughout the territories of the other High Contracting Party, be permitted to exercise liberty of conscience and freedom of worship and to establish schools for the education of their children, and they may, whether individually, collectively or in religious or educational corporations or associations, and without annoyance or molestation of any kind by reason of their religious belief or otherwise, conduct religious services and give religious or other instruction, either within their own houses or within any other appropriate buildings, provided that their religious and educational activities are conducted in conformity with the laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities.

2. The nationals of either High Contracting Party shall be permitted within the territories of the other High Contracting Party to bury their dead according to their religious customs in suitable and convenient places which are or may hereafter be established and maintained for the purpose, subject to the mortuary and sanitary laws and regulations, if any, which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities.

3. Places of worship and cemeteries shall be held in respect and free from disturbance or profanation.

ARTICLE XIII

With respect to that form of protection granted within the territories of either High Contracting Party by the applicable laws establishing civil liability for bodily injuries or for death, and giving to relatives or heirs or dependents of an injured person a right of action or a pecuniary compensation, such relatives or heirs or dependents of the injured person, himself a national of either High Contracting Party and injured within any of the territories of the other High Contracting Party, shall, regardless of their alienage or residence

outside of the territory where the injury occurred, enjoy the same rights and privileges as are or may hereafter be granted under like conditions to nationals of such other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE XIV

1. The nationals of each High Contracting Party shall be exempt from compulsory military or naval training or service under the jurisdiction of the other High Contracting Party, and shall also be exempt from all contributions in money or in kind imposed in lieu thereof.

2. During any period of time when both of the High Contracting Parties are, through military or naval action in connection with which there is general compulsory military or naval service, (a) enforcing measures against the same third country or countries in pursuance of obligations for the maintenance of international peace and security, or (b) concurrently conducting hostilities against the same third country or countries, provisions of paragraph 1 of this Article shall not apply. However, in such an event the nationals of either High Contracting Party in the territory of the other High Contracting Party, who have not declared their intention to acquire the nationality of such other High Contracting Party, shall be exempt from military or naval service under the jurisdiction of such other High Contracting Party if within a reasonable time prior to their induction for such service they elect, in lieu of such service, to enter the military or naval service of the High Contracting Party of which they are nationals. In any such situation the High Contracting Parties will make the necessary arrangements for giving effect to the provisions of this paragraph.

3. Nothing in this Article shall be construed to affect the right of either High Contracting Party to debar from acquiring its citizenship any person who seeks and obtains exemption in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 1 or 2 of this Article.

ARTICLE XV

The High Contracting Parties reaffirm their adherence to a program of purposes and policies, open to participation by all other countries of like mind, designed to bring about an expansion of international trade on a broad basis, and directed to the elimination of all forms

of discriminatory treatment and monopolistic restrictions in international commerce.

ARTICLE XVI

1. In all matters relating to (a) customs duties and subsidiary charges of every kind imposed on imports or exports and in the method of levying such duties and charges, (b) the rules, formalities, and charges imposed in connection with the clearing of articles through the customs, and (c) the taxation, sale, distribution or use within the country of imported articles and of articles intended for exportation, each High Contracting Party shall accord to articles the growth, produce or manufacture of the other High Contracting Party, from whatever place arriving, or to articles destined for exportation to the territories of such other High Contracting Party, by whatever route, treatment no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to like articles the growth, produce or manufacture of, or destined for, any third country. If the Government of either High Contracting Party requires documentary proof of origin of imported articles, the requirements imposed therefor shall be reasonable and shall not be such as to constitute an unnecessary hindrance to indirect trade.

2. With respect to the matters referred to in paragraph 1 of this Article, the nationals, corporations and associations, vessels and cargoes of either High Contracting Party shall be accorded, within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, treatment no less favorable than is or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and association, vessels and cargoes of any third country. In all matters relating to (a) customs duties and subsidiary charges of every kind imposed on imports or exports and the method of levying such duties and charges, (b) the rules, formalities, and charges imposed in connection with the clearing of articles through the customs, and (c) taxation within the country of imported articles and of articles intended for exportation, the nationals, corporations and associations of either High Contracting Party shall be accorded, within the territories of the other High Contracting Party, treatment no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party.

3. No prohibition or restriction of any kind shall be imposed by either High Contracting Party on the importation, sale, distribution or use of any article the growth, produce or manufacture of the other High Contracting Party, or on the exportation of any article destined for the territories of the other High Contracting Party, unless the importation, sale, distribution or use of the like article the growth, produce or manufacture of all third countries, or the exportation of the like article to all third countries, respectively, is similarly prohibited or restricted.

4. If the Government of either High Contracting Party imposes any quantitative regulation on the importation or exportation of any article, or on the sale, distribution or use of any imported article, it shall as a customary practice give public notice of the total quantity or value of such article permitted to be imported, exported, sold, distributed or used during a specified period, and of any change in such quantity or value. Furthermore, if either High Contracting Party allots a share of such total quantity or value to any third country, it shall allot to the other High Contracting Party, with respect to any article in which the latter has an important interest, unless it is mutually agreed to dispense with such an allotment, a share based upon the proportion of the total quantity or value supplied by, or in the case of exports a share based upon the proportion exported to, the territories of such other High Contracting Party during a representative period, account being taken in so far as practicable of any special factors which may have affected or may be affecting the trade in that article. The provisions of this paragraph relating to imported articles shall also apply in respect of limitations upon the quantity or value of any article permitted to be imported free of duty or tax, or at a specified rate of duty or tax.

ARTICLE XVII

1. Laws, regulations of administrative authorities and decisions of administrative or judicial authorities of each High Contracting Party pertaining to the classification of articles for customs purposes or to rates of duty shall be published promptly in such a manner as to enable traders to become acquainted with them. Such laws, regulations and decisions shall be applied uniformly at all ports of the respective High Contracting Parties except as is or may

hereafter be otherwise specifically provided for in statutes of either High Contracting Party with respect to the importation of articles into its insular territories and possessions.

2. No administrative ruling by the Government of either High Contracting Party effecting advances in rates of duties or charges applicable under an established and uniform practice to imports originating in the territories of the other High Contracting Party, or imposing any new requirement with respect to such importations, shall as a general rule be applied to articles the growth, produce or manufacture of the other High Contracting Party already en route at the time of publication thereof in accordance with paragraph 1; provided that, if either High Contracting Party customarily exempts from such new or increased obligations articles entered for consumption or withdrawn from warehouse for consumption during a period of thirty days after the date of such publication, such practice shall be considered full compliance with this paragraph. The provisions of this paragraph shall not apply to administrative orders imposing antidumping duties, or relating to regulations for the protection of human, animal or plant life or health, or relating to public safety, or giving effect to judicial decisions.

3. Each High Contracting Party shall provide some procedure, administrative, judicial or otherwise, under which the nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party, and importers of articles the growth, produce or manufacture of such other High Contracting Party, shall be permitted to appeal against fines and penalties imposed upon them by the customs authorities, confiscations by such authorities and rulings of such authorities on questions of customs classification and of valuation of articles for customs purposes. Greater than nominal penalties shall not be imposed by either High Contracting Party in connection with any importation by the nationals, corporations or associations of the other High Contracting Party, or in connection with the importation of articles the growth, produce or manufacture of such other High Contracting Party, because of errors in documentation which are obviously clerical in origin or with regard to which good faith can be established.

4. The Government of each High Contracting Party will accord sympathetic consideration to such representations as

the Government of the other High Contracting Party may make with respect to the operation or administration of import or export prohibitions or restrictions, quantitative regulations, customs regulations or formalities, or sanitary laws or regulations for the protection of human, animal or plant life or health.

ARTICLE XVIII

1. Articles the growth, produce or manufacture of either High Contracting Party, imported into the territories of the other High Contracting Party, shall be accorded treatment with respect to all matters affecting internal taxation no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to like articles the growth, produce or manufacture of such other High Contracting Party.

2. Articles grown, produced or manufactured within the territories of either High Contracting Party in whole or in part by nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party, or by corporations and associations organized or participated in by such nationals, corporations and associations, shall be accorded within such territories treatment with respect to all matters affecting internal taxation, or exportation from such territories, no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to like articles grown, produced or manufactured therein in whole or in part by nationals, corporations and associations of the High Contracting Party within the territories of which the articles are grown, produced or manufactured, or by corporations and associations organized or participated in by such nationals, corporations and associations. The articles specified in the preceding sentence shall not in any case receive treatment less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to like articles grown, produced or manufactured in whole or in part by nationals, corporations and associations of any third country, or by corporations and associations organized or participated in by such nationals, corporations and associations.

ARTICLE XIX

1. If the Government of either High Contracting Party establishes or maintains any form of control of the means of international payment or of international financial transactions, it shall accord fair and equitable treatment to

the nationals, corporations and associations and commerce of the other High Contracting Party with respect to all aspects of such control.

2. The Government establishing or maintaining such control shall impose no prohibition, restriction or delay on the transfer of payment for any article the growth, produce or manufacture of the other High Contracting Party which is not imposed on the transfer of payment for the like article the growth, produce or manufacture of any third country. With respect to the rates of exchange and with respect to taxes or charges on exchange transactions, articles the growth, produce or manufacture of the other High Contracting Party shall be accorded treatment no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to like articles the growth, produce or manufacture of any third country. The provisions of this paragraph shall also extend to the application of such control to payments necessary for or incidental to the importation of articles the growth, produce or manufacture of the other High Contracting Party. In general, any such control shall be administered so as not to influence to the disadvantage of the other High Contracting Party the competitive relationships between articles the growth, produce or manufacture of such other High Contracting Party and like articles the growth, produce or manufacture of any third country.

3. In all that relates to the transfer of profits, dividends, interest, payments for imported articles, and of other funds, to loans and to any other international financial transactions, either between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties or between the territories of the High Contracting Party the Government of which establishes or maintains the control referred to in paragraph 1 of this Article and the territories of any third country, the Government establishing or maintaining the control shall accord to the nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party treatment no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to its own nationals, corporations and associations, and no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of any third country which make or receive like transfers and loans, and which are parties to like transactions, between the

territories of the same two countries. Moreover, the Government establishing or maintaining such control shall accord to the nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party, in all that relates to any such transfers, loans and other transactions between the territories of the two High Contracting Parties, treatment no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations of any third country which make or receive like transfers and loans, and which are parties to like transactions, between the territories of the High Contracting Party the Government of which establishes or maintains the control and the territories of such third country. The treatment accorded by this paragraph shall apply to the rates of exchange and to any prohibition, restriction, delay tax or other charge on the transfers, loans and other transactions covered by this paragraph; and such treatment shall apply whether the transfers, loans and other transactions take place directly or through an intermediary or intermediaries in a country or countries not parties to this Treaty. In general, any such control shall be administered so as not to influence to the disadvantage of the other High Contracting Party the competitive relationships between the nationals, corporations and associations of such other High Contracting Party and the nationals, corporations and associations of any third country.

ARTICLE XX

1. If the Government of either High Contracting Party establishes or maintains a monopoly or public agency for the importation, exportation, purchase, sale, distribution or production of any article, or grants exclusive privileges to any agency to import, export, purchase, sell, distribute or produce any article, such monopoly or agency shall accord to the commerce of the other High Contracting Party fair and equitable treatment in respect of its purchases or articles the growth, produce or manufacture of foreign countries and its sales of articles destined for foreign countries. To this end the monopoly or agency shall, in making such purposes or sales of any article, be influenced solely by considerations, such as price, quality, marketability, transportation and terms of purchase or sale, which would ordinarily be taken into account by a private commercial enterprise interested

solely in purchasing or selling such article on the most favorable terms. If the Government of either High Contracting Party establishes or maintains a monopoly or agency for the sale of any service or grants exclusive privileges to any agency to sell any service, such monopoly or agency shall accord fair and equitable treatment to the other High Contracting Party and to the nationals, corporations, associations and commerce thereof in respect of transactions involving such services as compared with the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to any third country and to the nationals, corporations, associations and commerce thereof.

2 The Government of each High Contracting Party, in the awarding of concessions and other contracts, and in the purchasing of supplies, shall accord fair and equitable treatment to the nationals, corporations and associations and to the commerce of the other High Contracting Party as compared with the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to the nationals, corporations and associations and to the commerce of any third country.

ARTICLE XXI

1. Between the territories of the High Contracting Parties there shall be freedom of commerce and navigation.

2. Vessels under the flag of either High Contracting Party, and carrying the papers required by its national law in proof of nationality, shall be deemed to be vessels of that High Contracting Party both within the ports, places and waters of the other High Contracting Party and on the high seas. As used in this Treaty, "vessels" shall be construed to include all vessels of either High Contracting Party whether privately owned or operated or publicly owned or operated. However, the provisions of this Treaty other than this paragraph and paragraph 5 of Article XXII shall not be construed to accord rights to vessels of war or fishing vessels of the other High Contracting Party; nor shall they be construed to extend to the nationals, corporations and associations, vessels and cargoes of, or to articles the growth, produce or manufacture of, such other High Contracting Party any special privileges restricted to national fisheries or to the products thereof.

3. The vessels of either High Contracting Party shall have liberty, equally with the vessels of any third country, to come with their cargoes to all ports,

places and waters of the other High Contracting Party which are or may hereafter be open to foreign commerce and navigation.

ARTICLE XXII

1. The vessels and cargoes of either High Contracting Party shall, within the ports, places and waters of the other High Contracting Party, in all respects be accorded treatment no less favorable than the treatment accorded to the vessels and cargoes of such other High Contracting Party, irrespective of the port of departure or the port of destination of the vessel, and irrespective of the origin or the destination of the cargo.

2. No duties of tonnage, harbor, pilotage, lighthouse, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties or charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied in the name or for the profit of the government, public functionaries, private individuals, corporations or establishments of any kind, shall be imposed in the ports, places and waters of either High Contracting Party upon the vessels of the other High Contracting Party, which shall not equally and under the same conditions be imposed upon national vessels.

3. No charges upon passengers, passenger fares or tickets, freight moneys paid or to be paid, bills of lading, contracts of insurance or re-insurance, no conditions relating to the employment of ship brokers, of whatever nationality, and no other charges or conditions of any kind, shall be imposed in a way tending to accord any advantage to vessels of either High Contracting Party as compared with the vessels of the other High Contracting Party.

4. Within the ports, places and waters of each High Contracting Party which are or may hereafter be open to foreign commerce and navigation, competent pilots shall be made available to take the vessels of the other High Contracting Party into and out of such ports, places and waters.

5. If a vessel of either High Contracting Party shall be forced by stress of weather or by reason of any other distress to take refuge in any of the ports, places or waters of the other High Contracting Party not open to foreign commerce and navigation, it shall receive friendly treatment and assistance and such supplies and materials for repair as may be necessary and available. This paragraph shall apply to vessels of war and fishing vessels,

as well as to vessels as defined in paragraph 2 of Article XXI.

6. In no case shall the treatment accorded to the vessels and cargoes of either High Contracting Party with respect to the matters referred to in this Article be less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to the vessels and cargoes of any third country.

ARTICLE XXIII

1. It shall be permissible, in the vessels of either High Contracting Party, to import into the territories of the other High Contracting Party, or to export therefrom, all articles which it is or may hereafter be permissible to import into such territories, or to export therefrom, in the vessels of such other High Contracting Party, without being liable to any other or higher duties or charges whatsoever than if such articles were imported or exported in vessels of such other High Contracting Party.

2. Bounties, drawbacks and other privileges of this nature of whatever kind or denomination which are or may hereafter be allowed, in the territories of either High Contracting Party, on articles imported or exported in national vessels shall also and in like manner be allowed on articles imported or exported in vessels of the other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE XXIV

1. Vessels of either High Contracting Party shall be permitted to discharge portions of cargoes at any ports, places or waters of the other High Contracting Party which are or may hereafter be open to foreign commerce and navigation, and to proceed with the remaining portions of such cargoes to any other such ports, places or waters, without paying other or higher tonnage dues or port charges in such cases than would be paid by national vessels in like circumstances, and they shall be permitted to load in like manner, in the same voyage outward, at the various ports, places and waters which are or may hereafter be open to foreign commerce and navigation. The vessels and cargoes of either High Contracting Party shall be accorded, with respect to the matters referred to in this paragraph, treatment in the ports, places and waters of the other High Contracting Party no less favorable than the treatment which is or may hereafter be accorded to the vessels and cargoes of any third country.

2. Should either High Contracting Party accord the rights of inland navigation or coasting trade to vessels of any third country such rights would similarly be accorded to the vessels of the other High Contracting Party. The coasting trade and inland navigation of each High Contracting Party are excepted from the requirement of national treatment and are to be regulated according to the laws of each High Contracting Party in relation thereto. It is agreed, however, that vessels of either High Contracting Party shall enjoy within the territory of the other High Contracting Party with respect to the coasting trade and inland navigation treatment as favorable as the treatment accorded to the vessels of any third country. Trade between either High Contracting Party and its insular territories or possessions shall be considered coasting trade within the meaning of this paragraph.

ARTICLE XXV

There shall be freedom of transit through the territories of each High Contracting Party by the routes most convenient for international transit (a) for persons, whether or not they are nationals of the other High Contracting Party, together with their baggage, directly or indirectly coming from or going to the territories of such other High Contracting Party, (b) for persons who are nationals of the other High Contracting Party, together with their baggage, regardless of whether they are coming from or going to the territories of such other High Contracting Party, and (c) for articles directly or indirectly coming from or going to the territories of such other High Contracting Party. Such persons, baggage and articles in transit shall not be subject to any transit duty, to any unnecessary delays or restrictions, or to any discrimination in respect of charges, facilities or any other matter; and all charges and regulations prescribed in respect of such persons, baggage or articles shall be reasonable, having regard to the conditions of the traffic. Except as may hereafter be agreed by the High Contracting Parties with respect to non-stop flight by aircraft, the Government of either High Contracting Party may require that such baggage and articles be entered at the proper customs house and that they be kept in customs custody whether or not under bond; but such baggage and articles shall be exempt from all customs duties or similar

charges if such requirements for entry and retention in customs custody are complied with and if they are exported within one year and satisfactory evidence of such exportation is presented to the customs authorities. Such nationals, baggage, persons and articles shall be accorded treatment with respect to all charges, rules and formalities in connection with transit no less favorable than the treatment accorded to the nationals of any third country, together with their baggage, or to persons and articles coming from or going to the territories of any third country.

ARTICLE XXVI

1. Nothing in this Treaty shall be construed to prevent the adoption or enforcement of measures:

(a) relating to the importation or exportation of gold or silver;

(b) relating to the traffic in arms, ammunition and implements of war, and, in exceptional circumstances, all other military supplies;

(c) relating to the exportation of national treasures of historical, archaeological or artistic value;

(d) necessary in pursuance of obligations for the maintenance of international peace and security, or for the protection of the essential interests of the country in time of national emergency; or

(e) imposing exchange restrictions in conformity with the Articles of Agreement of the International Monetary Fund, signed December 27, 1945, so long as the High Contracting Party imposing the restrictions is a member of the Fund, provided that neither High Contracting Party shall utilize its privileges under section 3 of Article VI or section 2 of Article XIV of such Agreement in such a manner as to impair any of the provisions of this Treaty.

2. Subject to the requirement that, under like circumstances and conditions, there shall be no arbitrary discrimination by either High Contracting Party against the other High Contracting Party or against the nationals, corporations, associations, vessels or commerce thereof, in favor of any third country or the nationals, corporations, associations, vessels or commerce thereof, the provisions of this Treaty shall not extend to prohibitions or restrictions:

(a) imposed on moral or humanitarian grounds;

(b) designed to protect human, animal, or plant life or health;

(c) relating to prison-made goods; or

(d) relating to the enforcement of police or revenue laws.

3. The provisions of this Treaty according treatment no less favorable than the treatment accorded to any third country shall not apply to:

(a) advantages which are or may hereafter be accorded to adjacent countries in order to facilitate frontier traffic;

(b) advantages accorded by virtue of a customs union of which either High Contracting Party may, after consultation with the Government of the other High Contracting Party, become a member so long as such advantages are not extended to any country which is not a member of such customs union; or

(c) advantages accorded to third countries pursuant to a multi-lateral convention of general applicability, including a trade area of substantial size, having as its objective the liberalization and promotion of international trade or other international economic intercourse, and open to adoption by all the United Nations.

4. The stipulations of this Treaty do not extend to advantages now accorded or which may hereafter be accorded by the United States of America, its territories or possessions or the Panama Canal Zone to one another, to the Republic of Cuba, or to the Republic of the Philippines. The provisions of this paragraph shall continue to apply in respect of any advantages which are or may hereafter be accorded by the United States of America, its territories or possessions or the Panama Canal Zone to one another, irrespective of any change which may take place in the political status of any of the territories or possessions of the United States of America.

5. The provisions of this Treaty shall not be construed to accord any rights or privileges to corporations and associations engaged in political activities or with respect to the organization of or participation in such corporations and associations. Moreover, each High Contracting Party reserves the right to deny any of the rights and privileges accorded by this Treaty to any corporation or association created or organized under the laws and regulations of the other High Contracting Party which is directly or indirectly owned or controlled, through majority stock ownership or otherwise, by nationals, cor-

porations or associations of any third country or countries.

ARTICLE XXVII

Subject to any limitation or exception provided in this Treaty or hereafter agreed upon between the Governments of the High Contracting Parties, the territories of the High Contracting Parties to which the provisions of this Treaty extend shall be understood to comprise all areas of land and water under the sovereignty or authority of either High Contracting Party, except the Panama Canal Zone.

ARTICLE XXVIII

Any dispute between the Governments of the two High Contracting Parties as to the interpretation or the application of this Treaty, which the High Contracting Parties cannot satisfactorily adjust by diplomacy, shall be submitted to the International Court of Justice unless the High Contracting Parties shall agree to settlement by some other pacific means.

ARTICLE XXIX

1. This Treaty shall, upon its entry into force, supersede provisions of the following treaties between the Republic of China and the United States of America in so far as such provisions have not previously been terminated:

(a) Treaty of Peace, Amity and Commerce, signed at Wanghia, July 3, 1844;

(b) Treaty of Peace, Amity and Commerce, signed at Tientsin, June 18, 1858;

(c) Treaty Establishing Trade Regulations and Tariff, signed at Shanghai, November 8, 1858;

(d) Treaty of Trade, Consuls and Emigration, signed at Washington, July, 28, 1868;

(e) Immigration Treaty, signed at Peking, November 17, 1880;

(f) Treaty as to Commercial Inter-course and Judicial Procedure, signed at Peking, November 17, 1880;

(g) Treaty as to Commercial Relations, signed at Shanghai, October 8, 1903;

(h) Treaty Establishing Rates of Duty on Imports Into China, signed at Washington, October 20, 1920; and

(i) Treaty Regulating Tariff Relations, signed at Peiping, July 25, 1928.

2. Nothing in this Treaty shall be construed to limit or restrict in any way the rights, privileges and advantages accorded by the Treaty for the Relinquishment of Extraterritorial Rights in

China and the Regulation Related Matters and accompanying exchange of notes between the Republic of China and the United States of America signed at Washington on January 11, 1943.

ARTICLE XXX

1. This Treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at Nanking as soon as possible.

2. This Treaty shall enter into force on the day of the exchange of ratifications, and shall continue in force for a period of five years from that day.

3. Unless one year before the expiration of the aforesaid period of five years the Government of either High Contracting Party shall have given notice to the Government of the other High Contracting Party of intention to terminate this Treaty upon the expiration of the aforesaid period, the Treaty shall continue in force thereafter until one year from the date on which notice of intention to terminate it shall have been given by either High Contracting Party.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed this Treaty and have affixed hereunto their seals.

DONE in duplicate, in the Chinese and English languages, both equally authentic, at Nanking, this fourth day of the eleventh month of the thirty-fifth year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the fourth day of November, one thousand nine hundred and forty-six.

PROTOCOL

At the moment of signing this day the Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation between the Republic of China and the United States of America, the undersigned plenipotentiaries have agreed upon the present Protocol which shall have the same validity as if provisions were inserted in the text of the Treaty to which it refers:

1. The provisions of Article II, paragraph 1, shall not be deemed to affect the right of either High Contracting Party to enforce statutes prescribing reasonable requirements concerning the registration of aliens within its territories, it being understood that identity cards which are now or may hereafter be required by the duly constituted authorities of such High Contracting Party shall be valid throughout the entire extent of the territories of that High Contracting Party, and that treatment accorded to nationals of such other High

Contracting Party with respect to such requirements shall not be less favorable than that accorded to nationals of any third country.

2. (a) Without prejudice to rights given elsewhere in the Treaty, Article II, paragraph 2, refers only to rights and privileges to be enjoyed by nationals of either High Contracting Party as individuals, and shall not be construed to imply the right of such nationals to form corporations or associations on the same terms as nationals of the other High Contracting Party.

(b) The words "not forbidden by the laws and regulations enforced by the duly constituted authorities," as used in Article II, paragraph 2, shall be construed to mean such prohibitory laws and regulations as are applicable alike to nationals of the country and to nationals of the other High Contracting Party.

3. Rights in respect of "exploration for and exploitation of" mineral resources as referred to in Article V shall be construed to mean the rights to conduct mining enterprises and operations, as distinct from the ownership by nationals, corporations or associations of one High Contracting Party of interests in corporations or associations of the other High Contracting Party which are or may be engaged in mining operations in the territory of such other High Contracting Party.

4. The provisions of Article VIII, paragraph 1, shall not be construed to limit in any way rights or privileges accorded in other provisions of the Treaty with respect to real or other immovable property.

5. (a) The word "unauthorized," as used in Article IX, shall be construed to mean unauthorized by the owner of the industrial, literary or artistic property in any given case.

(b) The provision in the first sentence and in the second sentence of Article IX, that "effective remedy therefor shall be provided by civil action" shall not be construed to preclude remedies by other than civil action if such remedies are provided for by laws and regulations which are or may hereafter be enforced by the duly constituted authorities.

(c) So long as the laws and regulations of either High Contracting Party do not accord to its own nationals, corporations and associations protection against translations, the provisions of the third sentence of Article IX shall not be construed to obligate that High

Contracting Party to accord to nationals, corporations or associations of the other High Contracting Party protection against translations.

6. Without prejudice to rights which are otherwise enjoyed or may hereafter be enjoyed, the word "grown" as used in Article XVIII, paragraph 2, shall not be construed to confer any right upon nationals, corporations or associations of either High Contracting Party to engage in agriculture within the territories of the other High Contracting Party.

7. The words "international financial transactions," as used in Article XIX, paragraph 3, shall be construed to include importation or exportation of paper money and governmental securities, it being understood that each High Contracting Party retains the right to adopt or enforce measures relating to such importation or exportation, provided the measures do not discriminate against nationals, corporations and associations of the other High Contracting Party in a manner contrary to the provisions of that paragraph.

8. The concluding sentence of paragraph 1 of Article XX shall not be construed to apply to postal services.

9. The words "gold or silver," as used in Article XXVI, paragraph 1, shall be construed to include bullion and coin.

10. Advantages which are or may hereafter be accorded by the United States of America, its territories or possessions or the Panama Canal Zone to one another or to the Republic of Cuba or to the Republic of the Philippines as stipulated in Article XXVI, paragraph 4, whenever extended to any other country, shall similarly be extended to the Republic of China.

WANG SHIH-CHIEH
WANG HUA-CHENG
J. LEIGHTON STUART
ROBERT LACY SYMTH

Marshall Mission—Following Major-General Patrick J. Hurley's resignation as Ambassador to China on November 27, 1945, President Truman appointed General Marshall as his special envoy to China to mediate between the Chinese Government and the Chinese Communists and to bring them together in a coalition government. He arrived in Chungking on December 22, 1945. His mission ended on January 8, 1947 when he left Nanking for the United States. By January 29, 1947, the U. S. Government announced the abandonment of its effort at mediation.

Dr. Stuart Nominated Ambassador—Dr. John Leighton Stuart, president of Yenching University in Peiping, was nominated on July 9, 1946 by President Truman as U. S. Ambassador to China. He presented his credentials to President Chiang on July 19, 1946.

General Wedemeyer's Visit—On July 11, 1947, President Truman appointed Lieutenant-General Albert C. Wedemeyer head of a fact-finding mission to China and Korea. After his arrival in Nanking on July 22, 1947, General Wedemeyer proceeded to various Chinese cities for observation. He left Nanking on August 24, 1947 after completing his work in China.

At the beginning of his mission, General Wedemeyer remarked that an analysis of events transpiring in China during the decade 1927-37 indicated that many constructive steps had been undertaken by the Chinese Government in the political, economic, educational and social spheres, which would have made China a strong and unified country but for the interruption of the war. In order to facilitate the work of his mission, he wished that the government could furnish him with a statement setting forth the reconstruction measures after V-J Day. A statement outlining China's postwar difficulties, reconstruction programs, and work was duly prepared by the Chinese Government and handed to General Wedemeyer on August 16, 1947.

A GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE WORK AND POLICY OF THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT AUGUST 16, 1947

In a statement sent to the Chinese Government shortly after his arrival in China, in August 1947, General A. C. Wedemeyer, Special Representative of the President of the United States, remarked that analysis of events transpiring in China during the decade 1927-1937 indicated that many constructive steps had been undertaken by the Chinese Government in the political, economic, educational and social spheres, which would have made China a strong and unified country but for the interruption of the war. In order to facilitate the work of his mission, he wished that the Government could furnish some statement setting forth the measures it had taken since V-J Day to resume its efforts towards establishing a stable political and economic structure in China. Consequently, the Chinese Government

handed to General Wedemeyer on August 16, 1947 the following statement:

I

On V-J Day, the Chinese Government found itself confronted with the following problems:

1. The question of the Chinese Communists, who were maintaining a regular armed force of 310,000 men in addition to a larger number of their so-called "militia." The presence of a large number of yet unsundered and undisarmed Japanese and puppet government troops in Manchuria was offering opportunities to the Chinese Communists to acquire more and better equipment.

2. An inflation, which had developed during the long years of war and was threatening the economic life of the nation.

3. The complete standstill of over 90 percent of China's railways and the acute shortage of inland shipping, which made the work of repatriation and of restoring order in areas formerly held by Japanese or puppet troops extremely difficult, and rendered it impossible for many pre-war industries to revive even though the plants were partially recovered.

4. The need for the rehabilitation of rural economy after eight years of neglect and destruction during enemy occupation resulting in widespread shortage of farm labor, livestock and fertilizers and in consequence critical reduction of agricultural production. The total annual production of cotton, for example, was reduced to about 5,320,000 piculs or *shih tan*, one-third of the 1937 level, which was 16,180,000 piculs or *shih tan*.

5. There were in China proper more than 1,000,000 Japanese soldiers and approximately an equal number in Manchuria; 600,000 puppet government troops scattered in various parts of China proper and another 330,000 of them in Manchuria; and as a result of Soviet participation in the Far Eastern war, a large Soviet force estimated at 600,000 to 700,000 men deployed in different parts of Manchuria.

6. And, last but by no means the least, the question of the fulfillment of commitments made by the Government, before and during the war, of the convocation of the National Assembly, the drafting and adoption of a national constitution, the return by the Kuomintang of the responsibility of government to the people, the termination of one-party rule, and the lifting of censorship.

These were the most difficult problems that the Government had to deal with all at once on V-J Day. The weight of responsibility that so suddenly fell on the Government was far greater than the Government machine then existing could adequately cope with. Not only were the tasks in themselves heavy and complicated but they were also in many cases new to the experience of the Government.

II

In the repatriation of Japanese soldiers and civilians and in the timely dispatch of Chinese troops by air and by sea to many areas to take over from the enemy, the Chinese Government was substantially aided by the U. S. forces in China. Credit must also be given to UNRRA and CNRRA for their contribution toward the solution of many problems in connection with the repatriation of displaced persons and such relief and rehabilitation work as could be undertaken immediately. Meanwhile, the Government itself was tackling all the problems it could in the circumstances. (1) It set about reorganizing the army and reducing the national budget. (2) An immediate attempt was made following V-J Day to restore communication systems, such as railways, highways, waterways, public utility services and conservancy works. (3) Mines and iron works (including a number of those the equipment of which had been largely removed by the Soviet Army from Manchuria or destroyed by the Communists) were re-opened, and textile and other precarious industries were salvaged. (4) Efforts were made afresh to lay down the foundations for local self-government, such as the re-organizing and restaffing of municipal and *hsien* offices, the organization of *pao-chia* system in villages and towns, and the rehabilitation of schools of various grades. (5) Wherever practicable, measures were also taken to revitalize rural economy. In the case of cotton, the extension work carried out by the Government in the past one-and-a-half years is now expected to result in a production of 11,000,000 piculs or *shih tan* this year, a 100 percent increase over the production for the year of the V-J Day. Each of these jobs involved considerable administration, funds and personnel.

When one assesses the work of the Government in this period one should bear in mind the fact that social institutions in China were not yet fully adapted to modern conditions, that a large portion of her territory was under enemy occupation for many years, and that the new

economic foundations that had been prepared since 1927 were impaired by the enemy. The immensity and complexity of the task of recovery that followed in the wake of victory must be taken into account.

There can be no doubt that the Government would have achieved greater results and China's politico-economic position would be brighter if the greater part of the Government's constructive effort had not been thwarted at each turn by the non-settlement of the Communist issue and the continuance of the wartime legacy—inflation.

The infiltration of the Chinese Communists into Manchuria during and following the Soviet occupation constituted a new factor in the Communist impasse after V-J Day. The armed opposition of the Communists was the greatest single destructive force against all the efforts of the Government in carrying out rehabilitation and in restoring law and order, particularly in areas formerly held by the Japanese. When every possible effort was being made, for instance, to restore the main communication lines, mobile Communist squads were actively engaged in demolition work, disrupting newly repaired railways, cutting telegraph and telephone lines, and causing havoc in the countryside.

As a result of the inability on the part of the Chinese Government to disarm and accept surrender from the large number of Japanese and puppet government troops in Manchuria, the attitude of the Communists toward the Government became increasingly challenging and uncompromising. After the meeting of the National Assembly last November-December, the Communists openly denounced the adopted constitution. It was then clear that all hopes of a political settlement had gone. For by that time the Communists had decided on the immediate launching of a large-scale military offensive. No one could feel more profoundly disappointed than the Government itself at such a turn of events, at a time when so much reconstruction work called for its undivided attention and immediate action.

While the Communist issue remained unsettled, the plan for army reorganization could not materialize owing to Communist obstruction, thus hampering the reduction of the armed forces. As a result, a policy of retrenchment in national budget could not be put into effect, and inflation developed to such an extent as to threaten every fabric of our political and economic life. It led to the lowering of the efficiency of the Government adminis-

tration and the undermining of the morale of the Army. The bulk of the civil servants were not paid enough to meet even the requirements of a bare subsistence. As a result, many government employees were forced to seek concurrent work in order to maintain their living, while others turned to more lucrative jobs.

To this day there has been no substantial improvement in the treatment of these long-suffering civil servants. However, considering the straitened circumstances of the civil servants in general, it is astonishing to find that the great bulk of them are carrying on without failing in their duties. The loyalty of these people recalls to mind the stolid endurance of the Chinese masses who bore the brunt of the long war against Japanese aggression.

III

Whatever one may say of the National Government in China, one cannot possibly accuse it of not having steadily pursued the preparatory work for a democratic government as laid down by their leader Dr. Sun Yat-sen. It has always been the unanimous opinion of the leaders of the Kuomintang that unless it could lead the nation into a multi-party and representative government, it could not be said to be in any way carrying out the principles on which the Party was founded. No one of any importance in the Party has ever questioned the need to terminate the so-called "period of political tutelage" as soon as the basic conditions stated by Dr. Sun have been fulfilled. In this respect, the Party, as a whole, never once swerved from its aim.

When Sino-Japanese hostilities broke out in 1937, the momentous decision to resist the enemy was accompanied by a nation-wide effort to preserve, as far as possible, the political and economic foundation that had been laid since 1927. Above all, the general opinion of the Party was such that the interlude of war should not nullify the preparatory work for representative government that had already been undertaken.

In 1938, the People's Political Council was founded to provide a broader basis of representative opinion for the guidance of government policy. Except for matters of military strategy and security, the Council served as a war-time organ of public opinion. Here, in the midst of a life-and-death struggle, the National Government decided to invite and accept open questions and criticisms and thus to promote representative government. This invaluable tradition has happily continued to this day. Although the 200 members

of the first People's Political Council were all elected by the Government from different professions and on the basis of geographical distribution, it was widely acknowledged to be a fairly representative body of the politically conscious sections of the country. Early in 1940, the second People's Political Council met with 240 members, of whom 90 were for the first time elected by the various Provisional Provincial and Municipal Councils, both on a regional and a professional basis. When the third People's Political Council met in 1942, 164 out of the total 240 members were elected by the Provincial and Municipal Councils. Today, the People's Political Council, in the last phase of its existence, has 362 members of whom 227 are elected by Provincial and Municipal Councils.

In September, 1938, two months after the first People's Political Council had its inaugural meeting, the National Government promulgated the Regulations of the Provisional Provincial Council. Today, such councils have been organized in nearly all the provinces. Here again, the percentage of elected councillors was increased after each meeting, so that in many provinces the members of such Councils are now entirely elected representatives. The municipal and *hsien* councils have also been conducted along the same lines. Thus, while the war was being fought and its priority acknowledged, no effort was spared in preserving the continuity of the effort towards the building up of basic democratic institutions and practices.

Shortly after V-J Day, press censorship was lifted in spite of the existence of a number of factors which might still have argued for its continuance. The National Assembly was convened in November and the draft Constitution adopted in December, 1946. The one-party rule had come to an end, although the Kuomintang was still by far the majority party in the Government. The Youth Party and the Democratic Socialist Party are now also represented in the Government.

No observer who is acquainted with Chinese events in the past can possibly fail to notice the existence today of a far greater body of public opinion than had ever existed before. This has come about since V-J Day as a result of the lifting of censorship, the convocation of the National Assembly, the presence of other parties in the Government, the emergence of a responsible cabinet in the new Executive Yuan, and above all, the effect of the periodic open discussions at the

People's Political Council. The defence by the Government of its own policy and administration has in turn a stimulating effect on the growth of public opinion. It brings the Government closer to the people.

Since the Kuomintang gained power, it may have committed errors in regard to methods for the attainment of its political goal, but never has it for any period deviated from its general political direction. Exigencies of circumstances may at times have retarded the progress of its work, but in the twenty-odd years of its government, it has never been known to recede from a step once it has been taken.

IV

China's critics are prone to lose sight of the vastness of the country, the weaknesses of its traditional political, economic and social structures, and the complexity of the problems with which she is confronted. Their views and judgment are apt to be based too much on the situation of a given moment without due regard to the background.

It may be well for us to review briefly the period between 1927 and 1937, a period in which the strength of the Kuomintang was put, for the first time, to a real test, and in which the Government never had a continued peace for more than a few months. In 1926, when the Government was still in Canton, it embarked upon a punitive expedition against the war-lords. In 1927, when the National Government was established in Nanking, there were still war-lords to reckon with; there was internal political opposition to overcome from the Communists as well as remnants of the old regime who were ever ready to lend a hand in any plot against the Government; there was no street in Chungking where one could not find public opium dens, and such conditions prevailed in many other cities; extra-territorial rights continued and the attitude of the major powers, not excluding the United States, towards the new Government was one of critical skepticism. Since September 18, 1931, when the Japanese started open aggression, the Government had to resist the enemy on the one hand and on the other to suppress the armed rebellion of the Communists in the South.

But, in spite of all this, the Government, during this hard-pressed period of ten years, was able to embark upon a national constructive program. In 1937, it had completed almost 5,000 kilometers

of railways, 100,000 kilometers of highways; it had built schools, parks, hospitals and civic centers in many cities; trebled the number of middle schools and doubled that of universities and colleges. The number of middle school and vocational school students totalled nearly 600,000 in 1936. It was estimated that illiteracy decreased by almost 20 percent in those ten years. Modern ordnance works began in 1926, and at the time of the Lukouchiao Incident, China was already able to supply, from her own arsenals, practically all her infantry divisions with rifles, hand-grenades, machineguns, trench mortars and various accessories. A national anti-narcotic movement was launched during this period. The number of drug addicts rapidly decreased, and by the end of 1938, no public opium den was to be found in areas under the control of the Kuomintang Government.

When the full-fledged war broke out in 1937, Japanese financial experts predicted that China's finances would collapse within a few months of the war. During the eight years of war, China faced financial problems as enormous as they were complicated, but as a result of certain vigorous measures taken before the war, such as the adoption of a managed currency, concentration of gold and silver reserves, the reform of the taxation and banking systems, the Chinese Government was able to pass through the early, in fact the most critical, part of the war without any serious financial crisis.

In short, the period between the establishment of the National Government in Nanking in 1927 and the beginning of the war with Japan in 1937 was one of severe trial for the Kuomintang. However, the Government concentrated its effort on the twofold task of suppressing Communist rebellion and resisting Japanese aggression, and this gigantic undertaking received the single-minded support of the entire populace. Moreover, the relations between China and her neighbors then were not so complicated as they are now. The Government was therefore able to turn this difficult decade into a constructive period. Commerce and industries developed, while the people both in rural districts and cities were able to plan and look ahead. Industrial production reached in 1936 a level higher than in any previous year. A general feeling of prosperity and growth prevailed.

The complexity of the problems of today may be greater than those of the pre-war years, but the dangers and difficulties which beset the present Government are reminiscent of those that confronted

the nation during the early years of war (1937-1942) when China was forced to fight Japan single-handed. Whether the present Government, for which the Kuomintang is practically still responsible, will be able to overcome these fresh dangers and difficulties as it did in the war and pre-war periods remains to be seen.

It is, however, clear that there is no weakening of determination on the part of the present government and the Kuomintang to face the new challenge. As to the lines of policy with which the Government will meet the challenge, several things are uppermost in the mind of its leaders.

First, the Communists as an armed political party must be suppressed. No half-measures should be considered. The Government fully realizes that the success or failure of this fight against the Communist peril will not only decide its own fate, but also the life or death of China as a sovereign power. In fact the outcome of the struggle is bound up with the peace and security of the whole of the Far East. Second, the menace of inflation must be brought under control; there should be no further delay in initiating some effective program in this regard, because this is the very root of many political, economic and social ills. Third, in the provinces which are free from Communist menace, economic rehabilitation work must be intensified as far as government resources permit. This must be accompanied by necessary political reform in the local government. Last, the Government must pursue its political goal, the building up of a democratic constitutional government, without fear or hesitation. Whatever difficulties the present Communist rebellion and other political factors may cause to the accomplishment of this task, the Government must proceed to give effect to the constitution adopted at the end of last year. No ideal form of democracy is built in a day, and it is the consensus of opinion of the Government that the best way to achieve it is to start it as soon as you can.

Foreign Minister Wang's Visit to U. S.—Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, visited President Truman and other high-ranking officials in Washington on September 30, 1947. Dr. Wang arrived in the United States early in September to attend the second session of the United Nations General Assembly.

Visit of Walter H. Judd—U. S. Congressman Walter H. Judd, member of the House Foreign Affairs Committee, arrived in Nanking on October 29, 1947. He was received by Premier Chang Chun.

Congressman Judd made several public announcements advocating American aid to China.

Chinese Technical Mission to U. S.—The Chinese Government sent a technical mission to Washington in mid-January, 1948, to exchange views with the American authorities on questions connected with proposed U. S. aid to China. The mission, composed of four persons, was headed by Tsuyee Pei, former Governor of the Central Bank of China. The China Aid Bill was signed by President Truman on April 3, 1948. (Mr. Pei returned to China at the end of April.)

III. MILITARY

Transfer of Naval Vessels to China—Pursuant to a bill passed by the 79th Congress of the United States on July 16, 1946, providing the transfer of surplus naval vessels and equipment to China, an agreement was concluded between the two countries on December 8, 1947, stipulating that the total number of the vessels to be transferred should not exceed 217.

Purchase of Ammunition—In June, 1947, the Chinese Government purchased from the United States 130,000,000 rounds of ammunition at US\$656,658.

Air Force Agreement—The agreement by which the United States was to undertake to supply China a total of 1,071 planes was reached between the two governments in September, 1945. The agreement was not published until February 28, 1948.

U. S. Congressional Mission—The United States Congressional mission studying armed forces installations in the Far East arrived in Nanking on October 10, 1947. The mission was headed by Congressman W. Stirling Cole, chairman of a sub-committee of the U. S. House of Representatives Armed Forces Committee, and included Charles R. Clason, William E. Hess, F. Edward Herbert, and Walter Norblad. Accompanying the party were Congressman Errett P. Scrivner, a member of the House Appropriations Committee and Major General Raymond W. Bliss, surgeon-general of the U. S. Army.

A.A.G. in China—The United States Army Advisory Group in China was established in Nanking in October, 1946, with Major-General John P. Lucas as the Commanding General. General Lucas held the post until March 1, 1948, when he was succeeded by Major-General David G. Barr. General Barr left China early in 1949.

IV. ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

Loans and Credits—Since the expiration of the lend-lease program after the end of the war, the United States Government has extended to China loans and credits under different arrangements:

1. *Cotton Credit from Export-Import Bank of Washington*—This economic agreement between the two countries was signed on March 14, 1946, whereby both public and private industries in China were enabled to purchase against credit through the Bank of China, a total of US\$33-million worth of cotton from the United States.

2. *Railway Repair Materials Loan*—On June 3, 1946, China and the United States signed an agreement for a credit of \$16,650,000 against which the Export-Import Bank in Washington would advance funds to finance the purchase and exportation to China of materials for the repair of railways in China.

3. *Civilian Pipe-Line Credit*—This agreement was signed on June 14, 1946 in accordance with the provisions of the Sino-American wartime lend-lease agreement. The total amount involved was US\$58-million.

4. *Power Units Credit*—On July 16, 1946, Chinese representatives in Washington signed with the Export-Import Bank for a credit of US\$8,800,000 for the purchase of ten auxiliary power units, each of 5,000 kw. capacity.

5. *Steamships Loan*—A loan of US\$2,600,000 for the purchase of 16 steamships from the United States was signed on August 5, 1946, between Chinese representatives and the Export-Import Bank of Washington.

Purchase of Surplus Property—By an agreement signed between China and the United States on August 31, 1946, China purchased from the United States surplus property at fraction costs. The price for the surplus property on western Pacific islands was US\$500-million while for such property on the Chinese mainland the price was US\$85-million.

Air Transport Agreement—On December 20, 1946, the United States and China signed the Air Transport Agreement. The Agreement was signed by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Dr. J. Leighton Stuart, U. S. Ambassador to China.

Under the agreement, United States airlines are accorded rights of transit and non-traffic stops in Chinese territory as well as the right to pick up and discharge international traffic and passengers, cargo and mail at Shanghai, Tientsin and Canton and such additional points

as may be agreed upon from time to time. Chinese airlines will receive the same rights in the United States, with international traffic stops authorized at San Francisco, New York and Honolulu.

The air agreement is effective for a period of four years or until it is superseded by a general multilateral air transport convention. Either country, however, may terminate the agreement at one-year's notice. The agreement may be extended after four years by an exchange of diplomatic notes.

Direct Radio-Telephonic Communications Agreement—On July 1, 1947, an agreement was concluded between the Director-General of the Department of Posts and Telecommunications of the Ministry of Communications of China and the American Telephone and Telegraph Company for direct radio-telephonic communications between the two countries.

Sino-American Relief Agreement—An agreement to provide food and other relief assistance to the Chinese people under the American Foreign Relief Program was signed on October 27, 1947, between Dr. Liu Shih-shun, Political Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, and U. S. Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart. The total amount of the relief assistance was stipulated to be US\$27-million.

US\$18 Million Relief Appropriation—On December 19, 1947, the U. S. Senate Appropriation Committee approved the foreign relief bill authorizing the appropriation of US\$570-million for aid to Austria, China, France and Italy. The China portion amounted to US\$18-million.

V. CULTURAL AND EDUCATIONAL

Agricultural Collaboration Commission—The China-United States Agricultural Collaboration Commission was organized in October, 1945, on the proposal of the Chinese Government. The commission of ten American and 13 Chinese agricultural experts began its work in June, 1946. They organized inspection teams to make studies in various parts of China.

Sino-American Cultural Cooperation—(1) During the period from 1945 to 1946, the United States Government had extended invitations to a number of Chinese authors, playwrights, and artists to visit America for a year. The program was intended for the promotion of closer cultural relationships between the two countries.

(2) As an encouragement to American students interested in China, the Chinese Government, beginning in 1944, established in a number of American universities scholarships for the study of Chinese

language, history and culture. The appropriations for that purpose had been on the increase in subsequent years. By the end of 1947, the annual appropriation for the scholarships amounted to US\$69,000.

Educational Foundation Agreement—On November 10, 1947, an agreement for spending US\$20-million derived from the sale of American surplus property to China to aid educational institutions of the two countries was signed in Nanking between Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Dr. John Leighton Stuart, U. S. Ambassador to China. (For further details of this agreement see Chapter on "International Cultural Cooperation.")

VI. CHINA AID PROGRAM

In his original proposal for assistance to China, President Truman on February 18, 1948, asked the U. S. Congress for US\$570-million covering a 15-month period, from April 1, 1948 to June 30, 1949. Of this total, US\$60-million was to be set aside for reconstruction projects while the bulk of US\$510-million, was to finance the import into China of commodities vital to China's economy. In the words of President Truman, the purpose of the proposal was to "assist in retarding the current economic deterioration and thus give the Chinese Government a further opportunity to initiate the measures necessary to the establishment of more stable economic conditions."

On March 30, 1948, the U. S. Senate approved the China Aid Bill providing a US\$463-million program of military and economic assistance to China covering one year as a part of the total foreign aid bill calling for the appropriation of US\$6,098-million. The Senate approval showed a difference with the House's May 31 resolution of US\$570-million for a period of 15 months. At a joint session of the Senate and the House on April 1, 1948, an agreement was reached to set the total at US\$463-million, of which sum US\$125-million was made available for military aid while the remainder was earmarked for the shipment of food, fertilizer and raw materials to China.

President Truman signed the Foreign Aid Bill on April 3, 1948.* The China aid program contains the following seven sections:

(1) The first section describes the title of the legislation.

(2) The second preamble section states that Congress recognizes the intimate

* By a resolution of the U. S. Congress, the date of expiration of the China Aid Program was extended to February 15, 1949.

economic and other relationships between the United States and China and finds that the existing situation in China endangers the establishment of a lasting peace, general welfare and national interest of the United States and the attainment of the objectives of the United Nations. It also declares that the United States policy is to encourage China and its people to exert common efforts for speedy internal peace and economic stability to maintain genuine independence and administrative integrity; and to strengthen the principles of individual liberty and free institutions through a program of assistance based on self-help and cooperation. Under the same section it is provided that no assistance shall impair the economic stability of the United States. It further declares that the assistance provided should all be dependent upon the cooperation by China and its people in furthering the program. Another qualification is that the assistance furnished shall not be construed as assumption by the United States of any responsibility for policies, acts or undertakings of China.

(3) The third section states that aid for China shall be controlled and administered under the general provisions of the European recovery program legislation wherever applicable.

(4) The fourth section authorizes US\$338-million for economic aid to China for a one-year period, and a maximum of US\$125-million as additional aid to China for one year through grants under terms as the President may determine. (Although the latter amount is not specified as military aid, the program makes it clear that this particular section was adopted from the Senate bill allowing the Chinese Government to use the aid for military purposes.)

(5) The fifth section requires a Sino-American agreement on the undertakings by China which the Secretary of State and the foreign aid administrator may deem necessary to carry out the program. (However, it was officially indicated that as soon as the bill was signed by the President the program to supply China with essential commodities could be launched when the Chinese Government indicated the intention to conclude the bilateral agreement.)

(6) The sixth section authorizes the Reconstruction and Finance Corporation to advance US\$50-million to carry out the provisions pending Congressional appropriations.

(7) The seventh section makes available a maximum of ten percent of the US\$338-million economic aid fund, in

either United States fund or Chinese funds or both, for rural reconstruction in China under a joint commission by agreement between the two countries, consisting of two Americans appointed by the United States President and three Chinese citizens appointed by the President of China.

On the signing of the China air program by President Truman, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, made the following statement: (on April 4)

"The legislative enactment of the China Aid Program followed by executive approval is appreciated by the Chinese Government and people. The Act is a renewed expression of friendship and a recognition of the seriousness of the situation in China.

"While the terms of the Act remain to be implemented through cooperative measures of the two governments, I wish to stress at this juncture the uplifting effect of the passage of this Act on the morale of the Chinese people. The significance of the Act may not be measured by mere figures.

"My Government, however, accepts the program with a heavy heart as the final responsibility for its success or failure must necessarily rest with us. We are keenly aware of the manifold difficulty now confronting us. In the midst of a communist rebellion and a vicious inflation, conditions which might have forced others in similar circumstances into a different political course, we are nevertheless determined to initiate and maintain a democratic constitutional government. The realization of such a political program coupled with the carrying out of the economic measures as outlined in the Ten-Point Program of Premier Chang Chun will be a job which my Government will tackle with steadfastness and vigor. For this is the only road that leads to our national unity and reconstruction, and thereby to the restoration and preservation of peace and security in the Far East. In this task, I firmly believe that we shall never be alone."

On May 3, the Chinese and U. S. Governments by agreement published the full texts of notes exchanged on April 30 between General George C. Marshall, U. S. Secretary of State, and Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to the United States.

On May 4, the Chinese Government set up the Council for U. S. Aid to China under the Executive Yuan for the pur-

pose of coordinating the aid program. The Council is composed of a president, concurrently held by the President of the Executive Yuan, and 13 members including the heads of certain Ministries and Commissions, and the private individuals appointed by the Executive Yuan.

On May 5, Paul G. Hoffman, administrator of the Economic Cooperation Administration, announced that Roger D. Lapham, former mayor of San Francisco, had been appointed chief of the ECA's special mission to China. Before Mr. Lapham's arrival in China on June 8, Donald Gilpatrick, head of the China Relief Mission, was the interim chief of the new China aid mission.

On June 3, the U. S. House Appropriations Committee, reversing its earlier approval of the full US\$463-million for China aid, sliced US\$63-million from the total, as in line with a general cut of 26.7 percent on aid funds for Europe and China. On June 14, the Senate Appropriations Committee voted US\$60-million for aid to China, restoring US\$60-million of the US\$63-million reduced from the Chinese spending program by the House Committee.

The final Congressional decision was made at a joint conference of the Senate and the House on June 20, when the China aid fund was set at US\$400-million, including the US\$125-million for military aid.

On July 3, 1948, the Economic Aid Agreement between the United States and China was signed in Nanking between Dr. J. Leighton Stuart, U. S. Ambassador to China and Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs. Following is the text of the agreement:

ECONOMIC AID AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

PREAMBLE

The Government of the Republic of China and the Government of the United States of America:

Considering that it is the policy of the Government of the United States of America to extend economic assistance to the people and the Government of China in accordance with the provisions of the China Aid Act of 1948; and

Considering that it is the policy of the Government of China to undertake a vigorous program of self-help in order to create more stable economic conditions in China, and to improve commercial relations with other countries;

Have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I

The Government of the United States of America undertakes to assist China, by making available to the Government of China or to any person, agency or organization designated by the latter Government such assistance as may be requested by it and approved by the Government of the United States of America. The Government of the United States of America will furnish this assistance under the provisions, and subject to all of the terms, limitations and conditions, of the China Aid Act of 1948 (other than Section 404 [B] thereof), acts amendatory and supplementary thereto and appropriation acts thereunder, and will make available to the Government of China only such commodities, services and other assistance as are authorized to be made available by such acts. The Government of the United States of America may suspend or terminate at any time the assistance under this Article.

ARTICLE II

1. In order to achieve the maximum improvement of economic conditions through the employment of assistance received from the Government of the United States of America, the Government of China undertakes

A. To adopt or maintain the measures necessary to ensure efficient and practical use of economic resources available to it, including

(1) such measures as may be necessary to ensure that the commodities and services obtained with assistance furnished under this Agreement are used for purposes consistent with this Agreement;

(2) to the extent practicable, measures to locate, identify and put into appropriate use in furtherance of its efforts to improve economic conditions, in China, assets, and earnings therefrom which belong to nationals of China and which are situated within the United States of America, its territories or possessions. Nothing in this clause imposes any obligation on the Government of the United States of America to assist in carrying out such measures or on the Government of China to dispose of such assets;

B. To promote the development of industrial and agricultural production on a sound economic basis;

C. To initiate and maintain financial, monetary, budgetary and administrative measures necessary for the creation of more stable currency conditions and for

the promotion of production and marketing of goods for domestic consumption and export; and

D. To cooperate with other countries in facilitating and stimulating an increasing interchange of goods and services with other countries and in reducing public and private barriers to trade with other countries.

2. The Government of China will take the measures which it deems appropriate to prevent, on the part of private or public commercial enterprises, business practices or business arrangements affecting international trade which have the effect of interfering with the purposes and policies of this Agreement.

ARTICLE III

1. The Government of China undertakes to make all practicable efforts to improve commercial relations with other countries, including measures to improve the conditions affecting the carrying on of foreign trade by private enterprises in China.

2. The Government of China, in carrying out the provisions of paragraph 1 of this Article, will, among other measures, administer such import and exchange controls as are, or may be, made necessary by the exigencies of China's international balance of payments and the foreign exchange resources available to the Government of China, in a uniform, fair and equitable manner.

3. The Government of China and the Government of the United States of America will consult, upon the request of either, regarding any matter relating to the application of the provisions of this Article.

ARTICLE IV

1. All commodities provided by the Government of the United States of America pursuant to this Agreement shall be processed and distributed by commercial enterprises or by private or Chinese Government agencies, and in accordance with terms and conditions, agreed upon from time to time between the Government of China and the Government of the United States of America.

2. The Government of China, in consultation with representatives of the United States of America, will take all appropriate steps designed to achieve fair and equitable distribution within the areas under its control of commodities provided by the Government of the United States of America pursuant to this Agreement and of similar commodities imported into

China with other funds or produced locally. To the extent that circumstances and supply availabilities permit, a distribution and price control system shall be inaugurated or maintained in urban centers of China with the intent of insuring that all classes of the population shall receive a fair share of imported or indigenously produced essential civilian supplies. In permitting expendable commodities made available under this Agreement to be utilized in support of the Chinese efforts to improve consumption and price controls, it is understood that the Government of the United States of America takes no responsibility for the success of these urban programs.

3. The prices at which supplies furnished by the United States of America pursuant to this Agreement will be sold in China shall be agreed upon between the Government of China and the Government of the United States of America.

ARTICLE V

1. The provisions of this Article shall apply only with respect to assistance which may be furnished by the Government of the United States of America on a grant basis pursuant to this Agreement.

2. The Government of China agrees to establish a special account in the Central Bank of China in the name of the Government of China (hereinafter called the special account) and to make deposits in Chinese currency to this account as follows:

A. The unencumbered balance at the close of business on the day of the signature of this Agreement in that special account in the Central Bank of China in the name of the Government of China established pursuant to the Agreement between the Government of China and the Government of the United States of America made on October 27, 1947, and any further sums which may from time to time be required by such Agreement to be deposited in that special account. It is understood that subsection (E) of Section 114 of the Foreign Assistance Act of 1948 constitutes the approval and determination of the Government of the United States of America with respect to the disposition of such balance referred to in that Agreement, and

B. The unencumbered balances of the deposits made by the Government of China pursuant to the exchange of notes between the two Governments dated April 30, 1948.

C. Amounts commensurate with the indicated dollar cost to the Government of

the United States of America of commodities, services and technical information (including any costs of processing, storing, transporting, repairing or other services incident thereto) made available to China on a grant basis pursuant to this Agreement less, however, the amount of deposits made pursuant to the exchange of notes referred to in subparagraph B. The Government of the United States of America shall from time to time notify the Government of China of the indicated dollar cost of any such commodities, services and technical information and the Government of China will deposit in the special account at such times as may be specified by the Government of the United States of America a commensurate amount of Chinese currency computed at a rate of exchange to be agreed upon between the Government of China and the Government of the United States of America. The Government of China will, upon the request of the Government of the United States of America, make advance deposits in the special account which shall be credited against subsequent notifications pursuant to this paragraph.

3. The Government of the United States of America will from time to time notify the Government of China of its requirements for administrative expenditures in Chinese currency within China incident to operations under the China Aid Act of 1948 and the Government of China will thereupon make such sums available out of any balances in the special account in the manner requested by the Government of the United States of America in the notification.

4. The Government of China will further make such sums of Chinese currency available out of any balances in the special account as may be required to cover: A. Expenditures required to carry out the purposes of the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction in China as provided for by Section 407 of the China Aid Act of 1948; and B. Costs (including port, storage, handling and similar charges) of transportation from any point of entry in China to the consignee's designated point of delivery in China of such relief supplies and packages as are referred to in Article VII.

5. The Government of China shall dispose of any remaining balance in the special account only for such purposes as may be agreed from time to time with the Government of the United States of America including in particular: A. Sterilization as a measure of monetary and financial stabilization; B. Expenditures

incident to the stimulation of productive activity and the development of new sources of wealth including materials which may be required in the United States of America because of deficiencies or potential deficiencies in the resources of the United States of America; C. Expenditures upon projects or programs the external costs of which are being covered in whole or in part by assistance rendered by the Government of the United States of America or by loans from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development; or D. Expenditures upon uncompleted relief or work relief projects undertaken pursuant to the Agreement between the Government of China and of the United States of America of October 27, 1947.

6. The Government of China will maintain the value in terms of United States dollar equivalent of such amount of the special account as is: A. Indicated by the Government of the United States of America as necessary for administrative expenditures referred to in paragraph 3 of this Article; B. Required for the purposes of paragraph 4 of this Article; and C. Agreed between the two Governments to be necessary to defray the expenses in Chinese currency associated with reconstruction projects or programs the external costs of which are met in whole or in part by assistance rendered by the Government of the United States of America pursuant to the Agreement. The Government of China will carry out this provision by depositing such additional amounts of Chinese currency as the Government of the United States of America may from time to time determine after consultation with the Government of China.

7. Any unencumbered balance remaining in the special account on April 3, 1949, shall be disposed of within China for such purposes as may hereafter be agreed between the Governments of China and of the United States of America, it being understood that the agreement of the United States of America shall be subject to approval by act or joint resolution of the Congress of the United States of America.

ARTICLE VI

1. The Government of China will facilitate the transfer to the United States of America for stockpiling or other purposes of materials originating in China which are required by the United States of America as a result of deficiencies or potential deficiencies in its own resources

upon such reasonable terms of sale, exchange, barter or otherwise and in such quantities and for such period of time as may be agreed to between the Governments of China and of the United States of America after due regard for the reasonable requirements of China for domestic use and commercial export of such materials. The Government of China will take such specific measures as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this paragraph. The Government of China will, when so requested by the Government of the United States of America, enter into negotiations for detailed arrangements necessary to carry out the provisions of this paragraph.

2. The Government of China will, when so requested by the Government of the United States of America, negotiate such arrangements as are appropriate to carry out the provisions of paragraph (9) of subsection 115 (B) of the Foreign Assistance Act of 1948 which relates to the development and transfer of materials required by the United States of America.

3. The Government of China, when so requested by the Government of the United States of America, will cooperate, wherever appropriate, to further the objectives of paragraphs 1 and 2 of this Article in respect of materials originating outside of China.

ARTICLE VII

The Government of China will, when so requested by the Government of the United States of America, enter into negotiations for agreements (including the provisions of duty-free treatment under appropriate safeguards) to facilitate the entry into China of supplies of relief goods donated to or purchased by United States voluntary non-profit relief agencies and of relief packages originating in the United States of America and consigned to individuals residing in China.

ARTICLE VIII

1. The two Governments will, upon the request of either of them, consult regarding any matter relating to the application of this Agreement or to operations or arrangements carried out pursuant to this Agreement.

2. The Government of China will communicate to the Government of the United States of America in a form and at intervals to be indicated by the latter after consultation with the Government of China:

A. Detailed information regarding projects, programs and measures proposed or

adopted by the Government of China to carry out the provisions of this Agreement;

B. Full statements of operations under this Agreement, including a statement of the use of funds, commodities and services received thereunder, such statements to be made in each calendar quarter;

C. Information regarding its economy and any other relevant information which the Government of the United States of America may need to determine the nature and scope of operations, and to evaluate the effectiveness of assistance furnished or contemplated under this Agreement.

3. The Government of China will assist the Government of the United States of America to obtain information relating to the materials originating in China referred to in Article VI which is necessary to the formulation and execution of the arrangements provided for in that Article.

ARTICLE IX

1. The Government of China will keep the people of China fully informed of the progress achieved by the Government of China in implementing the undertakings contained in this Agreement designed to achieve more stable economic conditions in China, and it will provide continuously information to the people of China regarding the nature and extent of assistance furnished pursuant to this Agreement. It will make such information available to the media of public information and will take practicable steps to ensure that appropriate facilities are provided for the dissemination of such information.

2. The Government of the United States of America will encourage the dissemination of such information and will make it available to the media of public information.

3. The Government of China will make public in China in each calendar quarter full statements of operations under this Agreement, including information as to the uses of funds, commodities and services received.

ARTICLE X

1. The Government of China agrees to receive a Special Mission for Economic Cooperation which will discharge the responsibilities of the Government of the United States of America in China under this Agreement.

2. The Government of China will, upon appropriate notification from the Ambassador of the United States of America in China, consider the Special Mission

and its personnel as part of the Embassy of the United States of America in China for the purposes of enjoying the privileges and immunities accorded to that Embassy and its personnel of comparable rank. The Government of China will further accord appropriate courtesies to the members and staff of the Joint Committee on Foreign Economic Cooperation of the Congress of the United States of America and will grant them the facilities and assistance necessary to the effective performance of their responsibilities.

3. The Government of China will extend full cooperation to the Special Mission and to the members and staff of the Joint Committee. Such cooperation shall include the provision of all information and facilities necessary to the observation and review of the carrying out of this Agreement, including the use of assistance furnished under it.

Article XI

1. The Governments of China and of the United States of America agree to submit to the decision of the International Court of Justice any claim espoused by either Government on behalf of one of its nationals against the other Government for compensation for damage arising as a consequence of governmental measures (other than measures concerning enemy property or interests) taken after April 3, 1948 by the other Government and affecting property or interests of such national including contracts with or concessions granted by duly authorized authorities of such other Government. It is understood that the undertaking of each Government in respect of claims espoused by the other Government pursuant to this paragraph is made in the case of each Government under the authority of and is limited by the terms and conditions of such effective recognition as it has heretofore given to the compulsory jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice under Article 36 of the Statute of the Court. The provisions of this paragraph shall be in all respects without prejudice to other rights of access, if any, of either Government to the International Court of Justice or to the espousal and presentation of claims based upon alleged violations by either Government of rights and duties arising under treaties, agreements or principles of international law.

2. The Governments of China and of the United States of America further agree that such claims may be referred in lieu of the Court to any arbitral tribunal mutually agreed upon.

3. It is further understood that neither Government will espouse a claim pursuant to this Article unless the national concerned has exhausted the remedies available to him in the administrative and judicial tribunals of the country in which the claim exists.

ARTICLE XII

1. This Agreement shall become effective on this day's date. It shall remain in force until June 30, 1950, and, unless at least six months before June 30, 1950, either Government shall have given the other notice in writing of intention to terminate the Agreement on that date, it shall remain in force thereafter until the expiration of six months from the date on which such notice shall have been given. Article V shall remain in effect until all the sums in the currency of China required to be disposed of in accordance with its own terms have been disposed of as provided in such Article.

2. This Agreement may be amended at any time by agreement between the two Governments.

3. The Annex to this Agreement forms an integral part thereof.

4. This Agreement shall be registered with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

In witness whereof the respective representatives duly authorized for the purpose have signed the present Agreement.

Done at Nanking in duplicate in the Chinese and English languages, both texts authentic, this third day of the seventh month of the thirty-seventh year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the third day of July, 1948.

(Signed) WANG Shih-chieh
For the Government of
the Republic of China.

(Signed) J. Leighton STUART
For the Government of the
United States of America.

ANNEX

1. It is understood that the requirements of paragraph 1 A. of Article II, relating to the adoption of measures for the efficient use of resources would include, with respect to commodities furnished under the Agreement, effective measures for safeguarding such commodities and for preventing their diversion to illegal or irregular markets or channels of trade.

2. It is understood that the Government of China will not be requested, under paragraph 2 A. of Article VIII to furnish detailed information about minor projects or confidential commercial or

technical information the disclosure of which would injure legitimate commercial interests.

3. It is understood that the Government of the United States of America in making the notifications referred to in paragraph 2 of Article X would bear in mind the desirability of restricting, so far as practicable, the number of officials for whom full diplomatic privileges would be requested. It is also understood that the detailed application of Article X would, when necessary, be the subject of inter-governmental discussion.

(Signed) WANG Shih-chieh

(Signed) J. Leighton STUART

Nanking, July 3, 1948

EXCHANGE OF NOTES

(I) *Note from the Ambassador of the United States of America to the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China:*

American Embassy

Nanking, July 3, 1948

Excellency:

I have the honor to refer to the conversations which have recently taken place between representatives of our two Governments on the conclusion of a bilateral agreement relative to the American Aid to China and to confirm the understanding reached as a result of these conversations as follows:

1. For such time as either the Government of the United States of America or the Government of the Republic of China participates in the occupation or control of any areas in Western Germany or the Free Territory of Trieste, the other Government will apply to the merchandise trade of such areas the provisions of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade dated October 30, 1947, as now or hereafter amended, relating to most favored nation treatment.

2. The undertaking in point 1 above will apply on the part of the Government of the United States of America or the Government of China to the merchandise trade of any area referred to therein only for such time and to such extent as such area accords reciprocal most favored nation treatment to the merchandise trade of the United States of America or China respectively.

3. The undertakings in points 1 and 2, above, are entered into in the light of the absence at the present time of effective or significant tariff barriers to imports into the areas herein concerned. In the event that such tariff barriers are imposed, it is understood that such undertakings shall be without prejudice to the

application of the principles set forth by the Havana Charter for an International Trade Organization relating to the reduction of tariffs on a mutually advantageous basis.

4. It is recognized that the absence of a uniform rate of exchange for the currency of the areas in Western Germany referred to in point 1, above, may have the effect of indirectly subsidizing the exports of such areas to an extent which it would be difficult to calculate exactly. As long as such a condition exists, and if consultation with the Government of the United States of America fails to reach an agreed solution to the problem, it is understood that it would not be inconsistent with the undertaking in point 1 for the Government of China to levy a countervailing duty on imports of such goods equivalent to the estimated amount of such subsidization, where the Government of China determines that the subsidization is such as to cause or threaten material injury to an established domestic industry or is such as to prevent or materially retard the establishment of a domestic industry.

5. The undertakings in this note shall remain in force until January 1, 1951, and unless at least six months before January 1, 1951, either Government shall have given notice in writing to the other of intention to terminate these undertakings on that date, they shall remain in force thereafter until the expiration of six months from the date on which such notice shall have been given.

Please accept, Excellency, the renewed assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) J. Leighton STUART

His Excellency

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh,

Minister of Foreign Affairs,

Ministry of Foreign Affairs,

NANKING.

(II) *Note from the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of China to the Ambassador of the United States of America:*

Nanking, July 3, 1948

Excellency,

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's Note reading as follows:

"I have the honor to refer to the conversations which have recently taken place between representatives of our two Governments on the conclusion of a bilateral agreement relative to the American Aid to China and to confirm the understanding reached as a result of these conversations as follows:

"1. For such times as either the Government of the United States of America or the Government of the Republic of China participates in the occupation or control of any areas in Western Germany or the Free Territory of Trieste, the other Government will apply to the merchandise trade of such areas the provisions of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade dated October 30, 1947, as now or hereafter amended, relating to most favored nation treatment.

"2. The undertaking in point 1 above will apply on the part of the Government of the United States of America or the Government of China to the merchandise trade of any area referred to therein only for such time and to such extent as such area accords reciprocal most favored nation treatment to the merchandise trade of the United States of America or China respectively.

"3. The undertakings in points 1 and 2, above, are entered into in the light of the absence at the present time of effective or significant tariff barriers to imports into the areas herein concerned. In the event that such tariff barriers are imposed, it is understood that such undertakings shall be without prejudice to the application of the principles set forth by the Havana Charter for an International Trade Organization relating to the reduction of tariffs on a mutually advantageous basis.

"4. It is recognized that the absence of a uniform rate of exchange for the currency of the areas in Western Germany referred to in point 1, above, may have the effect of indirectly subsidizing the exports of such area to an extent which it would be difficult to calculate exactly. As long as such a condition exists, and if consultation with the Government of the United States of America fails to reach an agreed solution to the problem, it is understood that it would not be inconsistent with the undertaking in point 1 for the Government of China to levy a countervailing duty on imports of such goods equivalent to the estimated amount of such subsidization, where the Government of China determines that the subsidization is such as to cause or threaten material injury to an established domestic industry or is such as to prevent or materially retard the establishment of a domestic industry.

"5. The undertakings in this note shall remain in force until January 1, 1951, and unless at least six months before January 1, 1951, either Government shall have given notice in writing to the other of intention to terminate these under-

takings on that date, they shall remain in force thereafter until the expiration of six months from the date on which such notice shall have been given."

I have the honor to confirm the above understandings.

Please accept, Excellency, the renewed assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) WANG Shih-chieh

His Excellency

Dr. J. Leighton Stuart,

Ambassador Extraordinary

and Plenipotentiary

of the United States of America

to the Republic of China,

NANKING.

On August 5, 1948, in pursuance of the provisions in Section 407 of the China Aid Act of 1948, the establishment of a Sino-American Commission on Rural Reconstruction in China was agreed upon in Nanking between Dr. J. Leighton Stuart, U. S. Ambassador to China, and Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

**SINO-AMERICAN AGREEMENT
PROVIDING FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT
OF THE RURAL RECONSTRUCTION
COMMISSION IN CHINA
EXCHANGE OF NOTES**

(I) *Note from the American Ambassador to the Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs:*

American Embassy

Nanking, August 5, 1948

Excellency:

I have the honor to refer to Section 407 of the China Aid Act of 1948 enacted by the Government of the United States of America (hereinafter referred to as the Act), which provides, among other things, for the conclusion of an agreement between China and the United States of America establishing a Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction in China. In pursuance of the general principles laid down in the Act, and in particular Section 407 thereof, I have the honor to bring forward the following proposals regarding the organization of the Joint Commission and related matters.

(1) There shall be established a Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction in China (hereinafter referred to as the Commission), to be composed of two citizens of the United States of America appointed by the President of the United States of America and three citizens of the Republic of China to be appointed by the President of China. The Commission shall elect one of the Chinese members as Chairman.

(2) The functions and authority of the Commission shall, subject to the provisions of the above-mentioned Section of the Act, be as follows:

(a) To formulate and carry out through appropriate Chinese Government agencies, and international or private agencies in China a coordinated program of reconstruction in rural areas of China (hereinafter referred to as the Program);

(b) To conclude arrangements with the agencies referred to in the preceding paragraph establishing a basis for their cooperation;

(c) To recommend to the Governments of the United States of America and of China, within the limits prescribed by the Act, the allocation of funds and other assistance to the Program, and to recommend to the Government of China the allocation of such other funds and assistance as are deemed essential to the success of the Program;

(d) To establish standards of performance for implementation of the Program, including the qualifications, type and number of personnel to be used by co-operating agencies in the Program, and to maintain a constant supervision of all phases of the Program, with authority to recommend changes in or stoppage of any phase of the Program;

(e) To appoint such executive officers and administrative staff as the Commission deems necessary to carry out the Program, it being understood that the chief executive officer shall be a citizen of China. Salaries, expenses of travel and other expenses incident to the administrative functions of the Commission itself shall be paid from funds made available under Section 407 (b) of the Act.

(3) In its Program the Commission may include the following types of activity to be carried out in agreement with the agencies referred to in paragraph (2) (a):

(a) A coordinated extension-type program in agriculture, home demonstration, health and education, for initiation in a selected group of *hsien* in several provinces to include a limited number of subsidiary projects suited to conditions in the areas where the program is developed, in such fields as agricultural production, marketing, credit, irrigation, home and community industries, nutrition, sanitation, and education of a nature which will facilitate the promotion of all projects being undertaken;

(b) Consultation with the Chinese Government concerning ways and means of progressively carrying out land reform measures;

(c) Subsidiary projects in research, training and manufacturing, to be carried out in suitable locations to provide information, personnel and materials required by the Program;

(d) Projects to put into effect over a wider area than provided for in the coordinated extension-type program specified in (a), any of the above lines of activity which can be developed soundly on a larger scale, of which examples might be the multiplication and distribution of improved seeds, the control of rinderpest of cattle, the construction of irrigation and drainage facilities, and the introduction of health and sanitation measures;

(e) Related measures, in line with the general objectives of this Program;

(f) The distribution of the assistance in this Program, on the principle of giving due attention to strengthening rural improvement in areas where selected projects can be progressively developed and where their development will contribute most effectively to the achievement of purposes for which this Program is undertaken, but that the principle of distributing aid will not be controlled by proportionate or geographical consideration *per se*.

(4) In respect of any decision of the Commission, the approval of the Government of China shall be obtained prior to its execution if the Commission or its Chairman, with the concurrence of the Chinese members, deems it necessary.

(5) The Commission shall publish in China and transmit to the Government of the United States of America and the Government of China, in such form and at such times as may be requested by either of the two Governments, full statements of operations, including a statement on the use of funds, supplies and services received, and will transmit to the two Governments any other matter pertinent to operations as requested by either of the two Governments. The Government of China will keep the people of China fully informed of the intended purpose and scope of the Program and of the progress achieved by the Commission in implementing the Program, including the nature and extent of the assistance furnished by the Government of the United States of America.

(6) The Government of China will upon appropriate notification of the Ambassador of the United States of America in China consider the United States members and personnel of the Commission as part of the Embassy of the United States of America in China for the purpose of enjoying the privileges and immunities

accorded to that Embassy and its personnel of comparable rank. It is understood that the Ambassador of the United States of America in China in making the notification will bear in mind the desirability of restricting, so far as practicable, the number of officials for whom full diplomatic privileges and immunities would be requested. It is also understood that the detailed application of this paragraph would, when necessary, be a subject of inter-governmental discussion.

(7) All supplies imported into China for use in the Program shall be free of Customs duties, Conservancy dues and other charges imposed by the Government of China on similar supplies which are imported through regular commercial channels.

(8) The Government of the United States of America and the Government of China will consult with respect to problems incident to the interpretation, implementation and possible amendment of the terms of the agreement embodied in this exchange of notes whenever either of the two Governments considers such action appropriate.

(9) The Government of the United States of America reserves the right at any time to terminate or suspend its assistance, or any part thereof, provided under this exchange of notes. Assistance furnished by the Government of the United States of America under Section 407 of the Act and pursuant to this exchange of notes shall not be construed as an express or implied assumption by the Government of the United States of America of any responsibility for making any further contributions to carry out the purposes of Section 407 of the Act or of this exchange of notes.

(10) This note and Your Excellency's reply accepting the above proposals on behalf of the Government of China will constitute an agreement between the two Governments in the sense of Section 407 of the Act. Subject to the provisions of paragraphs (8) and (9), this exchange of notes will remain in force until June 30, 1949, or, upon the request of either Government transmitted to the other Government at least two months before June 30, 1949, until the date of termination of the Economic Aid Agreement between the two Governments concluded on July 3, 1948.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) J. Leighton STUART

His Excellency

Dr. Wang Shih-chieh,
Minister for Foreign Affairs,
Ministry of Foreign Affairs,
NANKING.

(II) *Note from the Chinese Minister for Foreign Affairs to the American Ambassador:*

Nanking, August 5, 1948

Excellency:

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of your note of today's date which reads as follows:

"I have the honor to refer to Section 407 of the China Aid Act of 1948 enacted by the Government of the United States of America (hereinafter referred to as the Act), which provides, among other things, for the conclusion of an agreement between China and the United States of America establishing a Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction in China. In pursuance of the general principles laid down in the Act, and in particular Section 407 thereof, I have the honor to bring forward the following proposals regarding the organization of the Joint Commission and related matters:

"(1) There shall be established a Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction in China (hereinafter referred to as the Commission), to be composed of two citizens of the United States of America appointed by the President of the United States of America and three citizens of the Republic of China to be appointed by the President of China. The Commission shall elect one of the Chinese members as Chairman.

"(2) The functions and authority of the Commission shall, subject to the provisions of the above-mentioned Section of the Act, be as follows:

"(a) To formulate and carry out through appropriate Chinese Government agencies, and international or private agencies in China a coordinated program for reconstruction in rural areas of China (hereinafter referred to as the Program);

"(b) To conclude arrangements with the agencies referred to in the preceding paragraph establishing a basis for their cooperation;

"(c) To recommend to the Governments of the United States of America and of China, within the limits prescribed by the Act, the allocation of funds and other assistance to the Program, and to recommend to the Government of China the allocation of such other funds and assistance as are deemed essential to the success of the Program;

"(d) To establish standards of performance for implementation of the Program, including the qualifications, type and number of personnel to be used by cooperating agencies in the Program, and to maintain a constant supervision of all phases of the Program, with authority to recommend changes in or stoppage of any phase of the Program;

"(e) To appoint such executive officers and administrative staff as the Commission deems necessary to carry out the Program, it being understood that the chief executive officer shall be a citizen of China. Salaries, expenses of travel and other expenses incident to the administrative functions of the Commission itself shall be paid from funds made available under Section 407 (b) of the Act.

"(3) In its Program the Commission may include the following types of activity to be carried out in agreement with the agencies referred to in paragraph (2) (a):

"(a) A coordinated extension-type program in agriculture, home demonstration, health and education, for initiation in a selected group of *hsien* in several provinces to include a limited number of subsidiary projects suited to conditions in the areas where the program is developed, in such fields as agricultural production, marketing, credit, irrigation, home and community industries, nutrition, sanitation, and education of a nature which will facilitate the promotion of all projects being undertaken;

"(b) Consultation with the Chinese Government concerning ways and means of progressively carrying out land reform measures;

"(c) Subsidiary projects in research, training and manufacturing, to be carried out in suitable locations to provide information, personnel and materials required by the Program;

"(d) Projects to put into effect over a wider area than provided for in the coordinated extension-type program specified in (a), any of the above lines of activity which can be developed soundly on a larger scale, of which examples might be the multiplication and distribution of improved seeds, the control of rinderpest of cattle, the construction of irrigation and drainage facilities, and the introduction of health and sanitation measures;

"(e) Related measures, in line with the general objectives of this Program;

"(f) The distribution of the assistance in this Program, on the principle of giving due attention to strengthening rural improvement in areas where selected projects can be progressively developed and

where their development will contribute most effectively to the achievement of purposes for which this Program is undertaken, but that the principle of distributing aid will not be controlled by proportionate or geographical consideration *per se*.

"(4) In respect of any decision of the Commission, the approval of the Government of China shall be obtained prior to its execution if the Commission or its Chairman, with the concurrence of the Chinese members, deems it necessary.

"(5) The Commission shall publish in China and transmit to the Government of the United States of America and the Government of China, in such form and at such times as may be requested by either of the two Governments, full statements of operations, including a statement on the use of funds, supplies and services received, and will transmit to the two Governments any other matter pertinent to operations as requested by either of the two Governments. The Government of China will keep the people of China fully informed of the intended purpose and scope of the Program and of the progress achieved by the Commission in implementing the Program, including the nature and extent of the assistance furnished by the Government of the United States of America.

"(6) The Government of China will upon appropriate notification of the Ambassador of the United States of America in China consider the United States members and personnel of the Commission as part of the Embassy of the United States of America in China for the purpose of enjoying the privileges and immunities accorded to that Embassy and its personnel of comparable rank. It is understood that the Ambassador of the United States of America in China in making the notification will bear in mind the desirability of restricting, so far as practicable, the number of officials for whom full diplomatic privileges and immunities would be requested. It is also understood that the detailed application of this paragraph would, when necessary, be a subject of inter-governmental discussion.

"(7) All supplies imported into China for use in the Program shall be free of Customs duties, Conservancy dues and other charges imposed by the Government of China on similar supplies which are imported through regular commercial channels.

"(8) The Government of the United States of America and the Government of China will consult with respect to problems incident to the interpretation,

implementation and possible amendment of the terms of the agreement embodied in this exchange of notes whenever either of the two Governments considers such action appropriate.

"(9) The Government of the United States of America reserves the right at any time to terminate or suspend its assistance, or any part thereof, provided under this exchange of notes. Assistance furnished by the Government of the United States of America under Section 407 of the Act and pursuant to this exchange of notes shall not be construed as an express or implied assumption by the Government of the United States of America of any responsibility for making any further contributions to carry out the purposes of Section 407 of the Act or of this exchange of notes.

"(10) This note and Your Excellency's reply accepting the above proposals on behalf of the Government of China will constitute an agreement between the two Governments in the sense of Section 407 of the Act. Subject to the provisions of paragraphs (8) and (9), this exchange of notes will remain in force until June 30, 1949, or, upon the request of either Government transmitted to the other Government at least two months before June 30, 1949, until the date of termination of the Economic Aid Agreement between the two Governments concluded on July 3, 1948."

On behalf of the Government of China, I have the honor to accept the proposals contained in the note quoted above.

In recognition of the importance of the Program as one of the essential means of achieving the objectives in which the Governments of China and of the United States of America unite in seeking under the Economic Aid Agreement between the two Governments concluded on July 3, 1948, the Government of China undertakes to afford to the execution of the Program the full weights of its support and to direct cooperating agencies of the Government of China, including the local officials concerned, to give such assistance and facilities as are essential to the success of their undertakings under the Program.

I avail myself of this opportunity to renew to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest consideration.

(Signed) WANG Shih-chieh
His Excellency

J. Leighton Stuart,
Ambassador of the United States
of America to China,
NANKING

RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED KINGDOM

I. POLITICAL

*New Sino-British Treaty**—The new Sino-British Treaty was signed in Chungking on January 11, 1943, between Dr. T. V. Soong, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and British Ambassador Sir Horace James Seymour and Mr. H. E. Richardson (for India). The exchange of ratifications took place in Chungking on May 20, 1943.

Ambassador Stevenson Arrives—Sir Ralph Skrine Stevenson, British Ambassador to China, arrived in China on May 24, 1946. He presented his credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek on August 7, 1946, succeeding Sir Horace Seymour.

Cheng Appointed as Ambassador—The appointment of Dr. Cheng Tien-hsi as Ambassador to the Court of St. James was announced by the Executive Yuan on July 16, 1946. Dr. Cheng presented his credentials to King George VI on July 27, 1946, succeeding Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo.

British Trade Mission to China—The British Trade Mission, headed by Sir Leslie Boyce, arrived in Shanghai on October 8, 1946. The mission, sent by Sir Stafford Cripps, Minister for Economic Affairs, was composed of 12 members who made a tour of 12,000 km. to various principal cities in China.

Air Transport Agreement—In January, 1947, the British Government sent an air mission to China headed by Air Marshal Sir John A. E. Baldwin. The mission, including Charles North of the British Ministry of Civil Aviation; A. G. R. Moss, Director of Air Services Department of the Hongkong Government, and Commander Galpin, British Overseas Airways Corp. Far East representative, arrived in Nanking on February 6, 1947.

The discussions between the British Mission and representatives of the Chinese Government resulted in the signing of the Air Transport Agreement by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Sir Ralph Skrine Stevenson, British Ambassador to China, on July 23, 1947, at Nanking. The pact was ratified by the Legislative Yuan on September 15, 1947.

Under this agreement, designated British airlines are accorded the right of transit, for non-traffic purposes, commercial entry and departure for international traffic in passengers, freight and mail at

* For full text of New Sino-British Treaty, see CHINA HANDBOOK, 1943.

the leading China ports of Shanghai, Canton, Kunming and Tientsin. China has similar rights at London, Restwick, Hongkong, Singapore, Penang, Kuching, Jesselton and Labuan.

By an exchange of notes signed on the same date as the agreement, it was further stipulated that British planes might make non-traffic stops at Haikow and Amoy, and emergency landings at Swatow and Foochow. In a second note, Ambassador Stevenson received for Great Britain a special dispensation from application of China's foreign trade regulations which might impede or prohibit the import into China of equipment essential for the operation of efficient British air services. A third note confirmed the understanding of both Governments that China agrees to grant to British airlines on scheduled international services between Hongkong and Macao the right to fly across and make emergency landings in Chinese territory between these two points.

British Parliamentary Mission to China—The British Parliamentary Mission to China, headed by Lord Ammon, arrived in Nanking on October 9, 1947 to study the situation in China in order to promote closer commercial relationships between the two countries.

The members of the mission were Lord Amulree, Martin Lindsay, W. Roberts, Alderman Frank MacLeavy, and James Harrison. During its one-month stay in China, the mission visited Peiping, Tientsin, Hangchow, Shanghai, Taiwan province, Hankow, Chungking, and Canton.

Kowloon City Incidents—The City of Kowloon occupies a small area within the territory leased to Great Britain under the Convention for the Extension of Hongkong of 1898. The Convention provides: "Within the city of Kowloon the Chinese officials now stationed there shall continue to exercise jurisdiction except so far as may be inconsistent with the military requirements for the defense of Hongkong."

Interpretations of the provisions differ. The British Government insisted that the jurisdiction of the city ended with the withdrawal of the "Chinese officials now stationed there" who were compelled to leave the city in 1899 by force of arms and under protest. The Chinese Government, while maintaining that the quoted words of "Chinese officials" should not be logically taken to mean only the persons then holding office in the city and not to include all their successors, held that the condition of military requirements was a limitation on the exercise of the duties

of said Chinese officials and not a condition on the continuation of Chinese jurisdiction there.

On January 5, 1948, the Hongkong Government sent a group of police and workmen to the City of Kowloon to effect "precautionary measures against epidemic diseases and fire." They demolished the houses of Chinese residents in the city and as a result of their protest arrested two delegates of the residents.

A formal protest by the Chinese Government was then forwarded to the British Government, emphatically reasserting China's jurisdictional right in the City of Kowloon and requesting that the matter be settled through diplomatic channels instead of employing coercive measures.

But the request was not heeded. On January 12, 1948, a large contingent of armed police equipped with shields, steel helmets and firearms and accompanied by a group of workmen were again sent to Kowloon City. By firing on the residents before making use of tear-gas bombs, they caused injuries to a number of persons and seriously wounded two of them.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs sent another serious protest to the British Government after the incident. Meanwhile, anti-British sentiment among the Chinese people aroused by the Kowloon occurrences was making itself felt throughout the country. On January 16, 1948, a parade staged by people in Canton led to the unfortunate incident of Shameen in which the British consulate and the premises of some British firms were burned down.

The position of the Chinese Government in the Kowloon issue was clearly stated in a reply note dated February 5, 1948, from Dr. Cheng Tien-hsi, Chinese Ambassador in London, to Mr. Ernest Bevin, British Foreign Secretary. Following is the full text of the note:

"I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of your note dated January 24th, 1948, concerning the recent evictions of Chinese residents from the City of Kowloon and, under instruction from my government, to send to you the following reply:

"The Chinese Government wishes to state that in regard to jurisdiction over the City of Kowloon, it has consistently adhered to the interpretation it has adopted of the Peking Convention of 1898, namely, that the City of Kowloon is expressly reserved to Chinese jurisdiction. This interpretation is borne out not only by the wording of the said Convention but by reference to the other treaties concluded in the same year which formed the bases of other

leased territories. Such reference is justified inasmuch as the arrangement of reserving a special zone connected with each of the leased territories to Chinese jurisdiction formed a part of general Chinese policy and was not confined to Kowloon. It will be found, e.g., that expression is given to this policy in Article I of the Sino-German Convention of March 6, 1898, regarding Kiaochow, and Article IV of the Additional Agreement between China and Russia of May 7, 1898, regarding the Liaotung Peninsula, which later provides specifically that "the administration and police of the city of Kinchow shall be Chinese."

"It is true that the relevant provision in the Peking Convention regarding Kowloon speaks of 'Chinese officials now stationed there' and requires them to exercise their jurisdiction in a manner consistent with the military requirements for the defense of Hongkong. But the few words just quoted cannot logically be taken to mean only the persons then holding office in the city and not to include all their successors.

"Moreover, nowhere in the Convention regarding Kowloon is there to be found any provision for the withdrawal of the Chinese officials in any circumstances in spite of the condition relative to military requirements. On the contrary, the stipulation that 'within the remainder of the newly-leased territory Great Britain shall have sole jurisdiction' necessarily implies that within the city of Kowloon Great Britain is not empowered to exercise such jurisdiction.

"In regard to your statement that the Hongkong Government have exercised uninterruptedly since 1899 sole jurisdiction over the city of Kowloon, except for the period of Japanese occupation, I must recall to you certain important facts which cannot have escaped your attention. In the first place, the Chinese officials withdrew from the city of Kowloon and ceased to exercise jurisdiction there in 1899 only when they were compelled by force of arms to do so, and it was done under protest. Secondly, ever since then the Chinese Government has not only never renounced its jurisdiction over the area concerned, but has on more than one occasion taken serious exception to the attempted assumption by the Hongkong Government of such jurisdiction. Reference is made in particular to the plan which was formu-

lated by the Chinese Government in 1946 for resuming its administration in Kowloon city, which was temporarily shelved only out of consideration of the friendly relations between our two countries. It may be pointed out that, while the Hongkong Government, in a statement issued at the time by the Governor of Hongkong, questioned the right of the Chinese Government to re-establish administrative authority in Kowloon city, the spokesman of the *Waichiao* lost no time in refuting that statement.

"As soon as word was received last December that the Hongkong Government contemplated the eviction of Chinese residents from Kowloon city and the demolition of their dwellings, the Chinese Government repeatedly requested the British Embassy in Nan-king to warn the Hongkong Government against the employment of coercive measures, the consequences of which, it was thought, might be serious. It is most regrettable that this warning was not heeded and that the Hongkong Government showed no scruples in resorting to forcible action both on January fifth and on January twelfth. On the latter occasion, a large contingent of armed police, equipped with shields, steel helmets and firearms, and accompanied by a group of workmen, went into Kowloon city, and by firing on the residents before use was made of tear-gas bombs, caused injuries to a number of these residents, of whom two were seriously wounded.

"Therefore, the Chinese Government feels very strongly that the responsibility for the unfortunate incidents in Kowloon city should clearly be borne by the Hongkong Government. The provocative action on the part of that government, taken at a time when conversations were still in progress between the two sides with a view to reaching an amicable settlement, contributed mainly to the deterioration of the situation which led to the series of events that followed, including the incident of Shameen on January 16th. In the opinion of the Chinese Government, it would not be just to attribute to newspaper accounts and comments the responsibility for the unfortunate occurrences in Kowloon.

"The Chinese Government also finds itself unable to accept the view you have taken that the Po-an Magistrate's visit to Kowloon was to a degree responsible for the Kowloon incidents.

The action taken by the Po-an Magistrate in visiting Kowloon city and comforting the victims of the eviction of January 5th was the least that a magistrate legally responsible for the administration of the city area should do in discharging the duties devolving upon him.

"Apart from all the facts stated above, may I add another observation to which I hope you will give equal consideration. In order to obtain proper perspective of the Convention of 1898 regarding the Leased Territory of Kowloon, it is important to recall the circumstances in which the several leases of that period were granted. Unable to resist the successive rival demands from the Powers who were each seeking a sphere of influence on the Asiatic mainland, the Chinese Government secured a minimum reservation in each of the leases where a local government was functioning, in the form of a special area over which China should continue to exercise jurisdiction. In other words, China yielded to the force of circumstances by agreeing only to meet the military requirements of the Powers concerned without renouncing her jurisdiction in the respective reserved areas. That the failure of Great Britain to observe even this reservation in respect of Kowloon, which stands now as the last vestige of an outmoded system, would have the most unfortunate repercussions in China may well be imagined.

"In order to prevent further aggravation of the situation the Chinese Government earnestly urges the British Government to accede to the requests for a proper settlement put forward by the Chinese Government through this Embassy and through the British Embassy in Nanking."

China-Hongkong Customs Agreement
—For the prevention of smuggling between Hongkong and Chinese ports, an agreement was concluded between Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Sir Ralph Skrine Stevenson, British Ambassador to China, on January 12, 1948, at Nanking. Main points of the agreement are as follows:

1. The Government of Hongkong will submit to the Legislative Council of Hongkong legislation the objects of which shall be to restrict the loading of goods intended to be exported to China at different designated places in Hongkong for the inspection of the Chinese Maritime Customs.

2. The Chinese Customs shall be at liberty to establish within Hongkong centers at which Chinese duty may be paid or assessed in advance in respect of commodities about to be exported to China.

3. The Government of Hongkong will instruct the Harbor Master to assist the Chinese Customs as far as possible by refusing clearance of vessels from Hongkong for any port in China save those ports on a list to be agreed to between the Chinese Customs and the Harbor Master, but such instructions shall be discretionary only and may be varied or revoked at any time either generally or in specific instances. Where sufficient evidence is forthcoming that vessels were cleared from Hongkong for a port in China failed without sufficient justification to proceed to such port, proceedings for penalty will be normally instituted when such vessel returns to Hongkong.

4. The Government of Hongkong grants to the Chinese Customs liberty to enter upon and patrol those areas in Hongkong waters described in the Schedule appended to the agreement to stop any vessel for the purpose of examining her papers; if it is found that any such vessel which is carrying cargo has not been duly cleared from a port in Hongkong the Chinese Customs shall, unless such vessel is allowed to proceed on her voyage, place such vessel in the custody of the nearest or most convenient Hongkong authority.

5. The Government of Hongkong will consider measures for directing that export of goods from Hongkong to China across the northern land frontier shall take place only at Sha Tau Kok and any other points which may be agreed upon.

6. The Chinese Customs and the Superintendent of Imports and Exports of Hongkong will each of them supply to the other any useful information for the prevention and detection of the smuggling of narcotics and dutiable commodities or of the exportation or importation of prohibited exports or imports.

7. The agreement shall come into force not later than January 20, 1948, and shall remain in force for one year. Thereafter it shall continue in force until three months after written notice of termination is given by one contracting government to the other.

II. MILITARY

Transfer of British Ships—The cruiser *Aurora* and the destroyer *Mendip* of the British Navy were transferred to China in a ceremony at Portsmouth on May 19,

1948. Dr. Cheng Tien-hsi, Chinese Ambassador to Great Britain, represented China in accepting the two ships from Admiral Lord Fraser, Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Navy, representing the British Government. The cruiser was given to China in accordance with an agreement reached by the two countries in 1946 while the destroyer was leased to China for five years. The *Aurora* was later rechristened the *Chungking* and the *Mendip* became the *Lingfu*.

III. ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

Lady Cripps' Fund—The British United Aid to China, also known as the Lady Cripps' Fund, raised about £2-million from 1942 to 1947. The money was given to Chinese cultural, philanthropic, and social organizations and institutions and for other worthy causes.

On China's National Day on October 10, 1947, the Fund sponsored the China's National Flag Day in different places in England. A speech expressing gratitude was delivered by Dr. Cheng Tien-hsi, Chinese Ambassador in London.

On November 6, 1947, the Fund passed a new measure for educational aid to China, by establishing a trust fund for scholarships to enable Chinese students to study in England.

IV. CULTURAL

Representative of the British Council—Chief Representative of the British Council in China, the late Prof. P. M. Roxby, arrived in Chungking in May, 1945. During the war, the Council maintained cultural contact between China and Great Britain. Since V-J Day it has made plans for long-range cultural cooperation.

RELATIONS WITH THE U.S.S.R.

Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance—The Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the U.S.S.R. and the related agreement, protocols, exchange of notes and initialed minutes which were signed in Moscow on August 14, 1945 were submitted to, and passed by, a joint session of the Standing Committee of the Kuomintang Central Executive Committee and the Supreme National Defense Council, on August 24, 1945, and by the Legislative Yuan on the same day. The National Government accordingly ratified on August 25 the treaty and related documents and authorized the publication of their full texts. The Soviet Government ratified the treaty on August 25.

TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP AND ALLIANCE (AND OTHER RELATED DOCUMENTS) BETWEEN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

*Signed at Moscow, on August 14,
1945*

I

TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP AND ALLIANCE*

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China and the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics,

Being desirous of strengthening the friendly relations which have always prevailed between the Republic of China and the Soviet Union, by means of an alliance and by good neighborly post-war collaboration;

Determined to assist each other in the struggle against aggression on the part of the enemies of the United Nations in this World War and to collaborate in the common war against Japan until that country's unconditional surrender;

Expressing their unswerving resolve to collaborate in maintaining peace and security for the benefit of the peoples of both countries and of all peace-loving nations;

Acting in accordance with the principles proclaimed in the joint Declaration by the United Nations of 1 January 1942, in the Declaration of the Four Powers signed in Moscow on 30 October 1943, and in the Charter of the "United Nations" International Organization,

Have decided to conclude the present Treaty for that purpose and have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China:

Wang Shih-Chieh, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Chinese Republic;

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics:

Vyacheslav Milhailovitch Molotov, Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R.,

Who, having communicated to each other their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1

The High Contracting Parties undertake jointly with the other United Nations to prosecute the war against Japan until final victory is achieved. The High Contracting Parties mutually undertake to

* Came into force on August 24, 1945, upon the exchange of the instruments of ratification at Chungking, in accordance with Article 8.

afford one another all necessary military and other assistance and support in this war.

ARTICLE 2

The High Contracting Parties undertake not to enter into separate negotiations with Japan or conclude, except by mutual consent, any armistice or peace treaty either with the present Japanese Government or any other Government or authority set up in Japan that does not clearly renounce all aggressive intentions.

ARTICLE 3

On the conclusion of the war against Japan, the High Contracting Parties undertake to carry out jointly all the measures in their power to render impossible a repetition of aggression and violation of the peace by Japan.

Should either of the High Contracting Parties become involved in hostilities with Japan in consequence of an attack by the latter against that Party, the other High Contracting Party will at once render to the High Contracting Party so involved in hostility all the military and other support and assistance in its power.

This Article shall remain in force until such time as, at the request of both High Contracting Parties, responsibility for the prevention of further aggression by Japan is placed upon the "United Nations" Organization.

ARTICLE 4

Each High Contracting Party undertakes not to conclude any alliance and not to take part in any coalition directed against the other Contracting Party.

ARTICLE 5

The High Contracting Parties, having regard to the interests of the security and economic development of each of them, agree to work together in close and friendly collaboration after the re-establishment of peace and to act in accordance with the principles of mutual respect for each other's sovereignty and territorial integrity and non-intervention in each others' internal affairs.

ARTICLE 6

The High Contracting Parties agree to afford one another all possible economic assistance in the post-war period in order to facilitate and expedite the rehabilitation of both countries and to make their contribution to the prosperity of the world.

ARTICLE 7

Nothing in this Treaty should be interpreted in such a way as to prejudice the rights and duties of the High Contracting Parties as Members of the Organization of the "United Nations."

ARTICLE 8

The present Treaty is subject to ratification in the shortest possible time. The instruments of ratification shall be exchanged in Chungking as soon as possible.

The Treaty comes into force immediately upon ratification, and shall remain in force for thirty years. Should neither of the High Contracting Parties make, one year before the date of the Treaty's expiry, a statement of its desire to denounce it, the Treaty will remain in force for an unlimited period, provided that each High Contracting Party may invalidate it by announcing its intention to do so to the other Contracting Party one year in advance.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed this Treaty and have affixed thereto their seals.

DONE in Moscow, the 14 August 1945 and the 14th day of the month of August in the 34th year of the Chinese Republic, in two copies, each copy in both Chinese and Russian, both texts being of equal validity.

By authority of the President of the
National Government of the
Chinese Republic
WANG SHIH-CHIEH
By Authority of the
Presidium of the Supreme
Soviet of the USSR
V. MOLOTOV

EXCHANGE OF NOTES

No. 1

Note from the Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics to Mr. Wang, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the National Government of the Republic of China

Moscow, 14 August 1945

Sir,

In connection with the signing on this date of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, I have the honor to place on record that the following provisions are understood by both Contracting Parties as follows:

(1) In accordance with the spirit of the above-mentioned Treaty and to implement its general idea and its purposes, the Soviet Government agrees to render China

moral support and assist her with military supplies and other material resources, it being understood that this support and assistance will go exclusively to the National Government as the Central Government of China.

(2) During the negotiations on the ports of Dairen and Port Arthur and on the joint operation of the Chinese Changchun Railway, the Soviet Government regarded the Three Eastern Provinces as part of China and again affirmed its respect for the complete sovereignty of China over the Three Eastern Provinces and recognition of their territorial and administrative integrity.

(3) With regard to recent events in Sinkiang, the Soviet Government confirms that, as stated in Article 5 of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, it has no intention of interfering in the internal affairs of China.

Should you confirm your agreement with this understanding of the above-mentioned points, the present Note and your answer to it will form part of the above-mentioned Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

I have the honor to be, etc.

(Signed) V. MOLOTOV

Mr. Wang Shih-Chieh
Minister of Foreign Affairs of the
Chinese Republic
Moscow

No. 2

Note from Mr. Wang Shih-Chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the National Government of the Republic of China, in answer to Mr. Molotov, Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

14 August of the 34th year
of the Republic of China,
corresponding to 14 August 1945

Sir,

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of your Note of today's date reading as follows:

[See Note No. 1]

I have the honor to confirm the correctness of the above understanding.

I have the honor to be, etc.

(Signed) WANG SHIH-CHIEH

Mr. Molotov
Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs
of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Moscow

No. 3

Note from Mr. Wang Shih-Chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the National Government of the Republic of China, to

Mr. Molotov, Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

14 August of the 34th year
of the Republic of China,
corresponding to 14 August 1945

Sir,

In view of the frequently manifested desire for independence of the people of Outer Mongolia, the Chinese Government states that, after the defeat of Japan, if this desire is confirmed by a plebiscite of the people of Outer Mongolia, the Chinese Government will recognize the independence of Outer Mongolia within her existing frontiers.

The above statement will have binding force after the ratification of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance signed by the Chinese Republic and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on 14 August 1945.

I have the honor to be, etc.

(Signed) WANG SHIH-CHIEH

Mr. Molotov
Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs
of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
Moscow

No. 4

Note from Mr. Molotov, Peoples' Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, in answer to a Note from Mr. Wang, Minister of Foreign Affairs of the National Government of the Chinese Republic.

Moscow, 14 August 1945

Sir,

I hereby acknowledge the receipt of your Note informing me as follows:

[See Note No. 3]

It is with satisfaction that the Soviet Government takes note of the above statement by the Government of the Chinese Republic and affirms for its part that it will respect the political independence and territorial integrity of the Mongolian People's Republic (of Outer Mongolia).

I have the honor to be, etc.

(Signed) V. MOLOTOV

Mr. Wang Shih-Chieh
Minister of Foreign Affairs of the
Chinese Republic
Moscow

II

AGREEMENT* BETWEEN THE CHINESE REPUBLIC AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS ON THE CHINESE CHANGCHUN RAILWAY.

Signed at Moscow, on August 14, 1945

The President of the National Government of the Republic of China and the

* Came into force on August 24, 1945, by ratification, in accordance with Article 18.

Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, being desirous of strengthening on the basis of complete regard for the rights and interests of each of the two Parties, friendly relations and economic ties between the two countries have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1

After the expulsion of the Japanese armed forces from the Three Eastern Provinces of China, the main trunk lines of the Chinese Eastern Railway and the South Manchurian Railway leading from the station of Manchouli to the station of Pogradichnaya and from Harbin to Dairen and Port Arthur, shall be combined to form a single railway system to be known as "Chinese Changchun Railway," and shall become the joint property of the USSR and the Chinese Republic and be jointly exploited by them. Only such lands and branch lines shall become joint property and be jointly exploited as were constructed by the Chinese Eastern Railway while it was under Russian and joint Soviet-Chinese management and by the South Manchurian Railway while under Russian management, and which are intended to serve the direct needs of those railways. Ancillary undertakings directly serving the needs of those railways and constructed during the above-mentioned periods shall also be included. All other railway branch lines, ancillary undertakings and lands will be the exclusive property of the Chinese Government. The joint exploitation of the above-mentioned railways shall be effected by a single administration under Chinese sovereignty as a purely commercial transport undertaking.

ARTICLE 2

The Contracting Parties agree that ownership of the above-mentioned railways shall be vested equally in both Parties, and shall not be transferable either in part or in whole.

ARTICLE 3

For the purpose of jointly exploiting the above-mentioned railway, the Contracting Parties agree to establish a Sino-Soviet Chinese Changchun Railway Company. The company shall have a Board of Directors consisting of ten members, five of whom will be appointed by the Chinese Government and five by the Soviet Government. The Head Office shall be at Changchun.

ARTICLE 4

The Chinese Government shall appoint from among the Chinese Directors a President and a Vice-President of the Board of Directors. The Soviet Government shall appoint from among the Soviet Directors a Deputy President and a Deputy Vice-President of the Board of Directors.

When decisions are made at board meetings the vote of the President of the Board of Directors shall count as two votes. Seven members of the Board shall form a legal quorum.

Any important question on which the Board of Directors is unable to reach agreement shall be submitted for the consideration of the Governments of the Contracting Parties for a just and friendly settlement.

ARTICLE 5

The Company shall establish a Supervisory Committee consisting of six members, three of whom shall be appointed by the Chinese Government and three by the Soviet Government. The Chairman of the Supervisory Committee shall be chosen from among the members of Soviet nationality and the Vice-Chairman from among the members of Chinese nationality. In deciding upon matters in the Supervisory Committee, the Chairman's vote shall count as two votes. Five members of the Committee shall form a legal quorum.

ARTICLE 6

For conducting the routine business, the Board of Directors shall appoint one of its Soviet members as Manager and one of its Chinese members as Deputy Manager of the Chinese Changchun Railway.

ARTICLE 7

The Supervisory Committee shall appoint a Chief Auditor and a Deputy Chief Auditor. The Chief Auditor shall be a Chinese citizen and his deputy a Soviet.

ARTICLE 8

The Chiefs and Deputy Chiefs of the Services and Departments and the Station Masters of the more important stations shall be appointed by the Board of Directors. The Manager of the Railway has the right to suggest candidates for the posts mentioned. Individual members of the Board of Directors may also suggest such candidates by agreement with the Manager of the Railway.

When the Chief of a Service or Department is a Chinese citizen, the Deputy Chief must be a Soviet citizen. When the Chief of a Service or Department is a Soviet citizen, the Deputy Chief must be a Chinese citizen.

Chinese and Soviet citizens shall be appointed Chiefs of Services and Departments, Deputy Chiefs and station masters on the principle of equal representation.

ARTICLE 9

The Chinese Government shall be responsible for the security of the railway. For the purpose of protecting the railway premises, equipment and other property, and to prevent goods in transit being destroyed, lost or stolen, the Chinese Government shall create and control a railway police force. In addition, the railway police shall maintain normal order on the railway. As to the duties of the police as provided in this Article such duties shall be determined by the Chinese Government in consultation with the Soviet Government.

ARTICLE 10

The railway shall be employed for the transport of Soviet troops only during hostilities against Japan.

The Soviet Government shall have the right to employ the railway for transporting without Customs inspection and in sealed wagons, military property in transit, such property to be protected by the railway police, and the Soviet Government shall not provide it with any armed escort of its own.

ARTICLE 11

Goods in transit from one Soviet station to another and goods passing in either direction between Soviet territory and the ports of Dairen and Port Arthur shall be exempt from any duties or any kind of taxes or levies imposed by the Chinese Government. Upon arrival in Chinese territory such goods shall be liable to Customs inspection.

ARTICLE 12

The Chinese Government undertakes to supply the railway's entire requirement in coal under a special agreement.

ARTICLE 13

The railway shall be subject to Chinese Government taxes on the same footing as the Chinese State Railways.

ARTICLE 14

The Contracting Parties agree to make available to the management of the Chi-

nese Changchun Railway the working capital stipulated in the Railway's Articles of Association.

Any profit or loss resulting from the operation of the line shall be shared equally between the Parties.

ARTICLE 15

During the month following the signing of this Agreement, the Contracting Parties will each appoint three representatives who shall in Chungking draw up the Memorandum and Articles of Association relating to the joint operation of the line. The Memorandum and Articles of Association shall be completed in two months, after which they will be submitted for the approval of both Governments.

ARTICLE 16

A Commission to be established and which shall be composed of three representatives of each Government, shall determine the assets that shall become the joint property of the USSR and the Chinese Republic and shall be jointly exploited in pursuance of Article 1 of this Agreement. The said Commission shall be established at Chungking within a month following the signing of this present Agreement and shall finish its work and submit its proposals for the approval of both Governments not later than three months after the commencement of the joint operation of the line.

ARTICLE 17

The present Agreement shall remain in force for a period of thirty years. Thereafter the full ownership of the Chinese Changchun Railway and all its assets shall revert without charge to the Chinese Republic.

ARTICLE 18

The present Agreement shall come into force on the day of its ratification.

DONE at Moscow on 14 August 1945, corresponding to the 14th day of the month of August of the 34th year of the Chinese Republic, in two copies, each in the Chinese and Russian languages, both texts being equally authentic.

By the authority of the President of the National Government of the

Chinese Republic

WANG SHIH-CHIEH

By Authority of the

Presidium of the Supreme

Soviet of the USSR

V. MOLOTOV

III

AGREEMENT* ON THE PORT OF DAIREN

*Signed at Moscow, on August 14,
1945*

Whereas a Treaty of Friendship and Alliance has been concluded between the Chinese Republic and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and whereas the USSR has guaranteed to respect the sovereignty of China over the Three Eastern Provinces as an inalienable part of China, the Chinese Republic, in order to protect the interests of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in Dairen as a port for the import and export of goods, hereby agrees:

1. To proclaim Dairen a free port, open to trade and shipping of all countries.
2. The Chinese Government agrees to allocate docks and warehouse accommodation in the said free port to be leased to the USSR under a separate agreement.
3. The administration in Dairen will be Chinese.

The Harbor Master shall be a Soviet citizen to be appointed by the Manager of the Chinese Changchun Railway by agreement with the Mayor of the town of Dairen. The Assistant Harbor Master shall be a Chinese citizen appointed by the same procedure.

4. In peacetime, the Regulations governing the naval base as provided in the Agreement on Port Arthur of 14 August 1945 shall not apply to Dairen and it shall come under the military regime to be established in that zone only in the event of war with Japan.

5. Goods entering the said free port from abroad and proceeding via the Chinese Changchun Railway directly into the territory of the USSR, goods leaving the USSR via the same railway and entering the free port for export, and materials and equipment sent from the USSR for the construction of harbor installations shall be exempt from customs duties. The said goods must be conveyed in sealed wagons.

6. Goods entering China through the free port shall be subject to Chinese import duties. Goods exported from other parts of China and entering the free port will be subject to export duties for as long as such duties continue to be levied in China.

7. The present Agreement shall remain in force for a period of 30 years.

8. The present Agreement shall come in force on the day of its ratification.

* Came into force on August 24, 1945, by ratification, in accordance with paragraph 7.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the present Agreement and have affixed their seals thereto.

DONE at Moscow on 14 August 1945, corresponding to the 14th day of the month of August of the 34th year of the Chinese Republic, in two copies, each in the Chinese and Russian languages, both texts being equally authentic.

By authority of the President of the
National Government of the
Chinese Republic
WANG SHIH-CHIEH
By Authority of the
Presidium of the Supreme
Soviet of the USSR
V. MOLOTOV

IV

1. The Government of China when requested to do so by the Soviet Union shall grant the Soviet Union, freely and without consideration, a 30 years' lease of one-half of all harbor installations and equipment, the other half of the harbor installations and equipment remaining the property of China.

Any extension and improvement of the harbor facilities shall be carried out by agreement between China and the USSR.

2. It is agreed that all sections of the Chinese Changchun Railway located within the boundaries of the Port Arthur naval base area and connecting Dairen with Mukden will not be subject to any kind of military supervision or control established in that area.

By authority of the President of the
National Government of the
Chinese Republic
WANG SHIH-CHIEH
By Authority of the
Presidium of the Supreme
Soviet of the USSR
V. MOLOTOV

IV

AGREEMENT* ON PORT ARTHUR.

*Signed at Moscow, on August 14,
1945*

In accordance with the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance and as an addition thereto, both Contracting Parties have agreed on the following:

1. In order to strengthen the security of China and the USSR and prevent a repetition of aggression on the part of Japan, the Government of the Chinese Republic agrees to the joint use by both

* Came into force on August 24, 1945, by ratification, in accordance with paragraph 9.

Contracting Parties of Port Arthur as a naval base.

2. The exact bounds of the area of the naval base referred to in the foregoing paragraph are established in the description and map hereto annexed.

3. The Contracting Parties have agreed to make Port Arthur a naval base only, to be used and be made available to the warships and commercial vessels of China and the USSR only.

A Sino-Soviet Military Commission, consisting of two Chinese and three Soviet representatives will be established to deal with questions arising in connection with the joint use of the aforementioned naval base. The chairman of the Commission shall be appointed by the Soviet authorities and the vice-chairman by the Chinese authorities.

4. The defence of the aforementioned naval base shall be entrusted by the Government of China to the Government of the USSR. For purposes of such defence of the naval base, the Government of the USSR shall erect there the necessary installations, the expense of which shall be borne by the Government of the USSR.

5. The civil administration in the area concerned will be Chinese, but the interests of the USSR will be taken into account when appointments to responsible positions in the said area are made by the Chinese Government. The civil administration in the town of Port Arthur shall be appointed and dismissed by the Chinese Government in agreement with the Soviet Military Command.

Suggestions designed to ensure security and defence, which the Soviet Military Command in this area may make to the Chinese civil administration, shall be carried out by the said administration. In controversial cases the questions shall be submitted for consideration and decision to the Sino-Soviet Military Commission.

6. The Government of the USSR has the right to maintain its own military, naval and air forces in the area mentioned in Article 2 and to determine their disposition.

7. At the same time the Soviet Government shall be responsible for the placing or establishment and maintenance of lights, signals and other equipment necessary for the safety of shipping in the area concerned.

8. On the expiry of the present Agreement all equipment and public property placed by the USSR in the area concerned shall be transferred freely and without consideration to Chinese Government ownership.

9. The present Agreement shall remain in force for a period of thirty years.

The Agreement shall come into force on the day of its ratification.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the present Agreement and have affixed their seals thereto.

DONE at Moscow on 14 August 1945, corresponding to the 14th day of the month of August of the 34th year of the Chinese Republic, in two copies, each in the Chinese and Russian languages, both texts being equally authentic.

By authority of the President of the
National Government of the
Chinese Republic

WANG SHIH-CHIEH

By Authority of the
Presidium of the Supreme
Soviet of the USSR
V. MOLOTOV

ANNEX

The territory of the naval base zone, as provided in Article 2 of the Agreement on Port Arthur, lies to the south of a line beginning on the west coast of the Liaotung Peninsula south of Hou-san-tao-wan and running in a generally easterly direction through the station Shih-ho and point Tsou-chia-chu-tzu to the east coast of the peninsula, but excluding the town of Dalny (Dairen).

All islands in the waters adjoining the western seacoast of the area on the Liaotung Peninsula defined by the Agreement, and to the south of a line passing through the points whose latitude is north 39° and longitude east 120° 49' and latitude north 39° 20' and longitude east 121° 31' respectively, thence in a generally north-easterly direction along the central line of the fairway leading to the port of P'u-lan-tien and to land point of beginning, shall be included in the area of the naval base.

All islands in the waters adjoining the eastern seacoast of the area on the Liaotung Peninsula and south of a line running east from the final land point to a point whose latitude is north 39° 20', longitude east 123° 08', thence southeast through a point whose latitude is north 39° and longitude east 123° 16' shall be included in the area.

The metes and bounds of the area shall be demarcated on the spot by a mixed Sino-Soviet Commission. The Commission shall place boundary marks in the water; plant stakes when necessary; draw up a detailed description of such a boundary line; delineate it on a topographic map drawn to a scale of 1:25,000; and trace

the boundary line across the surrounding waters on a naval chart on the scale of 1:300,000.

The date on which the Commission shall commence its work shall be fixed by a special agreement between the Parties.

The descriptions of the boundary line of the area drawn up by the aforesaid Commission and the maps of this line shall be subject to confirmation by both Governments.

WANG SHIH-CHIEH

V. MOLOTOV

V

AGREEMENT* ON RELATIONS BETWEEN THE SOVIET COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF AND THE CHINESE ADMINISTRATION FOLLOWING THE ENTRY OF SOVIET FORCES INTO THE TERRITORY OF THE THREE EASTERN PROVINCES OF CHINA IN CONNECTION WITH THE PRESENT JOINT WAR AGAINST JAPAN.

*Signed at Moscow, on
August 14, 1945*

The President of the National Government of the Chinese Republic and the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, being desirous that after the entry of Soviet forces into the territory of the Three Eastern Provinces of China in connection with the present joint war of China and the USSR against Japan, relations between the Soviet Commander-in-Chief and the Chinese administration conform with the spirit of friendship and alliance existing between both countries, have agreed on the following:

1. After the entry, as a result of military operations, of Soviet troops into the territory of the Three Eastern Provinces of China, the supreme authority and responsibility in the zone of military activity in all matters relating to the conduct of the war shall, during the period necessary for conducting such operations, be vested in the Commander-in-Chief of the Soviet Armed Forces.

2. A representative of the National Government of the Chinese Republic and a staff shall be appointed in any recaptured territory, who shall:

(a) Organize and control, in accordance with the laws of China, the administration on the territory freed from the enemy;

(b) Assist in establishing co-operation in restored territories between the Chinese armed forces, whether regular or irregular, and the Soviet armed forces;

(c) Ensure the active collaboration of the Chinese administration with the Soviet Commander-in-Chief and, in particular, issue corresponding instructions to the local authorities, being guided by the requirements and desires of the Soviet Commander-in-Chief.

3. A Chinese Military Mission shall be appointed to the Headquarters of the Soviet Commander-in-Chief for the purpose of maintaining contact between the Soviet Commander-in-Chief and the representative of the National Government of the Chinese Republic.

4. In zones that are under the supreme authority of the Soviet Commander-in-Chief, the administration of the National Government of the Chinese Republic for restored territories shall maintain contact with the Soviet Commander-in-Chief through a representative of the National Government of the Chinese Republic.

5. As soon as any part of a recaptured territory ceases to be a zone of direct military operations, the National Government of the Chinese Republic shall assume complete power in respect of civil affairs and shall render the Soviet Commander-in-Chief all assistance and support through its civil and military organs.

6. All members of the Soviet armed forces on Chinese territory shall be under the jurisdiction of the Soviet Commander-in-Chief. All Chinese citizens, whether civil or military, shall be under Chinese jurisdiction. This jurisdiction will also extend to the civilian population in Chinese territory, even in cases involving criminal acts and misdemeanors committed against the Soviet armed forces, except when criminal acts and misdemeanors are committed in the zone of military operations and are subject to the jurisdiction of the Soviet Commander-in-Chief. In controversial cases, the matter shall be decided by mutual agreement between the Soviet Commander-in-Chief and the Representative of the National Government of the Chinese Republic.

7. A separate agreement shall be concluded relating to financial questions arising out of the entry of Soviet forces into the territory of the Three Eastern Provinces of China.

8. The present Agreement shall come into force immediately upon ratification of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the USSR which was signed this day.

DONE at Moscow on 14 August 1945, corresponding to the 14th day of the month of August of the 34th year of the

* Came into force on August 24, 1945, upon the ratification of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, in accordance with paragraph 8 of the Agreement.

Chinese Republic, in two copies, each in the Chinese and Russian languages, both texts being equally authentic.

By authority of the President of the
National Government of the
Chinese Republic

WANG SHIH-CHIEH

By authority of the
Presidium of the Supreme
Soviet of the USSR
V. MOLOTOV

MINUTES

At the fifth meeting between Generalissimo Stalin and Mr. T. V. Soong, President of the Executive Yuan, which took place on 11 July 1945, the question of the evacuation of Soviet forces from Chinese territory after participation of the USSR in the war against Japan was discussed. Generalissimo Stalin declined to include in the Agreement on the Entry of Soviet Forces into the Territory of the Three Eastern Provinces any provision for the evacuation of Soviet troops within three months following the defeat of Japan. Generalissimo Stalin stated, however, that the Soviet forces would begin to be withdrawn within three weeks after the capitulation of Japan.

Mr. T. V. Soong asked how much time would be required to complete the evacuation. Generalissimo Stalin stated that in his opinion the evacuation of troops could be completed within a period of not exceeding two months. Mr. T. V. Soong again asked whether the evacuation would really be completed within three months. Generalissimo Stalin stated that three months would be a maximum period sufficient for the completion of the withdrawal of troops.

WANG SHIH-CHIEH V. MOLOTOV

Withdrawal of Soviet Troops from the Northeast—Six days before the signing of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, the U.S.S.R. declared war on Japan on August 8, 1945. The Soviet Army entered Manchuria on August 9 and engaged in battle with the Japanese forces. After the unconditional surrender of Japan on August 14, the Japanese troops in Manchuria were disarmed by the Soviets. On September 3, 1945, the official Japanese surrender was signed.

According to Generalissimo Stalin's commitment to Dr. T. V. Soong in their meeting on July 11, 1945 in Moscow, Soviet troops in China's Northeastern Provinces were to withdraw within three weeks and to complete the withdrawal within three months. But the evacuation was delayed time and again. On December 31, 1945, the Chinese and Soviet

governments agreed to set the date of complete withdrawal at February 1, 1946. The Chinese Government, however, did not receive any report to that effect until May 24, 1946. On that day, a note was received from the Soviet Ambassador to China, indicating that the Red Army had been completely withdrawn from the Northeastern Provinces by May 3. In the meantime, Chinese Communists had entered the Northeast and had taken over key cities in the area.

Soviet Troops' Acts of Violence in the Northeast—The Chinese Government had received reports regarding acts of violence committed by Soviet troops during their stay in the Northeast. Cases of murder, robbery and other outrages committed against Chinese Nationals had been reported. On June 19, 1946, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs listed 455 major cases and forwarded them to the Soviet Government asking that the guilty ones be punished and that compensation be given to the victims or their relatives. Since the Soviet authorities showed indifference to the matter, the Chinese Government sent an *aide memoire* on November 15, 1946 asking for prompt measures for the settlement of the cases. The Soviet Government had not, up to the end of 1949, given any reply.

About Port Arthur and Dairen—After the Japanese surrender Soviet troops occupied Port Arthur and Dairen. From October, 1945 to June, 1947, the Chinese Government had repeatedly requested the Soviet Government to return the administration of these two territories to China, in accordance with the Sino-Soviet Treaty of August, 1945. But these requests were all turned down by the Soviet Government which refused the entry of Chinese troops and administrative personnel into Port Arthur and Dairen. During the negotiations, the Chinese Communist party rapidly built up an armed force in the vicinity of Port Arthur and Dairen, thus constituting a strong impediment to the take-over of Port Arthur and Dairen by the Chinese Government.

Early in 1947, the Chinese Government sent an inspection mission under General Tung Yen-ping to Port Arthur and Dairen. The reports of this mission clearly indicated that without the protection of Chinese troops and police, it would be impossible for Chinese administrative personnel to perform their functions in Port Arthur and Dairen.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued on June 25, 1947, a communique on the negotiations with the U.S.S.R. concerning the take-over of Port Arthur and

Dairen. Text of the communique follows:

1. Immediately upon the surrender of Japan, the Chinese Government in preparation for the take-over of the Northeastern Provinces decided to despatch troops to Dairen to re-establish Chinese administration in Port Arthur and Dairen. This was, however, strongly opposed by the Soviet Government on the ground that Dairen was to be made a free port. The Chinese Government was thus prevented from realizing the first step toward the take-over of the administration of Port Arthur and Dairen in accordance with the Sino-Soviet Treaty of August 1945.

It will be recalled that the declaration of Dairen as a free port under the Treaty signifies that commodities in transit through that port should be exempt from duty and has no bearing whatever on the question of the stationing of Chinese troops in that port. That the administration in Dairen should belong to China is explicitly provided in the Treaty. The Treaty in no way restricts the right of the Chinese Government to send troops to Dairen. The *Waichiao* therefore took serious exception to the aforementioned view of the Soviet Government.

2. Owing to the obstacles thus interposed by the Soviet Government, Chinese troops could not be sent to Dairen in October 1945 and the Chinese Government was unable to proceed with the take-over of the administration of Port Arthur and Dairen. Since that date the Chinese Communists have rapidly built up an armed force in the vicinity of Port Arthur and Dairen. The existence and expansion of this Anti-Government force have constituted a strong impediment to the take-over of Port Arthur and Dairen by the Chinese Government from the main land.

3. In March this year, the Soviet Government expressed to the Chinese Government the hope that the Chinese Government might set up its administrative authority in Port Arthur and Dairen. The Chinese Government in reply again made it clear that it was because of the above-mentioned obstacles that the Chinese Government had not been able to take over the administration of Port Arthur and Dairen.

4. During the last three months, the Chinese Government has repeatedly taken up this matter with the Soviet Government. It was stated by the Soviet Government that no anti-Chinese-Government forces existed in the entire region of Dairen and the Port Arthur Naval Base; that the Soviet Government would ensure the safety of the personnel sent to

Dairen and Port Arthur by the Chinese Government as well as liberty of action in the discharge of their duties; and that questions as to the number of police to be sent by the Chinese Government to Port Arthur and the places where they were to be quartered should be discussed and decided on the spot by Soviet and Chinese officials. The Soviet Government stated however that it could not agree to the despatch of Chinese troops to the Port Arthur Naval Base because the defense of that naval base had been entrusted by the Treaty to the Soviet Government. As regards Dairen, the Soviet Government stated that while it would permit Chinese police to enter that city, provided their number and the places where they should be quartered were agreed upon between the two parties, it could not agree to the entry of Chinese troops into Dairen on the ground that the state of war against Japan had not yet been terminated, and Dairen should therefore still be subject to the military supervision established in the Port Arthur Naval Base Area.

In the opinion of the *Waichiao* the Chinese Government is fully entitled to send troops to Port Arthur and maintain them there, for, according to the Sino-Soviet Treaty the entire Port Arthur Naval Base Area is set aside for the "joint use" of the two countries. The Chinese Government therefore cannot accept the Soviet interpretation in this particular.

As to the stationing of Chinese troops in Dairen, while it is true that the Sino-Soviet Treaty subjects that city to the military supervision of the Port Arthur Naval Base Area "in case of war against Japan," it is undeniable that Japan has for more than a year been under Allied occupation following her unconditional surrender and that the "war against Japan" no longer in actuality exists. And even "in case of war against Japan" the Chinese Government is not precluded by any provision of the Sino-Soviet Treaty from sending its troops to Dairen. Moreover, the "military supervision" of the Port Arthur Naval Base Area over Dairen even "in case of war against Japan" should be confined to the fulfillment of the requirement of joint prosecution of the war by China and the U.S.S.R. The sending of Chinese troops to Dairen to protect the administration and ensure its safety could not be considered in any case as detrimental to a joint prosecution of war against Japan. For these reasons, the Chinese Government has repeatedly expressed in writing its inability to accept

the views of the Soviet Government and requested that the Soviet Government adopt a friendly attitude of understanding and cooperation toward the decision of the Chinese Government to station troops in Dairen. Furthermore, in the present circumstances the regions of Port Arthur and Dairen are at any moment open to the menace and attacks of anti-Government armed forces in the vicinity. In order to ensure the safety and freedom of its administrative personnel in the region, the Chinese Government, over and above its treaty right, has the actual need of sending troops to Dairen. It is a matter of regret that this has not yet been assented to by the Soviet Government.

5. While continuing to thresh out the matter with the Soviet Government, the Chinese Government recently despatched an Inspection Mission under General Tung Yen-ping to Port Arthur and Dairen as a preparatory step toward the restoration of Chinese administrative authority in those regions. Before the departure of this group the Chinese Government had obtained the agreement of the Soviet Government, and its assurance of full assistance to be given to the Mission as well as of freedom of action in the discharge of their duties. But, after arrival in Port Arthur, the Mission did not receive the promised assistance. Together with the obstructions from the so-called "Local Administration," this had made it impossible for the Mission to carry out their plans of inspection. The result of this trip again shows that Chinese administrative personnel cannot hope to perform their functions without the presence and protection of an adequate force of Chinese troops and police in Port Arthur and Dairen.

6. In short, the failure of the Chinese Government thus far to take over Port Arthur and Dairen has been due to two factors: (1) the repeated refusal of the Soviet Government to agree to the stationing of Chinese troops in Port Arthur and Dairen and (2) the formation by the Chinese Communists of strongly armed forces in the vicinity of Port Arthur and Dairen to hinder the take-over of these regions by the Chinese Government, the existence of such armed forces having resulted from the first refusal in October 1945 of the Soviet Government to agree to the landing of Chinese troops in Dairen.

The Chinese Government is now constrained to call the serious attention of the Soviet Government to its fundamental obligations under the two following provisions of an Exchange of Notes forming part of the Sino-Soviet Treaty:

(1) "... the Government of the U.S.S.R. agrees to render to China moral support and aid in military supplies and other material resources, such support and aid to be entirely given to the National Government as the Central Government of China."

(2) "... the Government of the U.S.S.R. regards the Three Eastern Provinces as part of China and reaffirms its respect for China's full sovereignty over the Three Eastern Provinces and recognizes their territorial and administrative integrity."

The Chinese Government sincerely hopes that the Soviet Government, mindful of its obligations mentioned above, will refrain from further employment of such unjustifiable interpretations of the Treaty as to undermine the sovereignty and administrative integrity of China and hinder her work of taking over the administration of the Port Arthur area and Dairen. The Chinese Government, prompted by its earnest desire for friendly understanding and cooperation, will continue to seek an agreement with the Soviet Government. At the same time, the Chinese Government wishes hereby to declare that, since the right of China to despatch troops and police to the Port Arthur area and Dairen is not restricted by treaty provisions, the Chinese Government is free at any time to decide on the exercise of this right.

Nanking, June 25, 1947.

In August 1947, in view of the Soviet occupation of Dairen and the failure of the Soviet Government to fulfill its agreement to open Dairen as a free port, the Chinese Government issued a declaration to close the Dairen harbor, forbidding entry of all foreign vessels.

Repatriation of Russian Citizens in China—On June 30, 1947, the Soviet Government sent a memorandum to the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs asking the Chinese Government to give assistance to the repatriation of 3,000 families and 150 orphans of Russian residents in China. The request was readily accepted by the Chinese Government. The Soviet ships for the repatriation came to Shanghai at the beginning of August. From August 10, 1947, to the end of the year, a total of 5,449 Soviet repatriates had left China.

Sino-Soviet Airline Agreement—The Chinese Government declared on September 2, 1948 that China had notified the Soviet Government of her desire to discontinue the Sino-Soviet airline agreement covering the Alma Ata-Hami route which was due to expire in September,

1949. The notification was made in accordance with the terms of the agreement providing that either party can notify the other of its desire to discontinue the pact one year in advance.

However, after negotiations, the agreement has been prolonged for another five years, as announced on June 1, 1949.

Severance of Relations with U.S.S.R.—After the Soviet recognition of the Chinese Communist regime on October 2, 1949, the Chinese Government severed diplomatic relations with the U.S.S.R.* (The communist regime, called the "People's Central Government of the People's Republic of China," was established in Peiping on October 1, 1949).

Dr. George K. C. Yeh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, summoned the Soviet Charge d'Affairs, Vladimir Varskov, to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Canton on October 3, 1949, and informed the latter of the decision of the Chinese Government to discontinue diplomatic relations with U.S.S.R. The Soviet Government informed the Chinese Charge d'Affairs in Moscow on October 2 that the Soviet Government would discontinue its diplomatic relations with the Chinese Government upon the recognition of the "People's Republic of China" in Peiping.

On October 3, Acting President Li Tsung-jen, in a statement to the nation, appealed to the friendly powers not to recognize the Peiping regime. He said: "The Chinese Communists have at all times been receiving orders from the Soviet Union. This has been repeatedly confessed by Mao Tse-tung himself. Our friendly nations ought to have a correct understanding of the current situation in China. If China should be entirely thrown under communist rule, the world's free and democratic forces and the entire mankind would be threatened.

"We wish to declare emphatically that any diplomatic relations established with the puppet regime in Peiping by any power will be taken as an unfriendly act toward China."

RELATIONS WITH FRANCE

Relinquishment of Extraterritorial Rights—On February 28, 1946, France signed a treaty with China for the relinquishment of her extraterritorial and related rights in China. The treaty, which

consists of 13 articles, was signed in Chungking by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and M. Jacques Meyrier, French Ambassador to China.

Agreement on Relations in Indo-China—The Sino-French Agreement on Relations in Indo-China was signed at Chungking on February 28, 1946, by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and M. Jacques Meyrier, French Ambassador to China. The provisions of the agreement are divided into four parts. They are: (1) Conditions of Establishment, regarding the status, privileges, exemptions, and obligations of Chinese citizens residing in Indo-China; (2) International Transit, regarding the collection of duties and Custom control in connection with the import and export between the two countries; (3) Sino-Indo-Chinese Commerce, regarding the trading relations between the two countries; and (4) Yunnan-Indo-China Railway, regarding the return of ownership of the Chinese section of the railway to China.

Conference for the Implementation of the Agreement on Relations in Indo-China—After the signing of the Sino-French Agreement on Relations in Indo-China, the Chinese and French Governments discussed ways of implementing the provisions of the agreement. The most important items included: (1) The return of the Chinese section of the Yunnan-Indo-China railway to China; (2) The demarcation of a special district in Haiphong; and (3) The disposition of Japanese property in north Indo-China. In November, 1946, the Chinese delegation, headed by Ling Chi-han and the French delegation headed by Henry Maux, held the first conference. But owing to the uncertain situation in Indo-China resulting in difficulties in obtaining data for reference, the conference was postponed indefinitely after several meetings.

French Economic Mission to China—The French Economic Mission, headed by Henry Maux, arrived in Nanking on November 6, 1946, with a view to reaching a commercial treaty with the Chinese Government. But on account of the conflict in Indo-China, the Chinese Government considered it premature to reach an accord on the exchange of goods. China, however, expressed the desire to exchange goods with France on provisional terms pending the conclusion of a long-range agreement.

Losses Suffered by Chinese Citizens During Indo-China Conflict—The large-scale armed conflict between Indo-Chinese and French authorities, started by the

* Up to December 31, 1949, the Chinese Government has severed relations with Albania, Byelorussia, Burma, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, India, Poland, Rumania, Ukrainian S. S. R., U.S.S.R., and Yugoslavia.

Haiphong smuggling case on November 20, 1946, affected the safety of more than 500,000 Chinese in Indo-China.

The Chinese Government repeatedly declared its neutral position in the strife and instructed Yuen Tse-kien, Consul-General in Hanoi, to that effect. A safety zone for the concentration of Chinese residents was consequently marked out in Hanoi. Early in 1948, when Cochin China was threatened with war, a similar zone was marked out, in Saigon.

For the losses suffered by the Chinese in other areas, the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs sent a request to the French authorities for compensation. The French agreed to compensate Chinese losses in Tan Huang, Gia Dinh, Phu Tho, Vung Lien and An Yang.

Abolition of Special Tax for Asiatics—On October 1, 1931, on account of the increasing immigration of Chinese traders into the Society islands in the southern Pacific, the local authorities announced the imposition of a special tax on business licenses issued to the Chinese. The tax became known as the Special Tax for Asiatics. In Madagascar Island, off the east coast of Africa, the original ruling discriminating against the Africans and Asiatics by tax was revised on November 30, 1905, giving the Chinese citizens there a heavy burden of tax. Following a Chinese protest, an agreement was reached whereby the special tax in different French possessions was abolished. This took effect in Tahiti on October 27, 1947, and in Madagascar early in 1948.

RELATIONS WITH AUSTRALIA, CANADA AND NEW ZEALAND

AUSTRALIA

Diplomatic Missions—China and Australia agreed on February 16, 1948 to elevate the status of their respective diplomatic missions to that of an embassy.

On May 19, 1948, the Chinese Government appointed Kan Nai-kuang as Ambassador to Australia.

CANADA

Relinquishment of Canadian Extraterritorial Rights in China—The Sino-Canadian Treaty for the relinquishment of extraterritorial rights in China was signed in Ottawa on April 14, 1944, by Ambassador Liu Shih-shun and Prime Minister MacKenzie King. Ratifications of the new treaty were exchanged in Chungking on April 3, 1945, between Dr. T. V. Soong and Canadian Ambassador General Victor Odium.

\$60-million Credit—On February 7, 1946, an agreement was signed between Liu Shih-shun, Chinese Ambassador to Canada, and Dr. James L. Illsley, Canadian Minister of Finance, for a loan of Canadian \$60-million for the purchase by the Chinese Government from Canada of wheat, wheat flour, and materials for the building of railroads, ships, and other communications facilities. It was stipulated in the agreement that China should return the loan, principal and interest, before the end of 1977.

Liu Chieh Appointed Ambassador—On May 29, 1947, the Chinese Government appointed Liu Chieh as Ambassador to Canada, succeeding Dr. Liu Shih-shun who was made Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs. Ambassador Liu presented his credentials at Ottawa on June 7, 1947.

NEW ZEALAND

New Immigration Regulations—On December 13, 1944, the General Assembly of New Zealand abolished the discriminatory clauses in the Immigration Law of New Zealand which earlier had been imposed upon Chinese seeking entry into the country.

Chinese Engineers Invited—On January 28, 1948, in a letter to Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Peter Fraser, Prime Minister of New Zealand, proposed that China send six engineers to New Zealand for practice for a year or two at the expense of the Government of New Zealand. The proposal was accepted by the Chinese Government.

RELATIONS WITH ASIATIC COUNTRIES

BURMA

Burmese Independence—Burma gained her independence on April 1, 1948. The Chinese Government sent Dr. George K. C. Yeh, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, as special envoy to extend congratulations. As a token of close friendship between Burma and China, the Burmese Government presented to the Chinese Government the first national flag of independent Burma hoisted in Burma.

Exchange of Diplomatic Missions—After the Chinese and Burmese Governments agreed to exchange their diplomatic missions on September 10, 1947, the Chinese Government appointed Tu Yun-tan as first Ambassador to Burma. Ambassador Tu presented his credentials on March 3, 1948. The first Burmese Ambassador to China, U. Myint Thein, presented his credentials on February 7, 1948.

Question of Boundary Demarcation between China and Burma

(1) The Southern Section—On June 18, 1941, the Chinese and British Governments signed in Chungking an agreement delimiting the southern section of the national boundary of China and Burma and providing that both parties were to set up landmarks by the end of the year. On the outbreak of the Pacific War, the two governments agreed to postpone the work of delimitation. In October, 1947, China suggested to Great Britain that the demarcation work be carried out at the end of the year but the British Government considered it outside its provinces to make such a decision, as Burma was being granted independence. On December 16, in a reply to the Chinese Government, the Burmese Government agreed to carry out the provisions of the Sino-British agreement in the second half of 1948.

(2) The Northern Section—On November 25, 1947, the Chinese Ministry of Interior asserted in a statement that the undelimited frontier of China should include territories west of the Kaolikung mountain and east of Patkai hills such as the Triangle and Hukawang valley. On November 28, the spokesman of the Burmese Government declared that the territories mentioned in the Chinese statement were a part of British Burma which would be considered a part of independent Burma after April 1, 1948.

Regarding the divergence of views on this question, the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs, on December 1, 1947, issued the following statement:

"The question of boundary demarcation between British Burma and China's Yunnan province was covered in the Treaty of 1894 between Great Britain and China. Article 4 of this Treaty stipulates that 'the settlement and delimitation of that portion of the frontier north of Latitude 25° 35' N. shall be reserved for a future understanding between the High Contracting Parties, when the features and conditions of the country are more accurately known.' This undelimited frontier territory as described in the said Treaty covers the area north of Chien-kao-shan ('the high conical peak'), near Tengchung. Repeated subsequent discussions between Great Britain and China failed to produce an agreement. The latest effort towards a settlement was made in August 1941, when the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs suggested once again to the British Ambassador to China that negotiations might be resumed in an amicable and concilia-

tory spirit, looking toward an early settlement. The British Ambassador replied on November 17, 1941, saying that the proposal had been referred to His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom and to the Burma Government for consideration, and that as soon as he heard from them a definite reply would be given. Unfortunately, war broke out in the Pacific in the meantime, and Burma soon fell into enemy hands. The Chinese Government has not since heard further from the British Government on this matter.

"The forthcoming independence of Burma is received by the Chinese Government and people with profound gratification. They believe that China and independent Burma, in an amicable and co-operative spirit, through proper diplomatic channels in accordance with treaty provisions and international law, would find a mutually satisfactory solution to this question.

"Any unilateral action or pronouncement from whatever sources of either side obviously cannot be considered as binding on the other party."

Severance of Diplomatic Relations—The Chinese Government severed diplomatic relations with Burma on December 18, 1949, following Burma's recognition of the Chinese Communist regime in Peiping on the preceding day.

CEYLON

Ceylon gained her dominion status on February 4, 1948. On February 9, 1948, the Chinese Government sent Lo Chialun, Ambassador to India, to Ceylon to participate in the ten-day celebration ceremony.

INDIA

Diplomatic Missions—China and India agreed to elevate the status of their respective diplomatic missions to that of an embassy when India obtained her dominion status after World War II. The Office of Chinese High Commissioner to India was changed into Chinese Embassy in India on November 18, 1946. Lo Chialun, first Chinese Ambassador to India, presented his credentials to Viscount Louis Mountbatten, Viceroy of India, on May 16, 1947. K. P. Menon, Agent-General for India in China, was promoted to be India's first Ambassador to China on March 29, 1947. He was succeeded by Sarkar K. M. Panikkar, who presented his credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek on April 17, 1948.

India's Independence Day—India gained her independence on August 15, 1947 with

the establishment of the Union of India at New Delhi. Lo Chia-lun, Chinese Ambassador to India, participated in the inaugural ceremony. At the flag-raising ceremony held at the Indian Embassy in Nanking on the same day, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, made the following address:

"It gives me particular pleasure to be present, on this auspicious occasion, to celebrate India's Day of Freedom. I wish to extend to Your Excellency and your great country my heartiest congratulations.

"China has always been sympathetic with India's struggle for freedom. In 1942 when Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek visited India, he expressed the hope for India's political future in the following words:

"I sincerely hope and I confidently believe that our ally, Great Britain, without waiting for any demands on the part of the people of India, will, as speedily as possible, give them real political power so that they may be in a position further to develop their spiritual and material strength and thus realize that their participation in the war is not merely an aid to the anti-aggression nations for securing victory, but also a turning point in their struggle for India's Independence."

"This hope of the Generalissimo is now fulfilled. The whole Chinese nation rejoices with India and also with him.

"On this happy day, we must pay our special tribute to Mahatma Gandhi, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru and their colleagues. During their thirty years of unceasing struggle for India's independence, they encountered almost insurmountable difficulties. Outside India, their trials and perils have made a deeper impression on the Chinese people than in any other country. I firmly believe that, now that India has won her independence, she will enter into a new era of splendid efforts and achievements in the annals of the family of nations as well as of India herself.

"For over 2,000 years China and India have been linked by cultural ties. Their relations have never been marred by hostility or strife, an almost unique record in history. More recently China and India passed through a period of close comradeship in arms against aggression. The desire for international cooperation and world peace on the part of India and China have

been clearly demonstrated in their actions in the United Nations.

"Sharing the same ideas and working together for peace, justice and progress, these two sister countries, I am confident, will not only be the best safeguard for the stability of Asia, but are also bound to exert a determining influence on the peace of the world and the welfare of mankind."

China Sends Condolence on Gandhi's Death—Upon the assassination of Mohandas K. Gandhi, the saint of India, on January 30, 1948, Dr. Lo Chia-lun, Chinese Ambassador to India, made a personal call on Prime Minister Nehru to convey the regrets and condolence of the Chinese Government. After that, he went to Birla House to pay homage to the body of the spiritual leader of India. On the following day, Ambassador Lo was the only foreign diplomat present in the funeral procession.

Messages of condolence were sent to Prime Minister Nehru by President and Madame Chiang Kai-shek, Premier Chang Chun, and Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh. President and Madame Chiang's message read:

"We are stunned and deeply grieved at Mr. Gandhi's assassination. It is indeed a heartbreaking world tragedy that the gentle saintly crusador of peace through non-violence should fall victim of violence. To you, to his family, to the Congress Party and to the Indian people, the Chinese people and we send heartfelt sympathy."

Severance of Diplomatic Relations—Diplomatic relations between the Chinese and Indian Governments were broken on December 30, 1949 when the Indian Government accorded diplomatic recognition to the Chinese Communist regime in Peiping.

KOREA

Independence of Korea—The independence of Korea has always been a great concern of the Chinese Government. Such a concern was explicitly expressed by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek at the Cairo Conference in 1943, in which it was decided by the three Allies that Korea should become free and independent after the war. At the Big Three Foreign Ministers' Conference in Moscow in December, 1945 an agreement was reached to place Korea under Allied tutelage and trusteeship for five years. It was China that proposed that the period of trusteeship should be as short as possible.

In March, 1946, a joint commission was formed by the United States and U.S.S.R.

to discuss the organization of a provisional government for Korea. On May 16, the discussions broke down. The meeting was resumed on May 20, 1947 but came to a stalemate in August. On August 29, the United States called on the Soviet Union to agree to a conference among the United States, Britain, U.S.S.R. and China to discuss the question of a united, independent Korea. To this U.S.S.R. did not agree. The American proposal was similar to that of the Chinese Government contained in a letter sent by Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, to General George C. Marshall, U. S. Secretary of State, on May 14, 1947. Following is the text of Minister Wang's letter:

Dear General Marshall:

I am in receipt of a copy of your note addressed to M. Molotov dated April 8 on the situation in Korea, for which I thank you. On behalf of my Government I have the honor to state the following views on the subject of Korea.

The future of Korea is a matter of deep concern and vital interest to China. The Chinese people and Government have always held that the Korean people should be given independence at the earliest possible date. We regret to observe, however, that in spite of the long lapse of time since the defeat of Japan no Government of the Korean people has yet been set up. We strongly urge, therefore, that there should be no further delay in bringing into existence and operation of such a government. In order not to delay further the realization of the aspirations of the Korean people in their long struggle for freedom and independence, it is our view that full consultation should take place among U. S. A., U. S. S. R., Great Britain and China, who are parties to the Moscow Agreement of December 1945 on Korea, if the occupying powers cannot reach an agreement soon on this matter.

I am instructing the Chinese Ambassador in Moscow to furnish copies of this note to M. Molotov and Mr. Bevin.

(Signed) **WANG Shih-chieh**

On November 5, 1947, the United Nations decided to form the United Nations Temporary Commission on Korea to supervise the establishment of an independent Korean Government. The representatives of the commission arrived in Seoul on January 9, 1948. On March 12 the commission adopted a resolution to su-

premise a free general election in south Korea. In May, the election took place. The Chinese Government accorded on August 13, 1948 provisional recognition to the new Government of Korea and appointed Liu Yu-wan as China's diplomatic representative with the rank of an ambassador. In July, 1949, Shao Yu-lin was appointed Ambassador to Korea.

Chiang-Rhee Chinkai Talks—Following his conference with President E. Quirino in July on the formation of a Pacific Union against communism, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek visited Chinkai, south Korea, on August 6-8, 1949 to confer with President Syngman Rhee of Korea.

On August 8, 1949, Generalissimo Chiang and President Rhee issued the following joint statement in Chinkai:

"We both recognize that the menace of international communism, incompatible with human freedom and national independence, must be eradicated, and to combat this common threat we must fight collectively as well as individually. Security can only be strengthened by solidarity.

"We are strongly of the opinion that countries of the Pacific in general and Far Eastern countries in particular are facing a greater danger from international communism today than any other part of the world.

"We have arrived at full agreement concerning the idea of a union as set forth in the joint statement issued by President Quirino and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek on July 12, 1949, at Baguio, in the Philippines.

"We both agreed, further, that the President of the Republic of the Philippines should be requested to take all necessary steps to bring about the birth of the proposed union.

"For this purpose, we are asking President Quirino to convene in the immediate future at Baguio a preliminary conference to devise concrete measures for its organization."

OUTER MONGOLIA

In accordance with the provisions of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance and the notes on Outer Mongolia, China would recognize the independence of Outer Mongolia with the existing boundary as its boundary, should a plebiscite of the Outer Mongolia people confirm this desire. Such a plebiscite was held on October 20, 1945. The Chinese government sent Lei Fa-chang, Vice-Minister of Interior, to Ulan Bator (Urga) as official Chinese witness. Out

of 494,074 Outer Mongolian voters, 483,291 went to the poll and all cast their votes in favor of independence. The result of the plebiscite was received by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on November 16, 1945. On January 5, 1946, the Chinese Government formally announced the independence of Outer Mongolia.

On February 7, 1946, the Outer Mongolian People's Republic sent a representative to Chungking to discuss the establishment of diplomatic relations between the two countries. Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs, in a note to the Mongolian delegate on February 14, 1946, expressed the agreement of the Chinese Government to the proposal.

But the relations between the two countries suffered a great setback on June 5, 1947 when Outer Mongolian cavalry units aided by four planes, attacked Chinese defense forces at Peitashan, 117 miles northeast of Kitai in eastern Sinkiang province. Despite Chinese protests to the U.S.S.R. and Outer Mongolian Government, several more such attacks were made later. The Outer Mongolian Government showed no interest in friendly negotiation concerning the incidents.

On June 24, 1947, the Outer Mongolian People's Republic applied to the United Nations for membership. On June 29, China, because of the Peitashan Incident, vetoed the application.

PAKISTAN

Pakistan's Independence Day—On Pakistan's Independence Day on August 15, 1947, the Chinese Government sent Tsai Wei-ping, Consul-General in Calcutta, to participate in the celebration ceremony at Karachi. On the same day, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs announced the Chinese Government's decision to exchange ambassadors with the Dominion of Pakistan. Up to the end of 1948, however, neither country had appointed diplomatic representatives.

THE REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES

Proclamation of Independence—On July 4, 1946, the independent Republic of the Philippines was proclaimed. China sent Kan Nai-kuang, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, to Manila to attend the celebration ceremony.

Exchange of Diplomatic Missions—After the Chinese and Philippine Governments agreed to exchange ministers, the Executive Yuan appointed on July 24, 1946 Chen Chih-ping as Minister to the Philippines. Minister Chen presented his credentials to President Manuel A. Roxas on October 3. The Philippine Gov-

ernment appointed Procese E. Sebastian Minister to China. The latter presented his credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek on April 19, 1948. In July, 1949, the status of the diplomatic missions between the two countries was elevated to the rank of embassy. Minister Chen was promoted to Ambassador.

Sino-Philippine Treaty of Amity—On April 18, 1947, the Sino-Philippine Treaty of Amity was signed in Manila between Chen Chih-ping, Chinese Minister to the Philippines, and Elpidio Quirino, Philippine Vice-President and concurrently Foreign Minister. The ratifications were exchanged on October 24.

Text of the Sino-Philippine Treaty of Amity follows:

SINO-PHILIPPINE TREATY OF AMITY

The Republic of China and the Republic of the Philippines, animated by the desire to strengthen and perpetuate the friendly relations so happily existing between them, have resolved to conclude a Treaty of Amity and to that end have agreed upon the following articles:

Article I.—There shall be perpetual peace and everlasting amity between the Republic of China and the Republic of the Philippines and their peoples.

Article II.—Should any dispute arise between the two High Contracting Parties which cannot satisfactorily be adjusted by diplomacy, or through mediation or arbitration, the Parties shall not use force for settlement, but shall refer the dispute to the International Court of Justice for final adjudication.

Article III.—Each of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to send to, and receive from, the Other diplomatic representatives. Such diplomatic representatives shall enjoy in the territories of the Other the rights, privileges, exemptions and immunities accorded under generally recognized principles of international law and usage.

Article IV.—Each of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to send to, and receive from, the Other, Consul-General, Consuls, Vice-Consuls and Consular Agents who, being duly provided with exequatur, shall be permitted to reside in the territories of the Other in such places as may be agreed upon by the High Contracting Parties. Such consular representatives shall exercise their functions and enjoy the privileges and immunities accorded to officers of their status and rank in accordance with the generally accepted principles of international law and usage.

Article V.—The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be at liberty to enter or leave, to travel or reside in the territories of the Other upon the same terms as the nationals of any third country in accordance with the laws and regulations of the Other.

Article VI.—The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be accorded, in the territories of the Other, the liberty to establish schools for the education of their children, and shall enjoy freedom of peaceful assembly and association, of publication, of worship and religion, of burial and building cemeteries, upon the same terms as the nationals of any third country in accordance with the laws and regulations of the Other.

The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties shall have the right to acquire, inherit, possess, lease, occupy and dispose of by sale, testament, donation or otherwise, any kind of movable or immovable property and to engage in trade and other peaceful and lawful pursuits throughout the whole extent of the territories of the Other upon the same terms as the nationals of any third country in accordance with the constitution, law and regulations of the Other.

Article VII.—The nations of each of the High Contracting Parties shall be accorded, in the territories of the Other, the same treatment with respect to the protection and security of their persons and property as is accorded to the nationals of the Other.

The nationals of each of the High Contracting Parties shall receive in the territories of the other in regard to all legal proceedings and in matters relating to the administration of justice and the levying of taxes treatment no less favorable than that accorded to the nationals of the Other.

Article VIII.—The High Contracting Parties agree to conclude as soon as practicable a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

Article IX.—The stipulations of this Treaty do not extend to advantages which are now accorded or which may hereafter be accorded by the Republic of the Philippines to the United States of America or its nationals.

Article X.—The High Contracting Parties shall ratify this Treaty in conformity with their respective constitutional procedures, and it shall enter into force on the day on which the exchange of ratifications takes place. The instruments of ratification shall be exchanged in the City of Manila, Philippines.

In Faith Whereof, the Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have signed this present Treaty and have hereunto affixed their seals.

Done in duplicate in the Chinese and English languages, both texts being authentic, in the City of Manila, Republic of the Philippines, this eighteenth day of the fourth month of the thirty-sixth year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the eighteenth day of April in the year one thousand nine hundred and forty-seven, Anno Domini, and of the Independence of the Philippines the first.

For the Republic of China:

(Signed) CHEN CHIH-PING

For the Republic of the Philippines:

(Signed) MANUEL ROXAS

Chiang-Quirino Conference, 1949—Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, accompanied by a group of advisors, visited Baguio, the summer capital of the Philippines, to confer with President Elpidio Quirino on July 10-13, 1949, on the formation of a Pacific Union against communism. (Generalissimo Chiang also conferred with President Syngman Rhee of Korea on the formation of the anti-communism union. See section on "China's Relations with Korea.")

Generalissimo Chiang and President Quirino issued the following joint statement on July 12:

"During the past few days we have had a full exchange of views on matters concerning Sino-Filipino cooperation and the relations among all Far Eastern countries."

"We both feel happy to state that throughout the meeting the atmosphere was permeated with a spirit of frankness and harmony."

"In our discussions we agreed that relations between China and the Philippines will be further strengthened and that concrete and practical measures should immediately be taken by our respective governments for the promotion of closer economic and cultural cooperation."

"In view of the lack of close collaboration among them in the past, and considering the gravity of the communist menace which confronts their freedom and independence today, we deem it necessary that these countries should at once organize themselves into a union for the purpose of achieving solidarity and mutual assistance."

"Representatives of those countries desiring to participate in the formation of the union shall be convened at

the earliest possible moment to devise concrete measures for its organization.

"It is our hope that other countries in Asia and the Pacific will eventually respond to the highest aims of the proposed union."

Generalissimo Chiang also issued a personal statement which reads: "I have come to the Philippines upon the invitation of President Quirino to confer with him in my private capacity. I shall, as leader of the Kuomintang, undertake to advise and request the Chinese Government to give its full support and take steps to implement the agreement as announced in the above joint statement."

On July 16, 1949, a joint meeting of the standing committee of the Central Executive Committee and the Central Political Council of the Kuomintang was held in Canton. At the meeting Generalissimo Chiang reported on his Baguio trip. Acting President Li Tsung-jen and Premier Yen Hsi-shan, who are members of both organs, moved a resolution of giving full support to the formation of a Pacific Union as proposed in the Chiang-Quirino joint statement. The resolution was unanimously adopted.

SIAM

Diplomatic Missions—The Chinese Mission to Siam headed by Li Tieh-tseng arrived in Bangkok on January 9, 1946 to discuss with the Siamese Government matters pertaining to the conclusion of a Sino-Siamese Treaty of Amity. The Siamese Mission to China headed by Luang Sit arrived in Chungking on February 27, 1946.

Sino-Siamese Treaty of Amity—The Sino-Siamese Treaty of Amity was signed in Bangkok on January 23, 1946. The ratifications were exchanged in Chungking on March 28.

Exchange of Ambassadors—Li Tieh-tseng, first Chinese Ambassador to Siam, presented his credentials at Bangkok on September 17, 1946. Sanguan Tularak, first Siamese Ambassador to China, presented his credentials at Nanking on December 28, 1946.

Overseas Chinese Education—According to 1936 statistics, the schools set up by overseas Chinese in Siam totalled 259. The Siamese Government closed all of them in 1939. After China and Siam resumed their diplomatic relations after World War II, most of the schools were allowed to reopen on the condition that the teachers in private schools should pass an examination in the Siamese language and Chinese lessons in compulsory schools

should not exceed five-and-a-half hours a week. After much negotiation between the Chinese Embassy and the Siamese Government, an agreement was reached in 1947 for overseas Chinese schools in Siam to be exempted from these limitations. By January, 1948, more than 300 Chinese schools were registered with the Siamese Government.

But the agreement between the Chinese Embassy officials and the Thamrong government in 1947 was not honored by the Luang Pibul Songgram government which in mid-May, 1948, forced the closure of about 500 Chinese schools. The deadlock was not broken until the beginning of August when the Siamese Government agreed to abide by the agreement providing that Chinese teachers who have proper certificates from recognized institutions in China or have the recommendation of the Chinese Consulate-General in Bangkok would be registered without having to pass any examination in the Siamese language. By August 7, more than 100 Chinese primary schools in Bangkok and Thonburi had been permitted to reopen. But Chinese middle schools remained closed. On September 7, the Chinese consulate-general in Bangkok reported that about 4,000 Chinese students had departed for China for education. The Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs has again taken up the matter with the Siamese authorities.

THE UNITED STATES OF INDONESIA

On December 27, 1949, all the Netherlands East Indies, with the exception of Dutch New Guinea, became the United States of Indonesia. The U.S.I. thus became the seventh nation to gain independence since World War II.

China accorded diplomatic recognition to the new republic on December 28, the day following its birth.

RELATIONS WITH EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

AUSTRIA

Austria regained her national sovereignty after World War II. The Chinese Government extended its recognition of the Austrian Government on July 7, 1946.

In July, 1947, the Chinese Government appointed Shen Shih-hua as Minister to Austria. Minister Shen presented his credentials to President Karl Renner on December 19, 1947. Felix Stummvoll, Austrian Minister to China, presented his credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek on March 5, 1948.

BELGIUM

Extraterritorial Rights—On October 20, 1943, a new treaty for the relinquishment of extraterritorial and all related rights of Belgium and Luxemburg in China was signed in Chungking by T. V. Soong, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Baron Jules Guillaume, Belgian Ambassador.

Brussels Commemorates Dr. Sun's Birthday—To commemorate the 50th anniversary of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's visit to Belgium, the people of Brussels observed Dr. Sun's birthday anniversary on November 12, 1947.

Transfer of Sino-Belgian Radium Institute—The Sino-Belgian Radium Institute in Shanghai established by the Sino-Belgian Educational Fund in 1931 was temporarily placed under the management of the Belgian Medical Foundation in China in 1939 in order to avoid Japanese seizure.

On September 17, 1946, the Belgian Embassy in China sent a memorandum to the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs expressing its wish to return the institute to China. As a result of discussions held on November 30, 1946, between Ling Chih-an, representing China, and Delvaux de Denffe representing Belgium, it was decided to place the institute under the control of a board of directors, organized by the Chinese Government with the Belgian Ambassador to China as honorable chairman.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

In 1944 China agreed with Czechoslovakia to raise the status of their respective diplomatic missions to that of an embassy. In August, 1945, the Chinese Government appointed Lone Liang as Ambassador to Czechoslovakia. Josef Lelék, Czech Ambassador to China, arrived in China in September, 1947 to assume his post.

On October 5, 1949, the Chinese Government announced the severance of diplomatic relations with Czechoslovakia, following the latter's recognition of the Chinese Communist regime in Peiping.

DENMARK

After Denmark's recognition of the Japanese sponsored puppet regimes in Nanking and the Northeast (Manchuria), the Chinese Government on August 20, 1941, announced the severance of diplomatic relations with Denmark. The relations were not resumed until May 17, 1945 when the Danish Government, after

its liberation, announced its severance of diplomatic relations with Japan and the withdrawal of its recognition of the two puppet regimes.

On May 20, 1946, the Danish Government sent a special envoy, Henrik de Kaufmann, to China to conclude the Treaty for the Relinquishment of Danish Extraterritorial Rights in China and the Regulation of Related Matters. Alex Morch, Danish Minister to China, arrived in Nanking on October 8, 1946. Li Chun, Minister to Denmark, arrived in Copenhagen in November, 1947.

GREECE

In September, 1947, China appointed Wen Yuan-ning as her first Ambassador to Greece after the war. Ambassador Wen arrived in Athens in November and presented his credentials to King Paul in January, 1948. The Greek Ambassador to China, Alexander J. Augyros Paulos, presented his credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek in April, 1948.

HUNGARY

On June 6, 1947, China announced her recognition of the postwar Hungarian Government. However, there was no exchange of diplomatic representatives.

China severed diplomatic relations with Hungary in November, 1949, following the latter's recognition of the Chinese Communist regime in Peiping.

THE NETHERLANDS

Sino-Netherlands Treaty—A new Sino-Netherlands Treaty for the relinquishment by the Netherlands of extraterritorial and other special privileges in China was signed on May 29, 1945, in London.

Cultural Relations—In 1933, the Chinese and Netherlands governments agreed to appropriate 400,000 guilders out of China's Boxer indemnity payment to the Netherlands as provided in the final Protocol signed at Peking in 1901, for the promotion of cultural relations between the two countries. The fund was to be used as subsidies to educational and cultural institutions in China and the Netherlands and as scholarships for Chinese studying in the Netherlands.

NORWAY

The Sino-Norwegian Treaty* for the abrogation of Norwegian extraterritorial rights in China and the settlement of related matters was signed on November 10, 1943, in Chungking by T. V. Soong,

* For important points of the Sino-Norwegian Treaty, see CHINA HANDBOOK, 1945.

Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Norwegian Ambassador Alf Hassel. On September 15, the Chinese Government appointed Wunsz King, Ambassador to Belgium, as Ambassador to Norway concurrently. On July 19, 1946, Nicolai Aall, Norwegian Ambassador to China, arrived in Nanking to take up his post.

POLAND

After Poland declared war on Japan following the outbreak of the Pacific War and withdrew her recognition of the Japanese-sponsored puppet regime in the Chinese Northeastern Provinces, China and Poland agreed to resume diplomatic relations. In June, 1942, the two countries decided to elevate the status of their respective missions to that of embassy.

In May, 1946, the Polish Government named Dr. Nichal Derenicz as Polish Charge d'Affairs to China. In June, 1946, the Chinese Government appointed Pao I as Counsellor to establish an embassy in Poland. Mr. Pao arrived in Warsaw in September.

The Chinese Government severed diplomatic relations with Poland on October 5, 1949, following Poland's recognition of the Chinese Communist regime in Peiping.

PORTUGAL

In 1946, the Chinese Government appointed Wang Hua-cheng as Minister to Portugal to replace Henry K. Chang, who was promoted to be China's Ambassador to the Netherlands. The Portuguese Government sent Dr. J. B. Ferreira da Fonseca as Minister to China.

On October 10, 1945, the Portuguese Government notified the Chinese Government of its intention to relinquish its extraterritorial rights in China and conclude a new Sino-Portuguese treaty. But, pending the satisfactory settlement on the problem of Macao, the two countries agreed to abolish the Portuguese special rights in China by an exchange of notes before concluding a new treaty. The notes were duly exchanged by representatives of the two countries in Nanking on April 1, 1947.

SPAIN

Spain has had no diplomatic representation in China since 1936. Following the coup d'etat in Spain that year, Spanish diplomatic personnel in China resigned. Later, in 1937, when the fall of Madrid was imminent, the Chinese diplomatic mission was evacuated to the French border. The mission ceased to function in 1940.

SWEDEN

The new Sino-Swedish Treaty* for the relinquishment of Swedish extraterritorial rights in China was signed on April 5, 1945 in Chungking with T. V. Soong representing China and Minister Sven Alld representing Sweden.

On September 18, 1947, the Chinese and Swedish governments announced their decision to raise the status of their respective diplomatic missions to that of embassy. On September 23, 1947, Hsieh Wei-lin, Minister to Sweden, was promoted to be Ambassador. On April 19, 1948, Tortsten Hammarstrom, Swedish Ambassador to China, presented his credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek.

SWITZERLAND

The Executive Yuan on March 9, 1945 appointed Lone Liang Minister to Switzerland. Dr. Liang arrived in Berne in June. Later, he was succeeded by Wu Nan-ju.

A Swiss Economic Mission, consisting of five leading Swiss industrialists interested in China's postwar reconstruction work, visited Chungking in the summer of 1945.

RELATIONS WITH LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

ARGENTINA

Chen Chieh, first Chinese Ambassador to Argentina, arrived in Buenos Aires to assume his post on April 1, 1946.

The Argentine Government appointed Dr. Emilio R. Escobar as its Ambassador to China. He arrived in China on June 3, 1947.

The Sino-Argentine Treaty of Amity was concluded in Buenos Aires on February 10, 1947.

BRAZIL

On December 17, 1948 the Chinese Government appointed Quo Tai-chi as Ambassador to Brazil. Dr. Quo presented his credentials on April 8, 1948.

Joaquim Eulalio, Brazilian Ambassador to China, presented his credentials in June, 1944. He left China in the beginning of 1948.

CHILE

On November 3, 1945, the Chinese and Chilean Governments announced the raising of the status of their respective diplomatic missions to that of embassy. Chaucer

* For important points of the Sino-Swedish Treaty, see CHINA HANDBOOK, 1945.

Wu, Minister to Chile, was promoted to be Ambassador. He presented his credentials on March 13, 1947.

The Chilean Government appointed Oscar Blanco Viel as its first Ambassador to China. Ambassador Viel arrived in China to present his credentials on March 18, 1947.

In October, 1947, China reached a commercial agreement with Chile for the purchase of 90,000 m. tons of chemicals to be delivered within three years.

COSTA RICA

In June, 1948, the Chinese Government appointed Cheng Chen-yu, Minister to Panama, concurrently Minister to Costa Rica. Up to the end of 1949, the Costa Rican Government had not yet sent any diplomatic mission to China.

The Sino-Costa Rican Treaty of Amity was signed on May 5, 1944. Its ratifications were exchanged on June 15, 1945, at San Jose.

CUBA

On June 19, 1946, the Chinese Government conferred on President Ramon Grau San Martin of Cuba the Special Grand Cordon of the Order of Propitious Clouds.

The Chinese Government appointed in December, 1946, K. C. Mui as Minister to Cuba. The Cuban Minister to China, Robert O. Mendoze, presented his credentials to President Chiang on July 13, 1946.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

In March, 1947 Huang Yun-ssu was appointed Minister to the Dominican Republic. The Dominican Minister to China, Dr. Leonte Guzman Sanchez, arrived in China and presented his credentials in October, 1946.

In 1947, the Chinese Government conferred on the Dominican President Rafael Trujillo the Special Grand Cordon of the Order of Propitious Clouds. In March, 1948, the Dominican Government decorated President Chiang Kai-shek with the Grand Cruz Cordon of the Order of Columbus.

On June 8, 1945, an agreement was signed in San Francisco between T. V. Soong, then president of the Executive Yuan, and the foreign minister of the Dominican Republic to add a clause to the Sino-Dominican Treaty of Amity signed at the Dominican capital on May 11, 1940. By virtue of this added clause, nationals of China and the Dominican Republic may freely enter and leave the territory of each other under the same conditions as nationals of any other country.

ECUADOR

The Chinese and Ecuadorian Governments concluded a treaty of amity on June 1, 1946. The ratification notes were exchanged on April 17, 1947 at Quito.

On January 12, 1948, Yu Wang-teh, Chinese Minister to Colombia and concurrently Minister to Ecuador, presented his credentials to President Carlos Julio Arosemena.

EL SALVADOR

In March, 1943, the Chinese Government appointed Tu Yun-tan, Chinese Minister to Panama, concurrently Minister to El Salvador. Up to the end of 1949 the Government of El Salvador has not yet sent a diplomatic mission to China.

The El Salvador Congress passed on March 29, 1944, a set of new regulations giving equal treatment to Chinese immigrants. The abolition of discriminative ruling against Chinese businessmen in El Salvador remained a subject for negotiation between the two countries.

GUATEMALA

The Chinese Government on November 24, 1944, recognized the new Guatemala Government. Since June, 1939, the Chinese diplomatic representative in Guatemala has been Tchou Che-tsien, Consul-General. Up to the end of 1949 the Guatemalan Government has not yet sent a diplomatic mission to China.

HONDURAS

Honduras amended, on March 2, 1944, its Immigration Law and lifted restrictions against the immigration of Chinese into Honduras.

In June, 1942, the Chinese Government appointed Tu Yun-tan, Chinese Minister to Panama, concurrently Minister to Honduras. Up to the end of 1949 the government of Honduras has not yet sent a diplomatic mission to China.

MEXICO

In August, 1945, the Chinese Government appointed Feng Chih-cheng as Ambassador to Mexico. Ambassador Feng presented his credentials on November 29.

The Sino-Mexican Treaty of Amity was concluded on August, 1944. It came into effect on March 26, 1946 when the ratification notes were exchanged at Mexico City.

On August 1, 1947, the Chinese Government conferred on President Miguel Aleman Valdes of Mexico the Special Grand Cordon of the Order of Propitious Clouds.

The new Mexican Ambassador to China, General Francisco J. Aguilar, arrived in Nanking in August, 1947. He presented his credentials to President Chiang on August 28. On December 12, 1947, he was decorated by the Chinese Government with the Grand Cordon of the Order of Brilliant Star.

NICARAGUA

In August, 1945, the Chinese Government elevated the rank of Ying Shang-teh, Chinese Consul-General in Managua, to that of Minister.

PANAMA

In April, 1942, the Chinese Government appointed Tu Yun-tan Minister to Panama. He was succeeded by Cheng Chen-yu in April, 1948. The Panaman Minister to China, Julio E. Brieno, arrived in China and presented his credentials in May, 1946.

On April 19, 1946, more than 70 officers and 1,000 enlisted men of the Chinese Navy visited Panama on their way back to China after the completion of their training in the United States. During their six-day visit, they were warmly welcomed by the Panaman Government and people.

VENEZUELA

The Sino-Venezuelan Cultural Institute devoted to the promotion of cultural relations between China and Venezuela was established in February, 1947, at Caracas.

On February 15, 1948, when the newly-elected President Romulo Callegos assumed his office, the Chinese Government sent Yu Wang-teh, Minister to Colombia, as special envoy with ambassadorial rank to Caracas to extend congratulations.

RELATIONS WITH NEAR EASTERN AND AFRICAN COUNTRIES

AFGHANISTAN

Habibullah Z. Tarzi, first Afghan Minister to China, arrived in Nanking to present his credentials in July, 1946. The Chinese Minister to Afghanistan, Hsu Nien-tseng, arrived in Kabul in August, 1946.

ARABIA

Efforts for the establishment of relations with Arabia were first made by China in 1936, through the exchange of opinions in Moscow between the Chinese

Ambassador and the Arabian Minister in Moscow. China appointed her first consul to Jidda in 1939.

EGYPT

Ilias Ismail Bey, Egyptian Minister to China, arrived in Nanking in January, 1947, and soon afterwards presented his credentials. The Chinese Government appointed Ho Feng-shan Minister to Egypt in March, 1947. He arrived in Cairo in August. On September 28, 1948, it was announced that China and Egypt had agreed to elevate the status of their respective diplomatic missions from legation to embassy.

The Chinese Government made a contribution of 1-million c.c. of cholera vaccine to the Egyptian Government in October, 1947 when Egypt had an epidemic.

IRAN

In June, 1946, the Chinese Government appointed Cheng Yi-tung as Ambassador to Iran to replace Li Tieh-tseng. Ambassador Cheng presented his credentials on September 14, 1946. Since V-J Day, Djavad Ghadimi, Counsellor, has been in charge of the Iranian Embassy in China.

IRAQ

Since July 7, 1946, Lee Ginffa has been China's Charge d'Affairs in Iraq. Up to the end of 1949, the Iraq Government has sent no diplomatic mission to China.

LIBERIA

China was represented at Liberia's centennial Independence Day on July 24, 1947, by Shih Chao-ying, then consul-general at Johannesburg, South Africa. Shih presented his credentials to President William V. S. Tubman on July 22.

TURKEY

In 1947, Hsu Mo, Chinese Ambassador to Turkey, was recalled, leaving embassy affairs in charge of Chiu Tsu-ming, Counsellor. In March, 1947, Dr. Li Ti-tsun was appointed ambassador to Turkey. He arrived in Ankara in June.

In December, 1947, the Turkish Government made a contribution of 700 kg. of medicines to China for the relief of refugees in flooded areas. The affairs of the Turkish Embassy in China have been in charge of Necdet Ozman, Secretary, since the return of Ambassador Hulusi Fuad Tugay to Turkey in April 26, 1947.

RELATIONS WITH THE VATICAN

In 1946, the Chinese Government and the Vatican agreed to elevate the diplomatic representation of the Holy See in China to that of legation. Monseigneur Riberi, the Vatican Minister to China, arrived in China on December 28, 1946 to present his credentials to President Chiang Kai-shek. In September, 1946, the Chinese Government appointed John C. H. Wu as Chinese Minister to the Vatican succeeding Cheou-kang Sie. In June, 1949, Sie returned to the Vatican as Chinese Minister.

PARTICIPATION IN INTER- NATIONAL CONFERENCES*

THE FOREIGN MINISTERS COUNCIL

The Foreign Ministers Council was convened in London on September 11, 1945, for the discussion of concluding peace treaties with Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Finland. The Chinese Foreign Minister was represented by Dr. Wellington Koo, then Ambassador to Great Britain. The council ended its session on October 2 without success.

PARIS PEACE CONFERENCE

The first peace conference resulting from the Allied victory over the Axis in World War II opened in Paris on July 29, 1946. Besides the United States, United Kingdom, France and U.S.S.R. which drafted preliminary peace terms, 17 Allied nations sent delegates. The chief Chinese delegate to the conference was Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, Minister of Foreign Affairs. China took part in the signing of the peace treaty with Italy.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR CONFERENCE

The 27th Session of the General Conference of International Labor Organization convened in Paris on October 25, 1945. The Chinese Government sent two government delegates, one employers' representative and one labor's representative to attend the conference. The session ended on November 6, 1945.

The Chinese Government also sent delegates to the 28th Session of the Conference convened on June 6, 1946 in Seattle and the 29th Session which opened on September 19, 1946 in Montreal. During the 29th Session, An Instrument for the Amendment of the Constitution, 1946

and An Inter-nation Labor Convention for the Partial Revision of the Convention of the Previous 28th Session were passed. The resolutions were ratified by the Chinese Government in May, 1947.

On June 19, 1947, Chinese delegates attended the 30th Session of the Conference held in Geneva.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR STATISTICS CONFERENCE

The International Labor Statistics Conference in connection with employment, unemployment and cost of living convened in Montreal on August 4, 1947. The Chinese Government sent Wang Lung as representative to the conference.

IRON AND STEEL PRODUCTION COMMITTEE MEETING

The first meeting of the Iron and Steel Production Committee was held in Cleveland, Ohio, in April, 1946. The second meeting of the committee convened in Stockholm, Sweden, on August 19, 1947. China's representation at the meeting included two delegates from the government, two from labor and two from management.

THE PREPARATORY ASIA REGIONAL CONFERENCE

The Preparatory Asia Regional Conference for the discussion of general labor policies and social security problems was held on October 28, 1947 in New Delhi, India. China was represented in the meeting by two delegates.

INDUSTRIAL COMMITTEE ON INLAND TRANSPORT MEETING

The second session of the Industrial Committees on Inland Transport was convened in Geneva in May, 1947. The Chinese Government sent a delegate and an adviser to participate in the meeting.

INTERNATIONAL MARITIME CONFERENCE

The Preparatory Technical Maritime Conference which convened on November 15, 1945 in Copenhagen was attended by a Chinese delegation of three, representing the government, management and labor, respectively.

The International Maritime Conference opened on June 6, 1946 in Seattle. Three Chinese delegates representing the government, management and labor, respectively, also attended.

China was represented by a delegate in the conference of the Joint Maritime

* For other international organizations, see Chapter 13 "China in the United Nations."

Commission of International Labor Office which convened in Geneva on December 1, 1946.

The International Maritime Conference convened in Geneva from February 19 to March 5, 1948 passed the Convention for the Establishment of An Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization. The conference was attended by representatives of 35 countries. Wu Nan-ju, Chinese delegate, was elected to serve as the second vice-chairman of the meeting.

INTERNATIONAL WHEAT CONFERENCE

China was invited to be a member of the International Wheat Council in February, 1946. She sent two delegates to the 12th Session of the Council convened in Washington, D. C. on July 15, 1946, at which a resolution was passed to set up a preparatory committee for the discussion of the Draft of the International Wheat Agreement.

On March 18, 1947, in accordance with the resolution passed by the International Wheat Council, the International Wheat Conference attended by countries that import and export wheat was held in London. China, together with 40 other countries, sent delegates to the conference. The session closed on April 23 without result.

On January 28, 1948, the International Wheat Council convened a special conference in Washington, D. C., for the signing of the International Wheat Agreement. Dr. Wellington Koo, head of Chinese Delegation, signed the agreement on March 6, 1948, for the Chinese Government.

INTERNATIONAL METEOROLOGICAL CONFERENCE

China was one of the 59 countries which sent delegates to the International Meteorological Conference held by the International Meteorological Organization in Canada and the United States on August 4, 1947. The conference was divided into three sessions convened in three different

places. First session—August 4-14 in Toronto; second session—September 17-18 in Montreal; and third session—September 22-October 11 in Washington, D. C. Decision was reached during the third session, which was the Conference of Directors of the International Meteorological Organization, to amend the Convention of the I.M.O. and join the United Nations in the future.

INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION CONFERENCE

The Chinese Government sent delegates to participate in both the First Session of the Interim Council of International Civil Aviation Organization held on August 15, 1945 in Canada and the First Session of the Interim Assembly of ICAO held on May 21, 1946.

The first session of the ICAO Assembly met in Montreal, Canada, from May 6 to 27, 1947. The Chinese delegation was headed by Dr. Liu Chieh, Ambassador to Canada. A resolution including an amendment to the ICAO Convention was passed in the session. After ratification by the Chinese Government, the resolution became effective in China beginning from March 24, 1948.

THE INTER-ASIAN RELATIONS CONFERENCE

China was represented at the Inter-Asian Relations Conference convened at New Delhi in India on March 23, 1947, by a delegation of eight members, headed by Cheng Yen-fen, and one official observer. During the session from March 23 to April 2, 1947, the Chinese delegation actively took part in discussions of various Asiatic problems and the promotion of mutual understanding among different peoples. On the proposal of the Chinese delegation, the conference resolved to set up a permanent Asian Relations Organization. The Chinese delegation also proposed that the 1949 inter-Asian Relations Conference be held in China.

CHAPTER 13

CHINA IN THE UNITED NATIONS

China, one of the four sponsoring nations for the United Nations Conference on International Organization held in San Francisco in 1945, is one of the original members of the United Nations.

One of the five permanent members of the U.N. Security Council, China also holds elected membership in the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, and the International Court of Justice.

China is a member of several world organizations including the following United Nations specialized agencies:

Food and Agriculture Organization,
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development,
International Civil Aviation Organization,
International Labor Organization,
International Monetary Fund,
International Refugee Organization,
International Telecommunication Union,
United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization,
Universal Postal Union,
World Health Organization, and
International Trade Organization (not yet formally established up to the end of 1949).

THE SECURITY COUNCIL

As provided for in the Charter of the United Nations, China is one of the five permanent members of the Security Council and holds the power of veto. Since the establishment of the Security Council, China has taken an active part in its affairs and activities.

China has been represented on the Security Council by the following:

January-February, 1946:

V. K. Wellington Koo, Representative
Foo Ping-sheung, Alternate Representative

March-June, 1946:

Quo Tai-chi, Representative

July-September, 1946:

C. L. Hsia, Acting Representative

October, 1946-May, 1947:

Quo Tai-chi, Representative

C. L. Hsia, Alternate Representative

June-July, 1947:

C. L. Hsia, Acting Representative

Since August, 1947:

Tingfu F. Tsiang, Representative

C. L. Hsia, Alternate Representative

Shuhsi Hsu, Alternate Representative

Atomic Energy Commission.—As a permanent member of the Security Council, China holds membership in the Atomic Energy Commission which was created in January, 1946, by the General Assembly and directed to submit its reports and recommendations to the Security Council.

Commission for Conventional Armaments.—The Security Council, pursuant to a resolution adopted by the General Assembly in December, 1946, established the Commission for Conventional Armaments, composed of members of the Security Council, in February, 1947. A special committee was formed to prepare a plan of work, and the Chinese representative was elected chairman of the committee.

Military Staff Committee.—The Military Staff Committee is a military advisory organ of the Security Council composed of the chiefs-of-staff—or their representatives—of the five permanent members of the Security Council. Head of the Chinese Delegation to this committee is Air Lieutenant-General Mow Pong-tsu, who succeeded General Ho Ying-chin in April, 1948.

CHINA'S CASE IN THE U.N.

China filed a formal complaint with the United Nations General Assembly, fourth session, in September, 1949, against the U.S.S.R., charging the latter with aiding the Chinese Communists in their insurrection and violating the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of

1945 and the Charter of the United Nations. The case was presented by Dr. T. F. Tsiang, chairman of the Chinese Delegation.

Denouncing the U.S.S.R. in a general 1945 and the Charter of the United Nations policy speech before the U.N. General Assembly on September 22, Dr. Tsiang said that "the Soviet Union has obtained in Manchuria more than Czarist Russia ever tried to seize," and "the Soviet Union, through the Chinese Communist Party, has an instrument and a lever with which to undermine the independence and integrity of China, and the peace of the Far East." Formally filing China's complaint on September 27, Dr. Tsiang stated that he hoped that discussion of the case in the United Nations would bring Soviet Russia to "moral and political judgment."

The General Committee of the Assembly voted to place the Chinese complaint on the agenda of the fourth session of the assembly. Despite the fight of Andrei Vyshinsky of U.S.S.R. to keep the issue off the agenda, the Assembly in plenary session on September 29 approved the inclusion of the item by a vote of 45-6. (The Slav states, including Yugoslavia, voted against; Afghanistan, Haiti, Israel, Syria and Yemen abstained.)

Item 68 on the agenda of the U.N. General Assembly, fourth session, entitled "Threats to the political independence and territorial integrity of China and to the peace of the Far East, resulting from Soviet violations of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of August 14, 1945, and from Soviet violations of the Charter of the United Nations," was taken up by the Political Committee of the General Assembly on November 25.

Opening the general debate in the committee, Dr. T. F. Tsiang presented a heavily-documented statement* which told of:

Soviet imperialistic designs upon China;
Soviet policy of preventing the National Government of China from re-establishing Chinese national authority in Manchuria;

Soviet policy of aiding the Chinese Communists in Manchuria, and facts relating to such active aid

—by supplying the Chinese Communists with Japanese arms and ammunition captured by, or surrendered to, the Soviet authorities

—by supplying the Chinese Communists with Soviet-manufactured arms and ammunition and assist-

ing the Chinese Communists in military training

—by using surrendered Japanese soldiers and Korean Communists to fight for the Chinese Communists;

Participation of Soviet military forces in operational activities of the Chinese Communists;

Soviet economic and technical assistance to the Chinese Communists;

Conclusion of a barter agreement between the Soviet Union and the so-called "People's Democratic Regime in Manchuria;"

Evidence regarding Soviet assistance to the Chinese Communists as shown in various statements made by Chinese Communist leaders;

Soviet economic designs on Manchuria;
Murder of Mr. Chang Hsin-fu (Chinese mining engineer);

Summary of Soviet activities in Manchuria—imperialism in all its nakedness;

The question of Outer Mongolia;

The outright annexation of Chinese territory Tanu Tuva;

Soviet imperialistic designs on Sinkiang;

Extension of iron curtain to China;

Soviet imperialistic expansion in Asia;

Soviet threats to peace and security of the Far East;

China's struggle against imperialistic communism; and

Decisions requested of the General Assembly.

He also tabled before the committee annex documents including the text of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs communique (dated Nanking, June 25, 1947) on the negotiations with the U.S.S.R. concerning the take-over of Port Arthur and Dairen (*for text, see chapter on "Foreign Affairs," section on "China's Relations with U.S.S.R."*) and notes on Soviet atrocities in Manchuria with a list of 455 cases of Soviet atrocities in Mukden, Changchun and Harbin.

On the following day, November 26, Dr. Tsiang introduced in the Political Committee a draft resolution, asking the United Nations to (1) find the U.S.S.R. guilty of violating the U.N. Charter and the Sino-Soviet treaty of 1945, (2) urge all U.N. members to desist and refrain from giving any military and economic aid to Chinese Communists, (3) recommend to all U.N. member States not to accord diplomatic recognition to any regime organized by Chinese Communists, and (4) ask all nations not to take advantage of the present situation in China in any way

* See end of this chapter for the text of Dr. Tsiang's statement.

that would be incompatible with the political independence and territorial and administrative integrity of China.

The United States, together with Australia, Mexico, Pakistan, the Philippines, proposed on November 28 a much weaker resolution aimed at promoting the "stability of international relations in the Far East." This joint resolution calls U.N. members to respect China's independence, let the Chinese people choose their own government independent of foreign control, to respect existing treaties with China, and to seek no special territorial rights or spheres of influence in China.

On December 5, Cuba, Ecuador and Peru sponsored a joint resolution referring China's case to the Interim Committee, or a special committee, of the General Assembly. Dr. Jose Vincento Trujillo, Representative of Ecuador, in presenting the joint resolution to the Political Committee stated that "the three delegations of Cuba, Ecuador and Peru feel that the Chinese indictment has not been sufficiently answered, and it has not been answered because we do not have sufficient information. We cannot come to a final decision and we cannot even come to a conclusion on it. We cannot absolve, acquit, or condemn. . . . Our draft resolution is merely to postpone the problem so that it will be considered more fully. We do not want to avoid a solution but we want to back ourselves with knowledge, with conviction." This resolution, subsequently amended by Lebanon and Uruguay, was approved on December 6 by the Political Committee which also accepted the five-power joint resolution.

Speaking before the plenary meeting of the Assembly on December 7, Dr. Tsiang declared that "if an amendment is submitted empowering the Interim Committee to study, in addition to my charges, possible violations of the principles of the five-power solution, my delegation would accept such an amendment."

Both joint resolutions were adopted by the General Assembly on December 8. The five-power joint resolution was approved 45-5 (Soviet bloc voted against; nine members absent). The Latin American resolution passed 32-5 (Soviet bloc opposed; United Kingdom and 17 other members abstained). The second resolution, which took the place of China's demand for an indictment of U.S.S.R., authorizes the Interim Committee to appeal to the Security Council in a China crisis if it saw fit.

Texts of China's draft resolution and the two joint resolutions adopted by the General Assembly follow:

THREATS TO THE POLITICAL INDEPENDENCE AND TERRITORIAL INTEGRITY OF CHINA AND TO THE PEACE OF THE FAR EAST, RESULTING FROM SOVIET VIOLATION OF THE SINO-SOVIET TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP AND ALLIANCE OF AUGUST 14, 1945, AND FROM SOVIET VIOLATIONS OF THE CHARTER OF THE UNITED NATIONS.

CHINA: DRAFT RESOLUTION

The General Assembly—Considering that it is the first purpose of the United Nations to maintain international peace and security, and to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace;

Being of the opinion that the present crisis in China is in part due to China's sacrifices in the long resistance against Axis aggression in common with other freedom-loving nations;

Finding that the U.S.S.R. has persistently obstructed the efforts of the National Government of China in re-establishing Chinese national authority in the Northeastern Provinces (Manchuria) since the surrender of Japan and given military and economic aid to the Chinese Communists in their insurrection against the National Government of China;

Determines that the U.S.S.R. has, by obstructing the National Government of China and by giving aid to the Chinese Communists, violated the Charter of the United Nations and the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the U.S.S.R. of August 14, 1945;

Urges all member States to desist and refrain from giving any military and economic aid to the Chinese Communists;

Recommends to all member States not to accord diplomatic recognition to any regime organized by the Chinese Communists; and

Calls upon all member States to refrain from taking advantage of the present situation in China for any purpose that is incompatible with the political independence and territorial and administrative integrity of China.

THREATS TO THE INDEPENDENCE AND TERRITORIAL INTEGRITY OF CHINA

(Resolution sponsored by the Delegations of Cuba, Ecuador and Peru;

amended by the Delegations of Lebanon and Uruguay; adopted by the General Assembly on December 8, 1949.)

The General Assembly — Considering that item 68 regarding threats to the political independence and territorial integrity of China and to the peace of the Far East, resulting from Soviet violations of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of 14 August 1945, and from Soviet violations of the Charter of the United Nations is of special importance, involves the fundamental principles of the Charter and the prestige of the United Nations and requires further examination and study;

Considering further the resolution on the promotion of the stability of international relations in the Far East;

Decides to refer that item and any other charges of violations of the principles contained in that resolution to the Interim Committee of the General Assembly for continuous examination and study in the light of the resolution mentioned above, and to report to the next session of the General Assembly with recommendations, or to bring it to the attention of the Secretary-General in order to report to the Security Council if it deems it necessary to do so as a result of the examination or of the state of the matter submitted to it for study.

PROMOTION OF THE STABILITY OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN THE FAR EAST

(Joint resolution introduced by the Delegations of Australia, Mexico, Pakistan, the Philippines and the United States; adopted by the General Assembly on December 8, 1949.)

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have expressed in the Charter of the United Nations their determination to practise tolerance and to live together in peace with one another as good neighbors and to unite their strength to maintain international peace and security, and to that end the Members of the United Nations have obligated themselves to carry out the purposes and principles set forth in the Charter,

Whereas it is a purpose of the United Nations to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principles of equal rights and self-determination of peoples,

Whereas the organization of the United Nations is based on the prin-

ciple of the sovereign equality of all its Members and on respect for international agreements, and

Whereas the Charter calls upon all Members to refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any State, or in any other manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations,

The General Assembly — Desiring to promote the stability of international relations in the Far East,

Calls upon all States—1. To respect the political independence of China and to be guided by the principles of the United Nations in their relations with China;

2. To respect the right of the people of China now and in the future to choose freely their political institutions and to maintain a government independent of foreign control;

3. To respect existing treaties relating to China; and

4. To refrain from (a) seeking to acquire spheres of influence or to create foreign controlled regimes within the territory of China; (b) seeking to obtain special rights or privileges within the territory of China.

STATEMENT BY DR. TINGFU F. TSIANG

Chairman of the Chinese Delegation, on November 25, 1949, before the Political Committee of the General Assembly, Fourth Session, relating to the following item of the agenda:

Threats to the political independence and territorial integrity of China and to the peace of the Far East, resulting from Soviet violations of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of 14 August 1945, and from Soviet violation of the Charter of the United Nations.

(I)

In my statement before the plenary session of the Assembly on the 22nd of September, I implored the General Assembly to ponder over the present situation in China and the Far East. I pointed out that since the conclusion of World War II nothing had happened in any part of the world which was more serious than what had happened in my country during recent years. The Chinese Government is convinced that the Assembly should, in its present session, direct its attention to

the danger which is threatening the political independence and territorial integrity of China and the peace and security of the Far East.

I wish to state, under instructions of my Government, that the present danger in China and the Far East is in very large measure due to persistent acts of commission and omission on the part of the Soviet Union in violation of the various treaties and agreements pertaining to China and the Far East and also in violation of the underlying principles and major provisions of the Charter of the United Nations.

During the years following V-J Day, my Government has been most patient in trying to persuade the Government of the Soviet Union to live up to the treaty commitments and Charter obligations which affect the relations between China and the Soviet Union. The negotiations between the Chinese and Soviet Governments were both protracted and difficult. The evidence and supplementary documents which I am about to present to this Committee will show how prolonged and tortuous these negotiations were. It was only when the Chinese Government was fully convinced of the futility of further bi-lateral negotiations, and when it was clear that, as a result of the persistent acts of treaty violations on the part of the Soviet Union, the peace and security of China and the Far East were endangered, that my Government decided to bring the case to the attention of the General Assembly of the United Nations.

(II)

For many generations, the Czars of Russia cherished imperialistic designs upon China. These imperialistic designs were continued, and on a larger and more fearsome scale, after the Communist Party came to assume absolute power in Russia.

There is, however, a basic difference between the Czarist and the Communist programs of imperialistic aggression. While those of the Czars were carried out with what might be termed the old-fashioned methods of aggression, the Soviet Government is employing, in addition to the old methods, a new and potent weapon of aggression—the creation and support of the Communist Party in China. Since its establishment in 1921, the Chinese Communist Party has given definite and conclusive evidence that it is completely subservient to the dictates of Moscow. I quote from an authoritative statement of Mao Tse-tung, the leader of the Chinese Communists:—

“According to the Constitution of the Chinese Communist Party, all who recognize the Constitution and Rules and Program of the Communist International and the Chinese Communist Party (Chapter I, Section 1) . . . may become Party members. . . . The Chinese Communist Party was born with the help of the Communist International; it grew up under the guidance of the Communist International, and the Chinese Revolution developed under the guidance of the Communist International. The Chinese Communist Party and its Central Committee, with the exception of the two short periods under Chen Tu-hsiu-ism and Li Li-san's party line, have been loyal to the guidance of the Communist International. The Central Committee in the periods under Chen Tu-hsiu-ism and Li Li-san's party line did not obey the Communist International, thereby bringing about the failure and the great setback of the Revolution in 1930. To carry out the international line and to be loyal to the Executive Committee of the Communist International is to guarantee the success of the Chinese Revolution.” (Mao Tse-tung, “Chinese Communist Handbook on Party Organization,” Chapter 6, Section II.)

The Chinese Communist Party has been in open armed rebellion against the Chinese Government. On October 1, 1949, that party announced the formation of a “national” regime, calling itself the “Chinese People's Republic.”

This move was so timed that the Soviet Union and its satellites might, even before the General Assembly had an opportunity of discussing this item of the agenda, accord diplomatic recognition to that bogus and puppet regime. This they did on October 3, 1949, two days after its creation, thereby withdrawing their recognition of the Government of the Republic of China. This is the most conclusive evidence that the Soviet Union had been systematically fostering that bogus and puppet regime for the purpose of furthering Soviet imperialistic designs upon China. On October 3, 1949, Dr. George Yeh, Foreign Minister of China, announced the decision of the Chinese Government to sever diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union, on the ground that the Soviet recognition of the bogus regime “is the natural culmination of the long series of violations of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of 1945

on the part of the Soviet Union," and thus constituted "a threat to the peace and security of the Far East."¹

(III)

At the very outset of this debate, it would be well for this Committee to have in mind the fundamental provisions of treaties and the Charter which govern international relations in the Far East.

My fellow delegates will recall that one of the main treaties pertaining to the Far East is the Nine-Power Treaty concluded in Washington between the United States of America, Belgium, the British Empire, China, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands and Portugal, on February 6, 1922. The underlying principle of that Treaty was the desire on the part of the contracting parties "to adopt a policy designed to stabilize conditions in the Far East, to safeguard the rights and interests of China, and to promote intercourse between China and other Powers upon the basis of equality of opportunity." Article I of the Nine-Power Treaty provided as follows:—

"The Contracting Powers, other than China, agree:—

¹ The full text of the statement of Foreign Minister Yeh, read to Mons. Vladimir Varskov, Charge d'Affaires of the Soviet Embassy in Canton, October 3, 1949, at 9:30 P.M., is as follows:—

"Recognition by the Soviet Union of the bogus regime recently set up in Peiping is the natural culmination of the long series of violations to the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of 1945 on the part of the Soviet Union. It constitutes further evidence of Soviet infringement on China's political independence and territorial integrity. No stronger proof than this can be furnished to China's charge pending before the United National General Assembly. There is thus all the more reason for the case to receive full and immediate attention.

"By the Treaty of 1945, the Soviet Union solemnly pledged to recognize the National Government as the only government in China and engaged to give the National Government moral and material support. In recognizing the Peiping regime now in rebellion against the National Government, the Soviet Union not only is tearing the Treaty of 1945 to pieces, she is committing an act contrary to the recognized principles of international law and practices. That the regime set up in Peiping is Soviet sponsored should now be clear to all the world. It is the puppet regime forced upon the people against their will and its ideology is alien to Chinese civilization and the Chinese pattern of life.

"The Chinese Government, in concluding the Treaty of 1945 had hoped that the foundation of peace and security in the Far East would be laid. For this reason China had always observed all her obligations therefrom, in spite of repeated Soviet violations. Recognition of the Peiping regime by the Soviet Union is therefore a threat to the peace and security in the Far East. The Chinese Government in view of the utter disregard by the Soviet Union for the sanctity of treaty obligations, has decided to sever diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union and is taking steps to recall its diplomatic mission and consular posts in the Soviet Union."

(1) To respect the sovereignty, the independence, and the territorial and administrative integrity of China;

(2) To provide the fullest and most unembarrassed opportunity to China to develop and maintain for herself an effective and stable government;

(3) To use their influence for the purpose of effectually establishing and maintaining the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations throughout the territory of China;

(4) To refrain from taking advantage of conditions in China in order to seek special rights or privileges which would abridge the rights of subjects or citizens of friendly States, and from countenancing action inimical to the security of such States."

I wish to emphasize that the Nine-Power Treaty of 1922 gave my country the opportunity, in an age of imperialistic encroachments upon China's territorial and sovereign rights of which the Japanese Twenty-One Demands of 1915 were the most infamous, to develop herself along modern lines. It was during that period following the conclusion of the Nine-Power Treaty that the old government at Peking was overthrown and the National Government of China was established with the capital at Nanking. Since its coming into power in 1928, the National Government became, by general agreement, the most effective and stable government in the modern history of China. It instituted a number of progressive political, economic and social reforms. Even after September 18, 1931, when Japan invaded and took Manchuria, it was able to develop and mobilize the resources of the whole nation in preparation for meeting the challenge of Japan on the fields of war. This was duly recognized even by the Soviet Union. PRAVDA, on December 14, 1936, editorialized:—

"The Japanese militarists correctly regarded that the progress of the process of China's unification around the Chiang Kai-shek Government was the deadly peril to the plan of the Japanese militarists to turn China into their own colony."

In a word, it was due to the efforts of the National Government during the decade of 1927-37 that China was able to fight the full-scale Japanese invasion beginning July 7, 1937, a war which China fought alone for four long and hard years until she was joined by other freedom-loving nations of the world, and which did not terminate until final victory was achieved on V-J Day in 1945.

The most brilliant hope after the holocaust of the second World War, I am sure my colleagues will agree with me, was the creation of the United Nations. My Government was one of the four sponsoring nations of the San Francisco Conference which drafted the Charter of the United Nations. My country was the first nation in the world to embody the support of the United Nations in the fundamental law of the land, the Chinese Constitution of 1947.

The Charter of the United Nations provides, in Article II, that "all Members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state, or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations," and that "all Members, in order to ensure to all of them the rights and benefits resulting from membership, shall fulfill in good faith the obligations assumed by them in accordance with the present Charter."

It is the contention of my Government that the measures taken by the Soviet Union in China are in violation of the underlying spirit, the Preamble, Article I, and the above-mentioned provision of Article II of the Charter of the United Nations.

I wish now to call the attention of my colleagues to the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the Soviet Union concluded on August 14, 1945, and the series of annexed Agreements which form an integral part of the Treaty itself.

The Sino-Soviet Treaty was intended to implement the Yalta Agreement of February 11, 1945, which was concluded without the participation of the Republic of China.

For the sake of maintaining solidarity among the allies in the prosecution of the war against Japan, and for the sake of finding some basis, no matter how painful, by which China and the Soviet Union might develop that degree of friendliness and cooperation so essential to the maintenance of peace and security in the Far East, the Government of China, upon representation from the Government of the United States, proceeded with the negotiations for a Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the Soviet Union. It was indeed a great sacrifice undertaken by the Government and people of China. The momentous decision was taken on the assumption that, by consenting to these infringements upon her territorial and sovereign rights to a wartime ally, China might contribute to

the cause of peace and to the formation of the United Nations, the Charter of which at the time had just been completed.

The Sino-Soviet Treaty provided that the two contracting parties would "act according to the principles of mutual respect for their sovereignty and territorial integrity and of non-interference in the internal affairs of the other." Under the terms of the same Treaty and the Agreements annexed thereto, the Soviet Union, *inter alia*, undertook the following obligations:—

(1) "In accordance with the spirit of the afore-mentioned Treaty (that is, the Sino-Soviet Treaty), and in order to put into effect its aims and purposes, the Government of the U.S.S.R. agrees to give to China its moral support as well as aid in military supplies and other material resources, such support and aid to be entirely given to the National Government as the Central Government of China." (Exchange of Notes, I, A, [1]).

(2) "In the course of the conversations regarding Dairen and Port Arthur and regarding the joint operation of the Chinese Changchun Railway, the Government of the U.S.S.R. regarded the Three Eastern Provinces (that is, Manchuria) as part of China and reaffirmed its respect for China's full sovereignty over the Three Eastern Provinces and recognized their territorial and administrative integrity." (Exchange of Notes, I, A, [2]).

(3) "... the Soviet Government will respect the political independence and territorial integrity of the People's Republic of Mongolia (Outer Mongolia)." (Exchange of Notes, II, B, para. 4).

(4) "As for the recent developments in Sinkiang the Soviet Government confirms that, as stated in Article 5 of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, it has no intention of interfering in the internal affairs of China." (Exchange of Notes, I, A, [3]).

It will be seen that the provisions pertaining to the respect for the sovereignty and territorial and administrative integrity of areas belonging to another State, and the pledge not to interfere in the internal affairs of another State, are merely statements of principles of normal relationships between nations. Any act at variance with these provisions, even in the absence of a special treaty, would constitute a violation of the Charter of the United Nations.

During the four years during which the Treaty and Agreements were in force, the Soviet Union did not see fit to honor any one of these treaty provisions. On the contrary, she took measures which are entirely contrary to, and inconsistent with, such provisions.

On August 25, 1948, the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, reviewed the whole situation with the then Soviet Ambassador to China, General Roschin, calling attention to the obligations assumed by the Soviet Union under the Sino-Soviet Treaty and annexed Agreements and pointing out the specific cases of treaty violations on the part of the Soviet Union. The Foreign Minister also implored the Ambassador to urge his Government speedily to take steps to rectify these violations and mistakes in order that friendly relations between China and the Soviet Union might be maintained. This effort was to no avail.

(IV)

The Chinese Government is in possession of a vast amount of documentary evidence which proves the charges I have made. I shall now undertake to review the more outstanding cases.

The first outstanding case is with regard to the re-establishment of Chinese authority in the key area of Manchuria.

The Northeastern Provinces of China, which together constitute what is commonly called Manchuria, have an area of 1,063,058 square kilometers and a population of 38,386,500. They are one of the richest areas of China, and indeed of all Asia. The heart region is the great prairie, roughly 1,000 kilometers long and 500 kilometers wide, with extremely fertile soil and a climate favorable to grain-growing. Its products, including wheat, corn, kaoliang, rice, and particularly soybean, are world-renown. It is one of the great granaries of the world, comparable to the Manitoba-Dakota area on the North American continent.

The important mineral resources of Manchuria are coal, iron, dolomite and magnesite, aluminous shale, oil shale, structural and chemical materials, gold, and subordinate amounts of silver, copper, lead, zinc, tungsten and less important metals.

In particular, the coal and iron deposits, the two minerals basic to modern industry, make Manchuria the most important area of China. The total coal reserve in Manchuria has been estimated at nine billion tons. The wartime production was 30,000,000 tons per year. The pre-war pig iron output of Manchuria

was about 1,500,000 tons with a steel ingot production of 500,000 to 600,000 tons. During the war years, output increased, and the pig iron output was estimated to be as much as 3,000,000 tons, with a potential steel output of one-half that much.

Manchuria, with the Soviet Union to the north and northeast and with Korea and Japan to the east, has often been the scene of international conflicts, of which the Sino-Japanese war of 1894-95 and the Russo-Japanese war of 1904-05 are the most well known. In September, 1931, the Japanese invaded Manchuria, precipitating a conflict which is now generally regarded as the beginning of the Second World War. As it is well known, it was for the recovery of Manchuria that China took up the challenge of Japan in July, 1937. In recognition of this fact, President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill and Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, meeting in Cairo, on Dec. 1, 1943, declared their "purpose" that "Manchuria, Formosa, and the Pescadores shall be restored to the Republic of China."

The Soviet Union, at Yalta, promised to enter the war against Japan ninety days after the defeat of Germany. On August 9, 1945, the Soviet Union declared war on Japan, and the Soviet Army began to march into Manchuria. At that time, the Japanese were suing for peace, and the atomic bomb had been dropped on Hiroshima. On August 14, 1945, exactly five days after the Soviet Union entered the war, Japan capitulated.

After the Japanese capitulated the Soviet Army was in occupation of the whole area of Manchuria, till May, 1946. During the conference at Moscow leading to the conclusion of the Sino-Soviet Treaty, Marshal Stalin stated that Soviet troops would commence to withdraw from Manchuria within three weeks after the capitulation of Japan and that three months would be the maximum for the completion of the withdrawal. These statements were recorded in the minutes and duly initialed.

The behavior of the Soviet Army in Manchuria was such as to create great bitterness among the people. It is a story of which no civilized country can be proud. To save the time of the committee, I am contenting myself with the submission of a document on this matter.

In order to re-establish its authority in Manchuria, it was necessary for the Chinese Government to transport troops into the region. The most obvious and convenient port of entry was the port of Dairen.

On October 1, 1945, the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs formally notified the Soviet Ambassador to China that the Chinese Thirteenth Army was about to be despatched, by sea from South China, to the port of Dairen. It was to be the first step undertaken by the Chinese Government to re-establish its authority in Manchuria.

On October 6, 1945, the Soviet Ambassador, however, informed the Chinese Acting Foreign Minister that "according to the Sino-Soviet Treaty, Dairen is a commercial port, and that it is a port for the transportation of goods, and not of troops." The Soviet Ambassador went further to state that "the landing of troops at Dairen, of whatever nationality, is a violation of the Sino-Soviet Treaty, and will be opposed by the Soviet Government." This statement was later confirmed by a diplomatic note from the Soviet Embassy, dated October 15, 1945.

This surprising position taken by the Soviet Government was completely beyond the comprehension of the Chinese Government. In the Agreement on Dairen, annexed to the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945, the Soviet Union had pledged to "respect Chinese sovereignty in the control of all of Manchuria as an integral part of China." In the Note from Mr. V. M. Molotov to Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, August 14, 1945, it was clearly stated that:

"In the course of the conversations regarding Dairen and Port Arthur . . . the Government of the U.S.S.R. regarded the Three Eastern Provinces as part of China and reaffirmed its respect for China's full sovereignty over the Three Eastern Provinces and recognized their territorial and administrative integrity."

On the basis of these underlying principles, the Agreement on Dairen declared the port to be "a free port open to the commerce and shipping of all nations." It further declared that "the administration in Dairen shall belong to China."

It was, therefore, completely beyond the imagination of the Chinese Government that the status of Dairen as a free port should constitute a bar to the landing of forces by the Chinese Government, whose sovereign rights over the port were recognized by all nations including the Soviet Union. In fact, the provisions of the Treaty clearly showed that, with the exception of those rights which were granted to the Soviet Union, the Chinese Government possessed all other rights with regard to Dairen.

Subsequently, the Soviet Government advanced a new argument against the landing and stationing of Chinese troops in Dairen and Port Arthur, namely, that a state of war still existed with Japan.

In the protracted negotiations on this question, which lasted from March, 1947, to September, 1948, the Chinese Foreign Minister repeatedly pointed out to the Soviet Ambassador that the Sino-Soviet Treaty and annexed Agreements contained no provision preventing the landing of Chinese troops in Dairen and Port Arthur, that the Treaty was designed against our common enemy and not against one of the parties to the Treaty, that the Japanese enemy had surrendered for more than a year and no state of hostilities existed, and that under any circumstances the entry of Chinese troops to these ports could not have interfered with the prosecution of the war which the Soviet Government insisted was still in progress.

Furthermore, there were ample instances to show that the Allies had taken over, occupied and garrisoned territories formerly belonging to the enemy, without waiting for the conclusion of peace treaties with the Axis aggressors. The Soviet Union itself was in occupation of the Kurile Islands and the southern half of Shakhalin; the United States has taken over the Pacific islands with the permission of the United Nations; Poland has taken over parts of Eastern Germany. All these acts have been taken without having to wait for the conclusion of peace treaties with Japan or Germany. Dairen and Port Arthur are Chinese territory. If the Allies could take over territories belonging to the enemy before formal peace was concluded, there is absolutely no reason why China should, on that fantastic pretext, be prevented from taking over areas which properly belong to China.

The fact remained, however, that the Chinese Government was prevented from despatching troops through Dairen, because of the obstacles thus interposed by the Soviet Government.

While further negotiations were being carried on with the Soviet authorities regarding Dairen, the Chinese Government plainly could not afford to wait for a change in Soviet attitude before re-establishing its authority over Manchuria. The Chinese Government, in view of Soviet obstruction to the landing of troops in Dairen in the early part of October, 1945, then informed the Soviet Embassy in China that Chinese Government troops would, in the meantime, proceed to Manchuria via Yingkow and Hulutao, on the Gulf of Chihli, and that they would be

arriving by November 10, 1945. The Soviet authorities, however, informed the Chinese representatives on November 1, and again on November 3, 1945, that the port of Yingkow was already garrisoned by armed units of unknown origin and allegiance, and that the Soviet authorities could not be responsible for the security of the landing of Chinese troops. In other words, Chinese Communist forces had already been permitted by the Soviet Army to take over the ports and were prepared to defy the landing of Chinese Government troops.

Under such circumstances, the Chinese Government then decided to despatch troops into Manchuria by land and by air. The plan was to transport troops by air to the cities of Mukden and Changchun, and that other troops be transported from North China by railway via the Great Wall pass of Shanhaikwan toward those cities. With regard to the question of the transportation of troops by air, the Chinese Government was informed by the Soviet Ambassador on November 13, 1945, that only security forces and gendarmes could be so transported, and that they should proceed only three or five days before the evacuation of Soviet troops. The Chinese Foreign Minister told the Soviet Ambassador that, since the transportation of troops by air, unlike transportation by land or sea, required more time to get in enough troops to garrison and protect the areas concerned, the time limit of three to five days was too short, and that the minimum period of one week would be required. This reasonable request, dictated by the necessary limitations of the airlift, was rejected by the Soviet authorities.

Similarly, the Soviet authorities also refused to give assistance to those Chinese Government troops which were being despatched from North China into Manchuria through the Great Wall pass of Shanhaikwan on the pretext that the Soviet troops in those areas had already been evacuated, which of course was not the case in fact.

Since the transportation of Chinese Government troops into Manchuria by either land, sea or air, was being hampered by the Soviet authorities, and since in any case the Chinese Government, in taking over Manchuria, had to recruit local forces to preserve the peace in the area, the Chinese Government authorities proceeded to recruit peace preservation units in various areas. This move, too, was obstructed by the Soviet authorities.

On October 20, 1945, General Tung Yen-ping, deputy chief-of-staff of the

Generalissimo's Headquarters in Manchuria, took up the matter of organizing peace preservation units in Mukden and Changchun with General Pavlovsky of the Soviet Military Mission. The next day, General Pavlovsky informed General Tung that the Soviet Government could not permit the organization of peace preservation units in Manchuria. While continuing to negotiate with the Soviet authorities, General Tung, on January 3, 1946, informed General Torochenko that one such regiment was organized in Changchun. According to the records of conversations, General Torochenko did not make any more objection. However, in the night of January 15, 1946, the Soviet Army suddenly descended and encircled the headquarters of the Chinese peace preservation regiment and disarmed the whole unit. The reason given was that Chinese authorities were secretly organizing underground forces. This reason, like so many others, was completely unfounded, because the whole process was made known to General Torochenko from the very beginning. That the Soviet contention was absurd was further shown by the fact that the Soviet authorities had actually maintained a liaison officer, designated by General Carlof, with the peace preservation unit of Changchun.

Let us pause to ponder over the Soviet accusation that China was organizing underground forces. It was agreed between China and the Soviet Union that Soviet occupation forces should be totally withdrawn from Manchuria within a maximum of three months. Under such circumstances, to organize underground forces for the purpose of hastening Soviet withdrawal would be meaningless. In this matter, China could have only one purpose; that is, to preserve peace and order and to re-establish China's administrative authority in Manchuria. The Soviet Union's purpose in preventing China from local recruitment was none other than trying to prevent the National Government of China from re-establishing its authority in Manchuria.

(V)

This Soviet policy of preventing the National Government of China from re-establishing its authority in Manchuria was supplemented by the policy of aiding the Chinese Communist forces to take over areas evacuated by the Soviet Army.

One of the favorite means employed by the Soviet authorities in Manchuria for this purpose was their refusal to advise the appropriate Chinese authorities of the exact dates of the withdrawal of Soviet

troops. They insisted upon keeping their plans secret until two or three days beforehand, thus making it impossible for Chinese Government forces to assume control. The Chinese Communists, however, were always previously informed of Soviet plans, and were therefore able to occupy the areas in the wake of Soviet withdrawal, and through occupation to defy the Government troops.

I have already mentioned the Soviet insistence that only three to five days could be allowed as prior notice of Soviet withdrawal. In the case of the important city of Mukden, however, the Soviet authorities did not even give such a short notice. They just departed suddenly, and upon withdrawal, also destroyed part of the railway north of the city. General Tung Yen-ping reported from Mukden that the Soviet forces had actively assisted Chinese Communist forces at Kaiyuan and Changtu, points northeast of Mukden, to block the entry of Chinese Government troops into that city. These same Chinese Communist troops also launched an attack upon the key point of Szepingkai, north of Mukden, immediately after Soviet withdrawal from that city, on March 16, 1946. It was clear that these Communist attacks upon Government troops would not have been possible without advance knowledge of Soviet plans, which were kept from Chinese Government authorities.

The Chinese Government, however, persisted in its effort to negotiate with the Soviet authorities, in the hope that some working arrangements might ensue. On April 1, 1946, an agreement was reached between Chinese and Soviet authorities, which gave specifications of the procedure and dates of Soviet withdrawal and Chinese re-establishment of authority at various points.

However, it was still the contention of the Soviet authorities, as revealed by the statement of General Torochenko to General Tung Yen-ping, that "our [Soviet] troops stationed north of Changchun cannot await the arrival of Chinese Government troops before withdrawal, and that we [Soviet authorities] can only transfer our responsibility to whatever existing military forces there are."

This statement was of the utmost importance because what was meant by "whatever existing military forces there are" was precisely Chinese Communist forces which were being assembled through advanced knowledge to prepare for attack and occupation in the eventuality of Soviet withdrawal. This was clearly borne out by the case of Changchun. The Soviet

troops left Changchun on April 14, 1946. Two days later Chinese Communist troops took the city and the civilian personnel and military representatives of the Chinese Government in Changchun were compelled to evacuate from the city. The consequences of Soviet policies were shown by later developments. When the Soviet Army finally left Manchuria, the whole area north of Changchun, including such large metropolitan centers as Harbin, Tsitsihar, Kiamusze, etc., was turned over to the Chinese Communists. In other words, the whole area was left by the Soviet Army to "existing military forces" which the Soviet authorities had fostered in the area. A more deliberate and Machiavellian scheme cannot easily be imagined.

By thus leaving a substantial portion of Manchuria to the Chinese Communists, the Soviet Government had laid the groundwork for the rapid growth and expansion of Communist strength in China. Manchuria, in fact, was turned into the base of operation of the Chinese Communists in the open armed rebellion against the Chinese Government.

(VI)

I have so far shown how the Soviet military authorities in Manchuria obstructed the efforts of the National Government of China in re-establishing administrative authority in Manchuria. These obstructions are in direct violation of the Sino-Russian agreement whereby "... the Government of the U.S.S.R. agrees to give to China its moral support as well as aid in military supplies and other material resources, such support and aid to be entirely given to the National Government as the Central Government of China."

I have also shown how the Soviet authorities, by giving the Chinese Communists advance information in regard to Soviet withdrawal, enabled the Chinese Communists' forces to occupy the areas as fast as they were evacuated by the Soviet Army.

Now I wish to present to this Committee facts relating to Soviet active aid to the Chinese Communists.

Soviet active assistance to the Chinese Communists took a variety of forms. One of them was to facilitate their infiltration into Manchuria from North China, there to receive the arms and ammunition captured by or surrendered to the Soviet authorities by the Japanese. Another was for the Soviet authorities to permit the Chinese Communists to recruit locally large numbers of Japanese-sponsored pup-

pet troops as well as bandits to augment their military power. Many of these units of puppet troops and bandits were well armed.

According to Chinese Government reports, in the one-month period between August 9 and September 9, 1945, the Soviet Army in Manchuria captured 594,000 prisoners of war, 925 airplanes, 369 tanks, 35 armored cars, 1,226 pieces of field artillery, 4,836 machineguns, 300,000 rifles, 133 radio sets, 2,300 motor vehicles, 125 tractors, 17,497 horses and mules, and 742 depots with munitions and supplies included. In addition, at the time of its surrender, the Japanese Kwantung Army had on its hands 1,436 pieces of field artillery, 8,989 machine guns, 11,052 grenade throwers, 3,078 trucks, 104,777 horses, 21,084 supply cars, 815 special vehicles, and 287 commanding cars. These captured equipment and supplies were not transferred to the Chinese Government. Neither were the surrendered items.

Shortly after V-J Day, the Chinese Communist forces under the command of Lin Piao infiltrated into Manchuria in large numbers, amounting to about 200,000 men. All of them were unarmed. A short time afterwards, these 200,000 men were all fully armed with Japanese equipment and supplied with Japanese munitions. Since all the equipment and supplies of the Japanese forces in Manchuria were either captured by or surrendered to the Soviet forces, the Chinese Communist forces at that time could have only one source of supply—namely, the Soviet Army.

These statements were substantiated by a mass of evidence, and were subscribed to by many neutral reports. I do not propose to burden the members of this Committee with the details. I merely wish to cite three separate instances which showed how this operation was carried out. One such instance was the testimony of a captured officer of the Chinese Communist forces who told how his unit was supplied with captured or surrendered Japanese arms and ammunition by the Soviet troops in Manchuria. A second instance was the report of another officer who told how the Soviet authorities assisted the Chinese Communists in the recruitment of forces, how they supplied these forces, and how they actually helped them in fighting the Chinese Government forces. A third instance showed how the Soviet authorities turned over the Japanese arms and ammunitions to the Chinese Communists in Mukden, and how these Communist forces were permitted to ex-

pand under Soviet protection. The full texts of these documents, in translation, follow:—

(A) Testimony of Kuo Cheng-fu, Staff Officer of the Fourth Regiment of the Communist Security Defense Force, Heilungkiang Area, who stated (September, 1946) as follows:—

“During my service with the Chinese Communist army, I was sent in August, 1945, to Hailar to receive from the Soviet Army captured Japanese munitions which the Soviet Army had shipped from Manchouli, totalling 128,000 shells, 1,200 boxes of .38mm rifle ammunition.

“On April 15, 1946, the Soviet Army disarmed the Peace Preservation forces of Anta and Kaohsiao (both districts of Heilungkiang), and informed by telephone my unit and the Nineteenth Brigade to proceed to the two districts to receive the equipment and munitions of the disarmed units in the morning of April 16. This notification was formally communicated by the Soviet Commander of the Anta District, Pelolof, to Liu Ping-sheng, Supply Officer of my unit.”

(B) Report of Tsui Kuo-ching, former Commander of the South Liaoning Area Unit of the Northeast Liberation [Communist] Army, who stated as follows:—

“In the middle of September, 1945, eleven representatives of the Chinese Communists, led by Teng Hsi-feng and Wang Ying, came to my area to organize a ‘People’s Armed Peace Preservation Brigade.’ They told me that they came from Liaoning, and that they were acting under orders of the Communist Hopei-Jehol-Liaoning War Area. I reported their activities to the Soviet Commander in the area, Kachilof, who informed me that since these Communists were Chinese forces, they should be given assistance. The Communist representatives were able within ten days to recruit about 5,000 men, mostly laborers, under Soviet protection.

“The Soviet Commander also turned over to the newly recruited forces captured Japanese equipment and munitions and supplies from Japanese warehouses. The Soviet Command was in daily conference with these Communist leaders.

“In the middle of November, 1945, the Communist forces (numbering 40,000) were attacking Government forces in the areas of Chitungku and Lungchangchou, east of Haichen. After

a three-day battle, the Communists were thrown back. On November 24, 1945, the Communists staged a counter-attack with 60,000 men in the areas of Chienshan, Papanling, and Shanyintse, south of Liaoyang. These Communist forces were actively supported by 3,000 Soviet troops, spearheaded by Soviet artillery units and tank units, and assisted by Soviet airplanes. The battle lasted for a whole week. The Government forces suffered severe losses and retreated to the mountainous areas of Haicheng and Choyien."

(C) Report of Chin Chun, Officer of the Peace Preservation Headquarters of the Northwest, who stated as follows:—

"On September 6, 1945, at 10 A.M., an officer of the Communist Hopei-Jehol-Liaoning War Area, Sixteenth sub-area, Tseng Ke-lin, and his Political Commissar, Tang Kai, arrived at Mukden from Chingchow by train. The Soviet Commander of Mukden refused to permit them to leave the train, awaiting instructions from his superiors. After consultations, however, they were permitted to disembark at 9 P.M. the same day, and were stationed near the South Gate, known as Hsiaohoyen. The next day, the Soviet Commander ordered all civilian and Peace Preservation units of Mukden placed under the direction of the Chinese Communist forces.

"After the entry of Chinese Communist forces into Mukden . . . They forthwith began to expand their forces. Equipment and munitions surrendered by the Japanese and puppet troops, with the exception of a small quantity which found their way into the hands of the general population, were all transferred to the Communists. In Mukden itself, the Communists expanded to some 50,000 men. They used Penchi as their base of operation, and fanned out to areas in Eastern and Southern Liaoning. On September 16, 1945, Chinese Communist Commander Li Yun-cheng of the Hopei-Jehol-Liaoning War Area Headquarters arrived in Mukden with his troops. My unit was reorganized into the 12th Brigade. . . . Since we suffered from the lack of supplies because of the expansion, negotiations were conducted with the Soviet Command, and we were able to obtain the supplies of the depots under Soviet control."

(VII)

In addition to Japanese arms and ammunition captured by or surrendered to

the Soviet Army, which were transferred in large quantities to the Chinese Communist forces in Manchuria to assist them in their armed rebellion against the Chinese National Government, the Soviet Union supplied the Chinese Communist forces with arms and ammunition manufactured in the Soviet Union itself. Some samples of these captured equipment are listed as follows:—

(a) Thirteen cases of explosives manufactured in the Soviet Union captured on October 4, 1946, when the Chinese Communists were dynamiting the railway near Kungchiachiao between Hailung and Meihoko.

(b) Soviet-manufactured rifles captured during the campaigns north of Changchun between November, 1946, and March, 1947.

(c) Soviet-manufactured rifles captured during the fifth Szepeingai campaign, June 10-30, 1947.

(d) German-type Soviet-manufactured rifles captured during the Szepeingai campaign.

(e) Soviet-manufactured air-cooled type heavy machineguns captured during the Szepeingai campaign.

(f) Soviet-manufactured light machineguns captured during the Szepeingai campaign.

(g) Soviet-manufactured artillery shells captured July, 1949, in North Hunan and the Northwest theater.

(h) Soviet-manufactured Sikcarlof machinegun captured during the battle of Hsinhsien, Shansi Province, August, 1946.

(i) 27 machineguns of the same type as (h), captured at the battle along the Chengting-Taiyuan Railway, April 28, 1947. (Photographs of the above items are available for inspection.)

In September, 1947, the Chinese Ministry of National Defense permitted an American correspondent to view the samples of captured equipment. His report, in part, was as follows:—

"This correspondent [Mr. William H. Newton of the Scripps-Howard Press] obtained permission from the Chinese Government to examine the equipment. It is arranged on a long table in a room about ten feet wide and thirty feet long.

"There are Russian machine guns of both 1943 and 1944 models. There are army field radios marked 'Made in Britain' in both English and Russian — apparently British lend-lease items which were given to the Soviets in wartime and later transferred to the

Chinese Communists. There is a Russian-made version of the 'walkie-talkie.'

"There are Russian rifles and hand grenades. There are photographs of Russian soldiers and Chinese Communist soldiers taken from bodies of Communists killed in the civil war. There are photographs of Russian supply ships attempting to run the Chinese Navy's blockade between the Russian occupied port of Dairen and the Communist held Chinese port city of Chefoo in Shantung Province.

"There are pictures of Japanese soldiers and soldiers from Soviet occupied north Korea, who were captured with Chinese Communists in the fighting in Manchuria." (WASHINGTON DAILY NEWS, September 24, 1947)

Soviet military aid to the Chinese Communists also included military training which was openly done by Soviet authorities. Soviet instructors were on the staff of Chinese Communist military schools, especially in artillery and mechanized warfare training, at various points in Manchuria. The main school was located at Kiamusze, where a large number of Soviet instructors were concentrated. Soviet instructors also helped in the training of the Communist air force, with one center at Tsitsihar, in north Manchuria, and another center at Khabarovsk, in the Soviet Union itself. The Chinese Consul-General in Khabarovsk reported that, on June 23, 1948, a group of some 50 Chinese wearing Communist air force uniforms were sighted on Marx Street in Khabarovsk.

In addition, large groups of Chinese youths were sent to the Soviet Union for military training. For instance, the Chinese Ministry of National Defense reported that a group of some 300 graduates of secondary schools, all natives of Manchuria, passed through Suifenho in Manchuria on April 27, 1948, on their way to Spask in the Soviet Union, to receive Soviet training in navigation and in amphibious warfare. Another group of 350, composed of students from the North China provinces of Shansi, Chahar and Hopei, passed through Ulan Bator, capital of Outer Mongolia, on July 4, 1948, for advanced training in the Soviet Union. Still another group of 300, from Inner Mongolia, Suiyuan and Chahar, was reported to have gone to the Soviet Union for training in motorized warfare.

(VIII)

When the Japanese surrendered on V-J Day, it was the general policy of the

Allies speedily to repatriate the Japanese soldiers and civilians as well as the Koreans who served with the Japanese. During the period immediately following the termination of the war, the Chinese Government, with the assistance of the Government of the United States, carried out this policy of repatriation as a matter of top priority. During this period, no less than 3,000,000 Japanese soldiers and civilians were so repatriated by the National Government of China.

Although the Soviet Union was one of the Allies at war against Japan, and the whole Japanese Kwantung Army deployed in Manchuria surrendered to the Soviet Army, the Soviet Government has to this day failed to carry out the policy of repatriation. During recent months, some small groups were reported to have been repatriated, but the bulk of the Japanese Kwantung Army still remains in Soviet hands.

It has been the policy of the Soviet Government to make use of these surrendered Japanese soldiers to carry out its aggressive policy toward China. On September 28, 1948, Kato Matsudaira, Chief of the Survey Bureau of the Japanese Foreign Office, stated to the press that an estimated 140,000 former soldiers and nurses of the former Japanese Kwantung Army were either serving with the Chinese Communist forces in Manchuria or were living in Communist-dominated areas of China. Matsudaira further stated that 60,000 Japanese were with the Chinese Communist Army in Manchuria, mostly in auxiliary units, and some were in the front lines operating mechanized weapons and heavy artillery. He also stated that thirty former Japanese pilots had recently returned from the Soviet Union and were training pilots for the Chinese Communists to fly between twenty and forty planes formerly belonging to the Japanese Kwantung Army. (NEW YORK TIMES, September 29, 1948)

This statement is substantiated by numerous specific cases in the knowledge of the Chinese Government. The following cases will serve as illustration:—

(1) Kiyoshi Takahashi, captured by the Chinese Government troops in the battle of Fuyu, confessed that he formerly served in the 242nd Division of the Japanese Army, deployed in Korea. He was captured by the Soviet Army, and was ordered to join the Chinese Communist forces at Yenchi to fight against the Chinese Government.

(2) Yoshizo Onuma, who surrendered to the Chinese Government at

Mukden, related that he fought against the Soviet Army in Manchuria between August 11-13, 1945. He deserted the Japanese Army, and was then captured by the Soviet Army. In September, 1946, he was ordered to join the 7th Brigade of the 3rd Division of the Chinese Communist Eighth Route Army, and fought in the battles of Tamu, Nunan, and Szepingkai, against the Chinese Government troops.

(3) The re-enforcements which the Chinese Communists sent from Manchuria to Shantung to relieve the Chinese Communist forces there were composed of a large number of Korean Communist forces. On June 8, 1947, the Chinese Government naval vessel, the Yunshun, captured twelve of these Korean Communists at the approach to the Shantung port of Chefoo.

(4) The Korean Communist unit, under Li Hung-kuang, took the most active part in the rebellion of the Chinese Communists. The 207th Division of the Chinese Government troops in the battle of Nankowchien (60 kilometers northeast of the Fushun Mines in Manchuria), on June 19-20, 1947, captured one flag, four insignia, and fifty-one documents from this unit. During the same engagement, at Tungyingpan, near Fushun, four members of the Chinese Communist foreign legion were captured, of which one was Japanese and three Korean.

(5) The Japanese newspaper in Harbin, reporting on the fall of Changchun stated on April 20, 1946:—

"Of the 60,000 Northeast Self-Governing (Communist) troops, 200 were our (Japanese) countrymen; particularly, the tank unit engaged in the fierce battle of Changchun was composed entirely of Japanese military men captured by the Soviet Army."

(Photographs showing these captured Japanese and Koreans as well as the captured items are available for inspection.)

(IX)

In addition to assisting the Chinese Communists in the training of their military personnel both in China and in the Soviet Union, and in ordering Japanese and Korean forces to fight for the Chinese Communists, the Soviet Government actually permitted its own military force to engage in the operational activities of the Chinese Communists.

One of the most outrageous cases was the participation of Soviet vessels in the Chinese Communist attack upon the

Changshan Islands, situated in the Gulf of Chihli, which are within a short distance from the Soviet-dominated area of Dairen and Port Arthur. On July 21, 1949, three Soviet vessels of 1,000 tons each were seen anchoring near the islands, and actually firing shots from their anchorage. These acts were in open violation of the territorial waters of China, at a time when the Chinese Communist forces were making an assault upon the Government garrisons on those islands. This incident formed the subject of a protest by the Chinese Government, August 22, 1949.²

² The text of the protest gave the essential fact of the case. It reads as follows:—

"The Chinese Government is in receipt of reports stating that, at 1500 hour, July 21, three Soviet naval vessels of 1,000 tons each were sighted on the sea north of the Huangcheng Island, each equipped with two 3-inch guns and seven automatic guns. These vessels were also equipped with radar. The vessels were seen firing several shots from the waters of Huangcheng Island in the direction of the west. After firing those shots, two of the three vessels were seen sailing in the direction of Port Arthur and Dairen.

"The remaining vessel, No. T-609, was sighted at 1630 hour on the same day sailing by Hsiaoachin Island toward Tachin Island, and dropped anchor for half an hour 500 meters southeast of Tachin Island. Personnel on the vessel also made inquiries of island fisherman regarding conditions on the island, under the pretext of trying to locate missing airplanes. The vessel later that day dropped anchor between Tochi Island and Tachin Island. At 1100 hour, July 22, the vessel sailed and dropped anchor for two hours between Tungtsui of Tochi Island and Moshitsui to the west of the island. Personnel on the vessel again made inquiries of the fishermen on the island.

"The marines stationed on the island thereby served warning on that vessel. It then sailed toward the north of Tachin Island, and there dropped anchor for approximately two hours, during which the vessel was seen fathoming the sea. Afterwards, the vessel was seen sailing in the direction of Dairen.

"It will be noted that all these islands are situated within the territorial waters of China. The Chinese Government has further declared that, from zero hour, June 26, 1949, all foreign ships are temporarily barred, a declaration which was formally communicated to the Soviet Embassy on June 20. These Soviet vessels, without permission from the Chinese Government, were sailing into the closed territorial waters of China, and were firing shots, dropping anchor, fathoming the sea, and making inquiries of the local population. These activities show clearly that they were infringing upon the territorial waters of China, and with the intention of interfering with the enforcement by the Chinese Government of its order to close the territorial waters of China.

"In accordance with the above facts, the Chinese Government hereby protests to the Soviet Government, and declares that, if Soviet vessels continue to sail into the territorial waters of China without the permission of the Chinese Government, the Chinese Government would not be responsible for any danger and damage sustained by the Soviet vessels as a result of military action taken by the Chinese Government."

The Soviet Government did not reply to this protest from the Chinese Government. In fact, when the Chinese Communist forces attacked and took the islands in August, they had forty vessels, each capable of fourteen sea-miles an hour and equipped with 2.5cm guns. These vessels came from the Soviet-controlled port of Dairen.

There were also many instances in which Soviet Army personnel actually manned the guns of the Chinese Communist forces. The Chinese High Command reported, for instance, that in the battles of Kungchuling, Meihoko, Szeping-kai, Pulantien, fought in Manchuria in 1947, the Chinese Communists were attacking with Soviet artillery manned by gunners from the Soviet Army. Another case was reported in 1948, in which the Chinese Communist artillery forces attacking Linfeng in Shansi Province were commanded by Soviet officers, while the gunners were from north Korea.

In short, the Soviet Government and its authorities in China have been openly aiding the Chinese Communists in their armed rebellion against the Chinese Government. They have been extending extensive military assistance to the Chinese Communists, in practically all phases of military activities, including the supply of arms and ammunition, the training of army, naval and air force personnel both in China and in the Soviet Union, and actual participation in operational activities with Soviet officers and men. Far from extending aid to the National Government of China, as the Soviet Union had pledged to do under the Sino-Soviet Treaty and Agreements, the Soviet Government has pursued the exactly opposite policy of giving large-scale and effective assistance to the very force, the avowed policy of which was the overthrow by armed rebellion of the National Government of China.

(X)

Over and above military aid, the Soviet Government also carried on extensive economic relations with the Chinese Communists, extending to them economic and technical assistance to help exploit and develop the resources of China for their subversive purposes, and to obtain from them Chinese products in return for Soviet military supplies. There are in the records of the Chinese Military Intelligence so many such instances that I can only choose at random a few of them to serve as illustrations of what actually

amounted to a very large-scale operation. Here are some of the typical examples in Manchuria:—

(1) February 8, 1947, the Chinese Communists shipped coal produced in Hokiang in Manchuria to Nikolsk in the Soviet Union via Suifenho. In exchange for the coal, the Soviet Union supplied them with a large quantity of military supplies.

(2) February 9, 1947, the Chinese Communists shipped to the Soviet Union from Tsatung (Sungkiang Province) 109 carloads of corn which they had collected as taxation in kind from the farmers.

(3) February 23, 1947, the Chinese Communists supplied the Soviet authorities in Manchuria with wheat grains and soybeans in exchange for ten "Dawn" motor cars which were captured by the Soviet forces in Manchuria.

(4) March 2, 1947, the Chinese Communists in Harbin obtained in exchange for agricultural products, 1,500 Soviet sub-machineguns, 500 cases of T-38 and T-39 rifle ammunition, ten light machineguns of latest model, ten pieces of field artillery, fifty tanks, and ten sets of machinery for the manufacture of ammunition.

(5) In April, 1947, the Soviet Union supplied the Chinese Communists with fifty heavy trucks which were employed in the Kiamusze area.

(6) April 16, 1947, the Soviet Union supplied the Chinese Communists with ten trucks which were attached to the Communist troops in the Liaoning-Kirin area.

(7) May 20, 1947, the Soviet Union supplied the Chinese Communists with 400 motor cars of which fifty were allocated to Hokiang Province.

In the Communist-dominated area of Shantung, many such instances were also reported. Here are some of the typical cases:—

(1) March 24, 1947, the Chinese Communists in Shantung supplied the Soviet troops in north Korea 8,000 pairs of fur trousers, thirty-six pails of soybean oil, in exchange for which the Shantung Communists received some 3,000 artillery shells.

(2) May 30, 1947, the Soviet steamer Krasin (4,000 tons) sailed for the Shantung port of Chefoo from Soviet-controlled Dairen, loaded with supplies for the Chinese Communists in Shantung.

(3) June 6, 1947, the Soviet steamer Kraisin again called at Chefoo from Dairen, carrying 130 passengers and a 360-ton cargo. The ship sailed back from

Chefoo to Dairen with 200 passengers and a cargo of 1,360 tons.³

There are also Chinese Military Intelligence reports showing that the Soviet Government assisted the Chinese Communists in the rehabilitation of the production of military supplies. The following is a list of some of the typical cases:—

(1) The Soviet Government supplied the large Communist arsenal at Mishan, in Manchuria, with six technicians who were captured German experts, specializing in the manufacture of Soviet-type and American-type tommy-guns.

(2) The Soviet Government supplied the Communist arsenal at Tiehli, in Manchuria, some 300 trained workers, some of whom were Soviet citizens, while others were captured Japanese prisoners of war, specializing in the manufacture of hand grenades, shells and rifles.

(3) The factories attached to the Chinese Changchun Railway were remodelled in part for the manufacture of arms and ammunition. The Chinese Changchun Railway Machine Shop and the Dairen

Machine Shop, for instance, were so remodelled to supply the Chinese Communist forces in south Manchuria via Kaiping, Haiyoh, and Wafongtien.

(4) The Soviet Government supplied five Soviet experts and three Japanese experts to the Communist arsenals near Fuping, specializing in chemicals.

(5) The Soviet Government supplied 150 trained workers, partly Soviet and partly Japanese, to the Communist arsenal at Mutangkiang in Manchuria, which was remodelled from a power plant for the manufacture of rifles, machineguns and ammunition.

(6) The Soviet Government had extended aid to the rehabilitation of the Mukden arsenal, which was one of the largest arsenals in the Far East.

The Soviet Government, in addition, had also been helping the Chinese Communists in the rehabilitation of transportation and power industries.

(1) On March 13, 1948, fifteen Soviet technicians from Harbin reported for duty at the Hsiao-fengman power plant, which was one of the largest power plants in China.

(2) On March 16, 1948, a group of some 100 technicians, forming the Soviet Industrial and Mining Inspection Mission, were despatched from Harbin to various points in Communist-dominated areas to assist in the railway and industrial and mining enterprises.

(3) The Soviet Commercial Mission at Harbin concluded with the Chinese Communists an agreement for the establishment of a joint mining corporation for the development of Manchurian mines. A Chinese Communist served as manager of the corporation and there were two assistant managers, one Soviet and one Chinese Communist. A Soviet expert served as the chief engineer.

(4) On August 2, 1948, the Soviet Government despatched from the Soviet Union to Harbin six Soviet engineers and 450 railway workers to assist in the rebuilding of railways.

(5) On August 10, 1948, the Soviet Government and the Chinese Communists jointly established at Tsitsihar the Heilungkiang Valley Gold Mine Administration, headed by a Soviet citizen, with a Chinese Communist deputy, to control and regulate the gold mine at Hsinanling.

(6) The ASSOCIATED PRESS reported from Nanking (July 24, 1949) in part as follows:—

“Russian technical advisers are reliably reported to have aided the Chinese Communists recently in reopening the war-damaged Tientsin-

³ The following is the full text of a letter addressed to the crew of a Soviet ship from the Communist Administration in the Pohai Area of Shantung Province, which illustrates the degree of cooperation between the Soviet areas and Chinese Communist areas:—

“To the comrades on the ship of our great international friend, the Soviet Union:

“It is a matter of deep regret that, owing to the deficiency on our part and the limitations of transportation facilities, we were unable to help you fully to accomplish the task of your call at our area to transport food, and that you were compelled to drop anchor on the sea. Please pardon us for the inconvenience occasioned by our negligence.

“For the sake of developing trade between Dairen and our area, we are trying to promote traders to go to Dairen in large numbers to establish contacts. Mr. Chang Kung-min and Mr. Chang Ming-sheng of the Tahua Company, Mr. Chang Mo-chin and Mr. Hsu Tan-wu of the Taihwin Food Company, Mr. Pi Cheng-chun of the Chenghua Commercial Company, Mr. Yu Pei-hai of the Tungchang Commercial Company, and Mr. Chao Yo-yu of the Yutaichang Company, are now prepared to proceed to Dairen on your ship, under the leadership of Mr. Su Cheng-ming, who came to our area on board your ship. We can guarantee that these seven gentlemen are reliable and will not engage themselves in other activities. They shall come to you in a few days with Mr. Sun Cheng-ming. When they come, it will be appreciated if they can be granted permission to board your ship for Dairen.

“We are sending to you along with this letter three large boxes of cigarettes, 30 ketties of seafood, and one barrel of wine, as our token of comfort. Please accept them as such.

“We present you with the Bolshevik salute!

Signed:

YUAN YEH-LIEH
Commander, Pohai Military Area
CHING HSIAO-CHUN
Political Commissar
LI JEN-FUNG
Chairman of Government”

[Photostatic copy of original letter available for inspection]

Pukow Railway, main trunk line linking North China with the Nanking-Shanghai area.

"Travellers say that at least five Russians helped construct a rail bridge over the Hwai River, about 100 miles north of Nanking, replacing a nine-span structure blown up by the Nationalists last February. The railway is of great importance in supplying the Communist drive in South China and in feeding Shanghai." (NEW YORK TIMES, July 25, 1949)

(7) As reported by the LONDON TIMES (October 13, 1949),

"In a long speech at the inauguration of the Sino-Soviet Friendship Association in Peking on October 7, Liu Shao-chi, president of the association and one of the vice-chairmen of the new Chinese Communist central Government, officially confirmed for the first time the presence of Soviet technical experts in China.

"The Soviet Union," he said, 'has now sent more than 200 specialists to serve in the north-east (i.e., Manchuria) and other parts of China. These specialists told me that Mr. Stalin had sent them to serve in China on the request of the Communist Party of China.' Mr. Stalin, he added, had instructed them to impart all their knowledge and technique to the Chinese people. . . .

"Liu Shao-chi attributed the rapid restoration of the railways in China to help from the Soviet Union, and said that without this help the rehabilitation of the iron and steel industry at centres like Anshan, in Manchuria, would have proceeded much more slowly. Trade with the Soviet Union had begun, he said, the conditions proposed by the Soviet Union being entirely friendly and self-denying, such as would be impossible with capitalist countries.

"Liu Shao-chi praised the Soviet Union in the warmest terms, advocated the closest Sino-Soviet cooperation in every field, and said that in the future, as in the past, the new China must continue to take the Soviet Union as 'the great teacher.'"

(8) The UNITED PRESS reported, October 15, 1949, the following:—

"The Communist radio in Peiping described a flow of Russian 'experts' into the capital city headed by N. V.

Roschin, Soviet Ambassador to Nationalist China, who had presented his credentials to Communist Foreign Minister Chou En-lai Friday.

"The radio said that a third delegation of Russians since the proclamation of the Communist Republic on October 1 had arrived in Peiping. They included the Soviet diplomatic mission and a large delegation of 'cultural workers.'

"The latest group, the radio said, consisted of a number of experts on public health, building and water supply." (NEW YORK TIMES, October 16, 1949.)

(XI)

The most outstanding case of clandestine and illegal transaction between the Soviet Union and the Chinese Communists was the conclusion of a comprehensive barter agreement between the Soviet Union on the one hand and the so-called "People's Democratic Regime in Manchuria," on the other. This Agreement was widely publicized in the Soviet press, and was concluded by an Economic Mission from the so-called "People's Democratic Regime in Manchuria," headed by the Chinese Communist leader, Kao Kang. According to official and press reports, the duration of the Agreement was for one year. Under the Agreement, the Chinese Communists in Manchuria undertook to supply the Soviet Union with soybean, vegetable oils, corn, and rice, in return for machinery, gasoline, petroleum, crude oil, textiles, paper and medical supplies.

On August 6, 1949, the Chinese Acting Foreign Minister lodged a formal protest to the Soviet Government. The Chinese Government protest recalled the provisions of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945 and the annexed Agreements and the many attempts made by the Chinese Government to call the attention of the Soviet Government to its obligations under the Treaty. It stated that the so-called "People's Democratic Regime in Manchuria," with whom the Soviet Government concluded the barter agreement, "is no more or less than a rebel group pledged to overthrow the National Government of China by force." This action, therefore, "is an infringement upon the sovereignty of China over the Three Eastern Provinces (Manchuria)," and showed that the Soviet Union was "purposely

violating the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.”⁴

⁴The full text of the Chinese Government protest, dated August 6, 1949, reads (in translation) as follows:—

“Since the conclusion of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance between China and the Soviet Union on August 14, 1945, the Chinese Government, desiring to maintain and promote the traditional friendship between the two countries, had done its very best to fulfill the obligations under the Treaty. The Chinese Government had hoped that the Government of the Soviet Union would similarly respect the said Treaty and fulfill strictly the obligations in the Treaty. The facts, however, were directly opposite to what the Chinese Government expected.

“With regard to the failure on the part of the Government of the Soviet Union to observe the Treaty, the Government of China had on many occasions called the attention of the Soviet Ambassador to China to that failure. On August 25, 1948, the former Minister of Foreign Affairs of China, Dr. Wang Shih-chieh, had a frank discussion of the question with Ambassador Roschin, during which Dr. Wang pointed out the cases in which the Soviet Union had violated the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, and expressed the hope that, for the sake of maintaining the friendship between China and the Soviet Union, the Soviet Union should forthwith rectify the mistaken steps taken.

“That interview took place one year ago. During the past year, the Government of China, on its part, had firmly held its position of strictly observing the Treaty and fulfilling the obligations provided thereunder. On its part, the attitude of the Soviet Union had shown no signs of improvement. The Government of China cannot help feeling that this is most regrettable.

“The Government of China has received reports stating that the Government of the Soviet Union had conducted negotiations in Moscow with a delegation from the so-called ‘People’s Democratic Regime in Manchuria’ and that a one-year commercial agreement was concluded between the Soviet Union and that regime.

“It will be recalled that Exchange of Notes (I) paragraph (1) of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance provided that ‘the Government of the U.S.S.R. agrees to give to China its moral support as well as aid in military supplies and other material resources, such support and aid to be entirely given to the National Government as the Central Government of China.’ The so-called ‘People’s Democratic Regime in Manchuria,’ with whom the Soviet Union had just concluded a commercial agreement, is no more or less than a rebel group pledged to overthrow the National Government of China by force.

“The above-mentioned Exchange of Notes, paragraph (2), provided that ‘the Government of the U.S.S.R. regarded the Three Eastern Provinces as part of China and reaffirmed its respect for China’s full sovereignty over the Three Eastern Provinces and recognized their territorial and administrative integrity.’ The conclusion of the commercial agreement with the so-called ‘People’s Democratic Regime in Manchuria’ by the Soviet Union is therefore an infringement upon the sovereignty of China over the Three Eastern Provinces. It is abundantly clear from the above that the activities of the Soviet Union are purposely violating the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

“The Government of China, on the strength of the above, hereby strongly protests to the Government of the Soviet Union, and solemnly declares that the Government of the Soviet Union shall be held fully responsible for any consequences arising from the acts of violation of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance.

To this protest, the Soviet Government did not reply.

(XII)

Perhaps the best way to conclude this sordid account of Soviet complicity in the armed rebellion of the Chinese Communists is to cite a few examples of the profuse outpourings of Chinese Communist leaders expressing their profound gratitude to the Soviet Union for the assistance it rendered to their cause, and the Soviet response to such expressions.

The Chinese Communists have been organizing a network of Sino-Soviet Friendship Associations, spread over the area under Communist domination. At the meetings of this association, hundreds of telegrams have been despatched to the Soviet Union and Marshal Stalin, all endorsed by unanimous consent, thanking the Soviet Union in general, and Marshal Stalin in particular, for the “traditional friendly assistance” which they had extended to the Chinese Communists.

At the inauguration of this association in Peiping, July 16, 1949, the Communist commander-in-chief, Chu Teh, spoke as follows:—

“It can be easily seen that the victory of the Chinese people’s democratic revolution is inseparable from the friendly aid of the Soviet Union. If the Soviet Union does not exist, if there is no victory of the anti-Fascist second World War under the leadership of the Soviet Union, if there is no such development as the unprecedented growth since 1944 of the world democratic peace front under the leadership of the Soviet Union, the rapid and quick victory of the Chinese revolution as it is today would have been impossible. Even if we were to succeed, it would be impossible to consolidate our gains. Is this not clear?”

At the same time, many similar voices were heard. The Secretary of the Manchurian Bureau of the Chinese Communist Party, Kao Kang, for instance, stated at a public conference in Mukden, August 17, 1949, that “the reason why the people of China are able to achieve such signal victories is because of the aid extended to us by the international group headed by the Soviet Union.” This chorus was sung again and again and in a thousand voices throughout the Communist-dominated areas of my country. The same Chu Teh, for instance, stated in an article in the COMINFORM JOURNAL published in Bucharest, September 1, 1949, that the Communist victory in China would have

been impossible if not for the "most sincere fraternal and friendly help of the Soviet Union and the proletariat and all the revolutionary people of other countries."

These expressions of gratitude were, of course, warmly received by Moscow and all its satellites, and were also reciprocated. Cominform and Soviet leaders spoke frequently of "the great victories of the Chinese people," which the Soviet press duly elaborated in its editorials. Mao Tse-tung became a hero of the Communist world, and his picture appeared along with Lenin's and Stalin's even at the inauguration of Wilhelm Pieck of the so-called East German Republic. Soviet missions have been sent to China, and their emissaries have told how warmly they felt for the Chinese Communists. All these expressions were coupled with the familiar denunciation of the imperialistic policies of the Western democracies. "We could not," said one Soviet emissary, "but recall with anger that, when we were fighting at Stalingrad, the American imperialists were unwilling to open a second front." "Long live the friendship between the Soviet Union and the Chinese people's democracy!" he shouted, and continued: "This friendship will enable the world to obtain peace, and to bring death to all imperialists!"⁶

⁶ These quotations are from a speech of Simonof, who was one of the forty-three-member "Soviet Cultural Workers Group," which went as official representatives from the Soviet Union to Communist-dominated China. Simonof's speech was made on September 29, 1949, in Mukden. Some more passages from the same speech are quoted below:—

"For over twenty years, we people of the Soviet Union have paid special attention and have been deeply concerned over your struggle. When we were still pupils in primary and secondary schools, we were already concerned over news reports of the victories of the Chinese people's armies. When we were in college, we heard with great enthusiasm the heroic exploit of the long march of 25,000 li of the Chinese people's armies. When we ourselves were fighting at Moscow and Stalingrad, at Vienna and Berlin, we knew and we remembered, during those days, the heroic fight of the Chinese people's liberation armies against Japanese aggression and against traitors.

"When we were healing our war wounds in our own homes, we could not but recall with anger that, when we were fighting at Stalingrad, the American imperialists were unwilling to open a second front. But in this place, in Manchuria, they were supplying the despicable Chiang Kai-shek with great many airplanes and warships to transport troops to attack the liberation area of China.

"For twenty years, our hearts have always been with you. Therefore, we often say: 'The long friendship between the people of the Soviet Union and the people of China is inseparable, and is very firm!'

"Long live the friendship between the Soviet Union and the Chinese people's democracy! This friendship will enable the world to obtain peace, and to bring death to all imperialists!" (*Ta Kung Pao*, October 1, 1949)

More important than these outpourings of gratitude was the fact that the Chinese Communists had adopted as its fundamental foreign policy that of complete subservience to the Soviet Union. Mao Tse-tung, in his speech on July 1, 1949, stated this policy in unmistakable terms. It is to be the policy of the Chinese Communists, he stated,

"To unite in a common struggle with those nations of the world who treat us on the basis of equality and the peoples of all countries. This is to ally with the Soviet Union, to ally with the new democratic countries of Europe, and to ally with the proletariat and masses of the people in other countries to form an international united front.

"'You lean to one side.' Precisely so. The forty years' experience of Sun Yat-sen and the twenty-eight years experience of the Communist Party have made us firmly believe that in order to win victory and to consolidate victory, we must lean to one side. The experience of forty years and twenty-eight years show that, without exception, the Chinese people either lean to one side of imperialism or to the side of socialism.

"To sit on the fence is impossible. A third road does not exist. We oppose the Chiang Kai-shek reactionary clique who lean to the side of imperialism. We also oppose the illusion of a third road. Not only in China but also in the world, without exception, one either leans to the side of imperialism or to the side of socialism. Neutrality is a camouflage, and a third road does not exist."

"To ally with the Soviet Union." That is the key to the fundamental program of Mao Tse-tung and his comrades. This alliance is, furthermore, to be an exclusive and monopolistic affair. Further down in his statement, Mao Tse-tung loudly proclaimed:—

"Internationally, we belong to the anti-imperialist front, headed by the Soviet Union, and we can look for genuine friendly aid from that front, and not from the imperialist front."

On October 1, 1949, the Chinese Communists announced the establishment of a regime in China, to be known as the "Chinese People's Republic." In the speeches, manifestoes and documents relating to this affair, one reads monotonously the refrain of looking toward the Soviet Union for aid, guidance and leadership. The "Common Program" of the First Session of the so-called People's Consultative Conference,

that is, the fundamental statement on policy, proudly announced that,

"The Chinese People's Republic joins with all peace-loving and freedom-loving nations and peoples of the world, and first of all joins with the Soviet Union, and the various people's democratic nations and all oppressed nations, standing on the side of international peace and the democratic front, to oppose imperialist aggression in order to protect the durable peace of the world." (Chapter I, Article 11)

The Manifesto of the Conference, dated October 1, 1949, reiterated the same thing, emphasizing that the Soviet Union was an ally in opposition to "the war-mongering plot of the imperialists." Mao Tse-tung, in his speech opening the Conference on September 20, 1949, likewise emphasized "standing solidly together with the Soviet Union." Ho Hsiang-ning, one of the women delegates, proclaimed that the Communists "must follow the leadership of Mao Tse-tung to join hands forever with the Soviet Union," because she believed that "the Soviet Union is our

teacher," and her comrades should dedicate themselves to fight Anglo-American imperialism which she believed was "on the road to collapse," and implored others "bravely to fight against it," although she felt that "its death is inevitable."

"To ally with the Soviet Union," of course, meant that the Chinese Communists would, as they did in the past, follow every twist and turn of Soviet and Communist world policies. Many eminent historians of the subject have shown how the two policies were coordinated in the past, from the foundation of the Chinese Communist Party in 1921 down to the present day. A recent instance is the manifesto signed by Mao Tse-tung and his associates denouncing the North Atlantic Pact as "an instrument designed to instigate a new aggressive world war and is a threat to human peace and security." The manifesto went on to declare that "if the imperialist aggressive bloc should dare to incite this reactionary war threatening the peoples of the whole world, the Chinese nation will then consolidate the whole people to adopt all nec-

* The text of the manifesto (in translation) reads as follows:

"The North Atlantic Pact, which will be signed on April 4 by the governments of the United States, Canada, England, Denmark, Norway, Iceland, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Portugal, and Italy, is an instrument designed to instigate a new aggressive world war and is a threat to human peace and security. In view of the fact that peace is indivisible, that security and danger are shared by the peoples of the East and the West, and that in fact the governments of England and the United States are expanding the model of the North Atlantic Pact to the Pacific area, the various democratic parties and groups of China firmly declare that they are opposed to the North Atlantic Pact and any other similar aggressive programs. The various democratic parties and groups of China condemn the aggressive policy of the imperialist government of the United States and its satellites for their violation of the Potsdam Agreement and other agreements for the protection of international peace, for their violation of the Charter of the United Nations, and for their violation of the will for peace of the peoples of the various nations. The various democratic parties and groups of China express deep sympathy with and pledge loyal support to the peaceful and democratic forces of the world, headed by the Soviet Union, in their fight against the threat of a new war. The various democratic parties and groups of China firmly believe that this fight will cause the war-mongering imperialists and their running-dogs in various nations to be condemned by the peaceful peoples of the whole world and to be isolated, and it will cause the plot of a new war to go bankrupt. We believe that the world belongs to the peoples, not to the imperialists and their running-dogs. The current aggressiveness of the imperialists and their running-dogs is only a temporary phenomenon; all their plots and schemes, including themselves, will be exposed by the peoples and will be cast aside by them. The various democratic groups and parties of China further solemnly

announce as follows:—if the imperialist aggressive bloc should dare to incite this reactionary war threatening the peoples of the whole world, the Chinese nation will then consolidate the whole people, in obedience to the immortal will of Sun Yat-sen, to adopt all necessary measures and to join hands with the ally of China, the Soviet Union, and other peaceful democratic forces in other nations, in order to fight solemnly against the instigators of aggressive war, and further to defeat the aggressor, to overthrow the whole system of imperialism, and thereby to achieve the liberation of the whole human race and lasting peace. We believe that, should war start, the various aggressive imperialist nations will be the vanquished, and the anti-imperialist nations and the victims of aggression will be the victors. This future has already been pointed out by the experience, of the second World War."

On July 10, 1948, the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party adopted the following resolution (in translation) regarding the Cominform-Tito controversy:—

"The leading bloc of the Communist Party in Yugoslavia, represented by Tito, in its treacherous, erroneous internal and external actions, violates the basic viewpoints of Marxism-Leninism, such as the dissent in principle between socialist and capitalist states . . . and it has therefore fallen into the mire of bourgeois nationalism and bourgeois parties. In view of the fact that the Tito bloc carries out anti-Marxist-Lenin domestic and foreign policies, rejects the fraternal criticisms of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union . . . it has injured the people's cause of Yugoslavia. . . . The Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party makes the following decision: All cadres of the Party should earnestly study the resolutions of the Conference of the Information Bureau of the Communist Parties (the Cominform) on the question of the Communist Party of Yugoslavia so as to strengthen knowledge about class, party, internationalism, spirit of self-criticism and discipline within the Party."

essary measures to join hands with the ally of China, the Soviet Union, and other peaceful democratic forces in other nations, in order to fight solemnly against the instigators of aggressive war, and further to defeat the aggressor, to overthrow the whole system of imperialism, and thereby to achieve the liberation of the whole human race and lasting peace.”

(XIII)

I have outlined for the Committee the steps and measures by which the Soviet Union obstructed the re-establishment of national authority in Manchuria by the Central Government in China.

I have also presented to the Committee facts and figures relating to Soviet military and economic assistance to the Chinese Communists in Manchuria.

Now, I wish to ask the Committee to consider Soviet economic designs on Manchuria.

Upon its entry into Manchuria, the Soviet Army proceeded to remove from the land of its ally whatever the Soviet Government considered worthwhile.

On this aspect of the matter, I shall not weary the Committee with details. Fortunately the Committee can find considerable information from the well-known Report of the Edwin W. Pauley Mission on Japanese Reparations. I draw the attention of the Committee only to the following passage:

“Southern Manchuria, which contained over eighty per cent of Manchurian industry, was taken practically unopposed and with little if any damage. . . .

“Upon their arrival in the industrial area of Manchuria, the Soviets began a systematic confiscation of food and other stockpiles and in early September started the selective removal of industrial machinery. . . .

“They concentrated on certain categories of supplies, machinery and equipment. In addition to taking stockpiles and certain complete industrial installations, the Soviets took by far the larger part of all functioning power generating and transforming equipment, electric power generating and transforming equipment, electric motors, experimental plants, laboratories and hospitals. In machine tools, they took only the newest and best, leaving antiquated tools behind. . . .

“By far the greatest part of the damage to the Manchurian industrial complex occurred during the Soviet occupation and was primarily due to Soviet removals of equipment, and to Soviet failure to preserve order.”

According to the estimate of Mr. Edwin W. Pauley, the total value of the property removed by the Soviet Army from Manchuria was worth \$800,000,000 American dollars. According to the estimate of the experts of my Government, the figure should be more than doubled.

The economic and strategic needs of the Soviet Union should have been met with the conclusion of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance of 1945, where my Government had agreed to cede to the Soviet Union part share of the trunk railway of Manchuria and part share in the two great ports of Port Arthur and Dairen. On top of these extraordinary concessions, however, Soviet Russia proceeded to despoil Manchuria.

In addition to dismantling and removing these industrial assets of Manchuria under the pretext of “war booty,” the Soviet Government proposed to the Chinese Government, on the threat of delaying the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Manchuria, a program for Chinese-Soviet joint operation of industrial and mining enterprises in Manchuria, including civil aviation.

On November 24, 1945, Slatekovsky, Economic Adviser to Marshal Malinovsky, the Commander of the Soviet Army in Manchuria, formally presented such a proposal to Dr. Chang Chia-ngau, Chairman of the Economic Commission of the Generalissimo's Headquarters in Manchuria. Slatekovsky handed to Dr. Chang a list of 154 industrial and mining enterprises (including specified coal mines, power plants, iron and steel industries, chemical industries, and cement industries), comprising over eighty per cent of the heavy industry of Manchuria, which the Soviet Government proposed should be placed under the joint operation of China and the Soviet Union.

In a meeting with Marshal Malinovsky, on December 4, 1945, Dr. Chang told the Soviet commander that, in order to avoid any possible misunderstanding, discussion on the subject could only begin after the complete withdrawal of Soviet troops from Manchuria. Marshal Malinovsky, however, felt that it would be advisable to proceed with the discussions.

On December 7, 1945, Slatekovsky again took up the question of the list of 154 enterprises with Dr. Chang, declaring that all industrial enterprises in Manchuria should be regarded as “war booty” of the Soviet Union. Dr. Chang took sharp issue with this statement, and explained that “war booty” was a term confined to enemy combat material and supplies.

He declared that industrial and mining enterprises could in no way be regarded as such.

This interview was followed by further discussions between Dr. Chang and Slatekovsky (January 16, 1946) and Marshal Malinovsky, during which the Marshal proclaimed that the proposition for joint operation was for the purpose of maintaining Soviet national defense. He further warned that, since it was his mission to re-establish political authority and to resolve the question of economic co-operation, he would not be able to predict the date of the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Manchuria before these questions were resolved.

The Soviet Government, failing to achieve its aims on a local basis, then took up the question formally through diplomatic channels. On January 21, 1946, the Soviet Ambassador to China, Petrov, made representations to Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek, President of the National Government of China.

On March 27, 1946, Petrov handed to the Chinese Foreign Minister the formal Soviet proposal for Chinese-Soviet co-operation in the operation of the Manchurian enterprises. The proposal listed the economic enterprises which the Soviet Government suggested should be jointly operated by the Chinese and Soviet Governments. They included the principal coal mines, iron mines and foundries, steel mills, oil refineries, cement plants, power plants, salt mines, and also the airfields at the principal cities of Manchuria, which were to be jointly operated through the organization of a Chinese-Soviet corporation of civil aviation. It was further proposed to form a Chinese-Soviet joint stock company, the Chinese and Soviet governments each holding fifty percent of the stock, with a Chinese as chairman of the board of directors, and a Soviet citizen as the vice-chairman.

The administration of these enterprises, according to the Soviet proposal, was to be entrusted to a general manager to be appointed by the Soviet and an assistant manager to be appointed by the Chinese. The Chinese-Soviet joint stock company should operate these enterprises for thirty years, after which all the enterprises concerned would be returned to the Chinese Government without compensation.

Shortly before these formal proposals were laid before the Chinese Government, the Soviet Army Headquarters in Manchuria, during its celebrations of the Red Army Day, dealt belliciously with this question of Chinese-Soviet joint operation of Manchurian industries. Marshal Malin-

ovsky, his economic adviser, Slatekovsky, and General Torochenko, all stressed the great importance of the matter and pointed out that the proposal was designed as a measure, not for monetary profit rewards, but for the sake of Soviet national defense.

Since no basis for agreement could be discovered, the negotiations, both those between local military authorities in Manchuria and those between the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Soviet Ambassador, led to no results.

However, if my Government had yielded, Manchuria would have become a colony of the Soviet Union. Today, with the Chinese Communists in control of Manchuria, the economic designs of the Soviet Union are being effected step by step. Such imperialism is contrary to the spirit of the age; it violates both the Charter and the treaties between China and the Soviet Union.

(XIV)

The interest of the Soviet Union in the control of the economy of Manchuria, when the above-mentioned negotiations were going on, was so intense that the Soviet authorities went so far as to take all measures, including murder, to discourage and intimidate Chinese Government authorities from taking over the economic enterprises in Manchuria. The most tragic case of its kind was the brutal murder of the Chinese mining engineer, Chang Hsin-fu, which took place in an area garrisoned by the Soviet Army.

Mr. Chang was Special Commissioner of the Chinese Ministry of Economic Affairs. He was despatched to the Fushun coal mines by agreement between the Chinese Director of the Chinese Changchun Railway and the Deputy Soviet Director of the same railway. His special mission was to take over the Fushun mines to supply the urgent needs of the Chinese Changchun Railway. His Soviet counterpart was the Soviet Assistant Deputy Director of the railway. The two representatives were escorted to Fushun from Mukden by Soviet troops on January 17, 1946. When Mr. Chang was at Fushun, he was part of the time under Soviet guards.

January 18, 1946, Mr. Chang was returning to Mukden under Soviet guard protection, in an area garrisoned by Soviet troops. When his train arrived at the station of Lierchan (25 kilometers from Fushun) at 8 P.M., Mr. Chang was forced to leave the train and brutally murdered on the spot with rifle butts. The Soviet authorities never brought the murderers to justice.

(XV)

I wish now to summarize all that I have said in regard to Soviet activities in Manchuria.

It will be seen that the program of the Soviet Union in relation to China during the post-war period, as revealed by its acts of commission and omission, and supported by abundant and incontrovertible evidence, falls generally into three parallel lines of attack.

First, it was the policy of the Soviet Union to obstruct every effort of the Chinese Government to take over Manchuria and re-establish its authority there. The Soviet Union denied to China the use of Dairen in transporting troops to Manchuria; it placed obstacles in China's way when my Government tried to use other ports, railways, and air transport. The Soviet Union prevented China from recruiting and organizing local military units to maintain law and order. The Soviet Union refused to furnish prompt and accurate information on the time table of the withdrawal of its troops so that Chinese Government troops might take over the areas as they were evacuated.

Secondly, the Soviet authorities in Manchuria deliberately afforded the maximum and unfettered opportunities for the growth and expansion of Chinese Communist forces, and to permit these forces to use strategic centers of Manchuria as bases of operations against the Chinese Government.

Thirdly, the Soviet Government actively supported the Chinese Communists, militarily, economically and morally, with vast stores of captured and surrendered Japanese arms and ammunition and military supplies manufactured in the Soviet Union itself.

Finally, the Soviet Union took advantage of its occupation of Manchuria and the tragic circumstance of the civil war to demand from China vast economic concessions in Manchuria, comprising eighty percent of the industrial resources of the region and including civil aviation. Although my Government refused these demands, there can be no doubt that the Soviet Union is completing the economic conquest of Manchuria with the connivance of the Chinese Communists.

It goes without saying that these acts perpetrated by the Soviet Union toward China are in open violation of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance and the annexed Agreements which were concluded between the two nations as late as August 14, 1945. While pledging to regard Manchuria as part of China and

reaffirming its respect for China's full sovereignty over Manchuria and recognizing its territorial and administrative integrity, the Soviet Union has been using every trick in the books to prevent the Chinese Government from re-establishing its authority over Manchuria. On the contrary, the Soviet Union was actually trying to force the Chinese Government to accept her as a partner over the whole area, giving her part control of over eighty percent of the heavy industries of Manchuria, as well as the operation of all major civil airfields. While pledging to give to the National Government as the Central Government of China moral support as well as aid in military supplies, the Soviet Union did the exact opposite thing of fostering the growth and expansion of the Chinese Communist Party whose program it is to overthrow the National Government of China. This is imperialism in all its nakedness. It is an immoral and cynical program of aggression. It is a flagrant violation of the territorial integrity and political independence of a Member State of the United Nations, and therefore is a violation of the Charter of the United Nations.

(XVI)

I wish now to direct attention to another phase of the question—that of Outer Mongolia.

It will be recalled that, in 1924, an Agreement was concluded between China and the Soviet Union under which it was provided that "the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics recognizes that Outer Mongolia is an integral part of the Republic of China and respects China's sovereignty therein."

However, when Outer Mongolia declared itself a People's Republic, the Soviet Union, in spite of the Sino-Soviet Agreement of 1924 quoted above, immediately extended to this so-called People's Republic its recognition. In 1936, the Soviet Union went further and signed with the so-called Mongolian People's Republic a mutual assistance protocol. The Chinese Government protested against this protocol. The Soviet Union, however, maintained that, in spite of its recognition and the mutual assistance protocol, the Sino-Soviet Agreement of 1924 still remained in force and denied that the protocol was a violation of that Agreement.

In the Exchange of Notes regarding Outer Mongolia in connection with the conclusion of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945, the Chinese Government declared that, after the defeat of Japan, a plebiscite should be held in Outer Mongolia to

ascertain the will of the people regarding their independence. Should the people desire such independence, as revealed by the results of the plebiscite, "the Chinese Government will recognize the independence of Outer Mongolia." On its part, the Soviet Government, in a note signed by Mr. V. M. Molotov, declared that "the Soviet Government will respect the political independence and territorial integrity of the People's Republic of Mongolia (Outer Mongolia)." A plebiscite was held in Outer Mongolia on October 20, 1945, and on January 5, 1946, the National Government of China formally recognized the independence of Outer Mongolia.

According to reports received by the Chinese Government, and reports from other sources, the Soviet Government is maintaining advisers and other personnel in all branches of the government of Outer Mongolia. Soviet officials are attached to all levels of the political and administrative machinery of this so-called independent state, from the central government down to the villages. There are Soviet advisers attached to every unit of the army of Outer Mongolia, and Soviet officers are even participating in the operational activities of that army. The Soviet Government maintains a virtual monopoly of its foreign trade through Soviet agents stationed therein, thus compelling it to supply the Soviet Union with a great part of its material resources.

Since the so-called independence of Outer Mongolia, an iron curtain has descended between that unhappy state and the outside world, including China. But, owing to racial affinity and other factors, and the desire on the part of the Mongolian population to remain free, many of its courageous citizens have succeeded in escaping into China, there to tell a tale of oppression and virtual conquest. The facts clearly show that the Soviet Union has failed to live up to its solemn pledge "to respect the political independence and territorial integrity of Outer Mongolia."

(XVII)

Northwest of Outer Mongolia is the territory of Tannu Uryankhai, sometimes also called Tannu Tuva, with an area of 170,000 square kilometers, or slightly smaller than Austria and Hungary combined, and with a population of 95,000. The case of Tannu Tuva is one of outright annexation of Chinese territory by the Soviet Union.

According to the Kiakhta Boundary Convention of 1727, concluded between China and Russia, the territory of Tannu

Tuva was clearly recognized as part of China. The Chinese Government has always recognized it as such, and has never agreed to any change in its status.

The people of Tannu Tuva are close to the people of Mongolia in religion and pattern of life. Their leaders prefer joining Outer Mongolia. But the Soviet Union ruthlessly suppressed the pro-Mongolian sympathies and for many years, while nominally maintaining the so-called People's Republic of Tuva, really exercised a severe protectorate over the region.

However, in March, 1948, it was learned that the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic (R.S.F.S.R.) had taken a decision, during its deliberations over amendments to the Constitution, to incorporate Tannu Tuva as one of the autonomous regions of the R.S.F.S.R. This decision was taken in connection with Article 14 of the Constitution, which lists Tannu Tuva as one of the six autonomous regions of the R.S.F.S.R.

The Chinese Government, through the Chinese Ambassador in Moscow, strongly protested to the Soviet Union on May 7, 1948, against the annexation of Tannu Tuva by Soviet Russia. The protest was never answered. One wonders how many other People's Republics will suffer the fate of Tannu Tuva.

(XVIII)

I do not propose, in this account, to go into the long and tortuous history of Chinese-Soviet relations relating to the Chinese province of Sinkiang, sometimes known to the outside world as Chinese Turkestan. Sinkiang, the largest of China's provinces, has an area of 1,828,000 square kilometers, with a population of 4,012,000. It borders on Outer Mongolia to the northeast, the Soviet Union for a thousand miles to the north and the northwest, India to the southwest and Tibet to the south. Although its natural resources are yet only partly exploited, it has tremendous possibilities in the development of coal, gold, copper, iron, tin and sulphur. The discovery of oil in Sinkiang has added greatly to the strategic importance of the area.

For a considerable period of time, the Soviet Government has sought to exploit the complicated ethnic situation in Sinkiang to serve her aggressive purposes. It was clearly evident that the Soviet Government was behind the rebellion of the Kazakh chief, Usman, in 1943. In the following year, 1944, the Soviet Government played an active part in support of this

rebellion, going so far as to despatch Soviet airplanes to bomb the Chinese Government troops suppressing the Usman rebellion. On March 2, 1944, at 2 P.M., an observation airplane with plain Soviet insignia was sighted over the Chinese Government positions at Huihoko, south of the district of Chingho. The next morning, at 8 A.M., a fighter airplane with Soviet insignia was sighted over the same area. At 8:30 A.M., March 11, six light bomber airplanes and two fighter airplanes, all bearing Soviet insignia, flew over the area and bombed the Chinese Government troops, inflicting heavy losses. The most severe attack took place on March 15, during which the whole body of Chinese Government troops were either killed or wounded. Under such air cover, the Kazakh chief, Usman, heading a force of 3,000, and ably assisted by Outer Mongolian troops under the command of Soviet officers, succeeded in wiping out the entire Chinese garrison of three regiments.

On March 9, 1944, the Commissioner of the Chinese Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Sinkiang protested to the Soviet Consul-General at Tihwa (Urumchi). On March 14, the latter made a verbal reply, denying Soviet complicity. But, on April 3, 1944, the Tass News Agency stated that "the Soviet Government will be forced to give the Government of the Mongolian People's Republic every necessary help and support." The Chinese Government thereupon demanded further explanation from the Soviet Ambassador to China, Alexander Panyushkin. This demand remained unanswered.

In the meantime, the Soviet Government took further steps to create the Ining Incident, beginning from November 7, 1944. By January 30, 1945, Ining was lost to the rebels. By July, 1945, the whole area of Tahcheng was lost.

While the question of Ining was temporarily settled by the 11-article peace agreement in the autumn of 1945, the Soviet Government then turned its attention to creating disturbances in the whole Ining-Tahcheng-Altai area, and establishing there a so-called Republic of Eastern Turkestan, for the purpose of obtaining special economic privileges. These moves resulted in endangering the security of the whole province of Sinkiang.

As an aftermath of the Ining affair, one of its leaders, Ahmed Djan, who bore the Soviet name Kasimov, joined the Sinkiang Provincial Government, and Usman, the Kazakh chief, was made Special Administrator of the Altai Mountain area. His administration, however, was under the observation and supervision of a So-

viet agent. This move drove Usman to turn to the Chinese Government in 1946. Usman also informed the Chinese Government of the activities of the Soviet Government in exploiting the mines in the district of Fuyun with armed miners. This move caused the Soviet Government to launch an attack upon Usman in his Altai Mountain area. In the middle of April, 1947, Usman was compelled to retreat to Peitashan. The Soviet Government then supported the troops of Outer Mongolia to cross the Chinese border in pursuit of Usman in Peitashan, creating the well-known Peitashan affair. Peitashan, incidentally, is situated in the Altai area, and is known to contain uranium deposits.

On June 5, 1947, Outer Mongolian troops crossed the Chinese border, and attacked Chinese Government troops at Peitashan with cavalry units. On the same day, four Soviet airplanes bombed and strafed the Chinese Government positions in support of the Outer Mongolian ground attack.

The Soviet Government, however, maintained the position that the area of Peitashan was within the territorial confines of Outer Mongolia, and therefore the actions taken by Outer Mongolia did not constitute a violation of Chinese territory.

Peitashan is located 200 kilometers northeast of Tihwa (Urumchi), and is 200 kilometers away from the Chinese-Outer Mongolian boundary. These attacks, therefore, constituted an open violation of the territorial sovereignty of China.

On June 11, 1947, the Chinese Government, through its Embassy in Moscow, protested to the Soviet Government, demanding punishment of the persons responsible for the attack and compensation for losses sustained by the Chinese.

This protest was repeated several times subsequently. But the Outer Mongolian troops which crossed the boundary continued to trouble the region.

Although the whole incident is not settled, it is clear that the Soviet Government, in thus taking action to aid Outer Mongolia, violated the Charter and the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945, which provided in an annexed agreement that,

"As to the latest events in Sinkiang, the Soviet Government confirms that, as stated in Article V of the Treaty of Friendship and Alliance, it has no intention to interfere with China's internal affairs."

The aggressive imperialist policy of the Soviet Union toward Sinkiang has also

been motivated by designs upon the economic resources, known or as yet unknown, in that province. During the past two decades, the Soviet Government, taking full advantage of the complicated and confused state of affairs in Sinkiang, through the use of force and intrigue, succeeded, without the consent of the Chinese Central Government, in winning privileges and concessions in Sinkiang.

On January 24, 1949, the Soviet Government, through its Consul-General at Tihwa, presented to the local authorities a list of guiding principles to be implemented in a general agreement regarding trade and economic collaboration between the two countries in Sinkiang. The Soviet Government proposed a three-year trade agreement, under which the Soviet Union, through its state agency, would enjoy the privilege freely to import from and export to Sinkiang, without corresponding privileges being granted to China in any part of the territory of the Soviet Union. The "freedom" which the Soviet Government talked about meant that a monopolistic agency of a foreign government could impose any terms over the individual Chinese traders without the possibility of organized bargaining or Chinese governmental protection.

The Soviet Government also proposed that an agreement be concluded for a fifty-year period, setting up Chinese and Soviet parallel companies to explore and exploit the mineral and oil resources of Sinkiang. According to the Soviet proposition, the Soviet Government would claim for itself not only the resources already known, but also those which were not yet explored and tapped. The proposition would also grant the Soviet Union those privileges even after the term of the agreement has expired, there being no provision that the Soviet interests would return to China after the fifty-year period. The Soviet Government also insisted that the general-managers of the above-mentioned companies must be of Soviet nationality to be appointed by the Soviet Government. It was clear that these propositions, if accepted, would grant to the Soviet Union exclusive rights and privileges in Sinkiang, amounting to a monopoly.

Although preliminary exchange of views on a local level commenced on February 7, 1949, the Chinese Government, from the very beginning, insisted that the Soviet proposals were unacceptable. When the Soviet Government concluded with the bogus regime in Manchuria an economic agreement which was in direct violation of the Sino-Soviet Treaty of 1945, the Chinese Foreign Minister, on October 3,

1949, declared that the preliminary exchange of views should be forthwith discontinued.

(XIX)

In my speech before the plenary meeting of the General Assembly on September 29, I said: "I should like to state at the very beginning of my remarks that the question which my Delegation is placing before the General Assembly is not a question between my Government and the Chinese Communists. It is a question between my Government and the Government of the Soviet Union." In accordance with my intention as stated on September 29 I have not presented to this Committee any information on, or analysis of, the domestic policies of the Chinese Communists. I have only called attention of the Committee to the spiritual and material relations between the Chinese Communists and the Soviet Union. I must now proceed to describe the type of international intercourse which the Chinese Communists are enforcing vis-a-vis the outside world other than the countries within the Soviet sphere of influence.

The extension of Communist control in China has meant the simultaneous extension of the iron curtain to China. The process is divided into stages. The preliminary stage is that of a bamboo curtain. The second stage is the wood curtain and the final stage is the iron curtain. Today, Manchuria is sealed behind the iron curtain. Foreign correspondents and travelers, excepting those from the Soviet Union, are not allowed entrance into Manchuria. Even Chinese travelers, entering the Northeastern provinces for any purposes whatsoever, have to face many restrictions and difficulties. North China, with the important cities of Peiping and Tientsin, has reached the wooden curtain stage. News gathering is only permitted to the Chinese Communist official agency and the Tass Agency. The Yangtze Valley and the provinces to the south are still at the bamboo curtain stage.

China, up to the middle of the 19th century, refused commercial, diplomatic and cultural intercourse with the outside world. Through the last hundred years this great wall of self-isolation has been gradually broken. This has entailed much imperialistic oppression over the Chinese people and, meanwhile, led to the cross-fertilization between the Chinese and Western civilizations. International trade, diplomatic relations, foreign travelers in China and Chinese travelers abroad, missionary schools and hospitals in China, Chinese students in European and American uni-

versities have all helped to build an understanding between China and the Western world. On our side we Chinese have learned to appreciate certain political and economic ideas and practices of the West. We have also learned to appreciate Western art, literature, and music. We have made very promising beginnings in learning Western science and technology. This kind of peaceful intercourse between the people of China and peoples of the Western countries has led one Chinese historian to declare that China is at the beginning of a new cycle of history. He regards the interchange of ideas and skills between China and the West to be a process of cross fertilization, beneficial to both sides.

With the rise to power of the Chinese Communists this historical trend in China is being reversed. Today the Chinese people are told by the Communists that Western Europe and the Americas, particularly the United States of America and the United Kingdom, are sources of evil to be shunned by the Chinese. The only culture worth knowing is the culture of the Soviet Union. Sycophant intellectuals have already begun to confess their past sins and to praise the new era. Two months ago the Communist press in China gave great publicity to a letter written by the president of a university in Peiping to Dr. Hu Shih, the noted historian and philosopher. In this letter the Communist neophyte solemnly confessed that three months acquaintance with Mao Tse-tung's NEW DEMOCRACY and other Communist pamphlets had convinced him that his previous thirty years labor in the field of historical research had been entirely wrong and that now, having mastered the dialectic theory of Marx, he was on the road to a new history. One month ago another sycophant intellectual in Peiping announced that the "People's Democracy" in China, although only one month old, had already surpassed the democratic achievements of the United States and Great Britain. This is the usual sad story of the drugging of the minds and souls of people so familiar to Eastern Europe.

In China, the Christian Church, both Catholic and Protestant, is not a political force as it is in the countries of Eastern Europe. Of a population of four hundred and fifty million, only five million are Christians, of whom four million are Catholics and one million Protestants. One would think that the Chinese Communists could well tolerate the Christian Church. But during the last several years, in spite of the fact that they have been busily engaged in a war, the Communists

have persecuted the churches. This is a long and tragic story, in many respects worse than what we have learned about religious persecution in Rumania, Hungary and Bulgaria.

I will not weary the Committee with a long tale of the woes of the Christian Church in China. Let me cite certain statistics published by the magazine JESUIT MISSIONS in its issue of April, 1948. During 1946 and 1947 forty-nine Catholic priests and brothers were murdered or tortured to death by the Communists, and 800 priests, brothers and nuns, driven from their missions, fled as refugees to National China. In these two years one hundred and twenty-three Catholic churches were converted into motion picture houses, 166 were looted, and twenty-five destroyed. With respect to mission stations, 245 were looted and eighty-eight destroyed, while twelve Catholic schools were burned and 1,071 were closed.

If we consider the Soviet-inspired Communist movement in China from the angle of world cultural unity, we must pronounce the movement to be the most tragic disaster to the hopes of mankind.

(XX)

The above account, long as it is, contains only the highlights of a long and depressing series of breaches of treaty obligations committed by the Soviet Union toward China. It is not meant to be exhaustive. But the instances are sufficient to indicate the extreme gravity of the situation thus created. In this series of sordid acts of commission and omission, perpetrated by the Soviet Union, it is abundantly clear that here is a clear-cut case in which the political independence, sovereignty, and the territorial and administrative integrity of a Member of the United Nations have been wantonly violated by another Member of the United Nations. These acts have been perpetrated in cynical disregard of treaty provisions solemnly entered into between the two States, and in violation of the letter and spirit of the Charter of the United Nations.

The Soviet Union, following the footsteps of the Czars and employing the new weapon of the Fifth Column, is incorporating into its domain vast areas which border on its huge, sprawling empire. Russian expansion, today as in the days of the Czars, achieves its aims through a succession of stages: at first, predominant influence; then protection and control, disguised as special friendly relations; finally, annexation. Let us look at

a map of Asia and note carefully how the Soviet Union has advanced its empire in the recent years.

Before the second World War, the Soviet Union had no influence or interest of any kind in Korea. Today, Northern Korea, from 43rd parallel to 38th parallel, lies within Soviet sphere.

In the midst of the second World War, the Soviet Union sold for cash her railway interests in Manchuria to Japan. With that sale, it liquidated all influence and interest which the Czars bequeathed to the Soviets. Today, the Soviet Union is back in Manchuria, with a part share of the trunk railway and part share of the two great ports of Dairen and Port Arthur. In addition, the Soviet Union has acquired and will acquire many industrial, mining, and aviation concessions from the Chinese Communists on the pattern of the so-called joint ownership and operation. The Soviet boundary has moved from the Amur River to the tip of the Liaotung Peninsula, that is, from the 54th parallel to the 38th parallel.

After the Bolshevik Revolution, Outer Mongolia and Tannu Tuva were for a brief period free from Russian domination. Today, both these areas, whatever the formal aspect of the matter might be, are admitted by all to be provinces of the Soviet Union. In this sector of Asia, the imperial boundary of Russia has moved from the 54th parallel to the 43rd.

In Central Asia, using a combination of economic, political, and military penetration and intrigue, the Soviet Union has fastened its grip on the Chinese province of Sinkiang and pushed its power to the borders of India and Pakistan. In Central Asia, the Soviet Empire has moved its boundary from the 49th parallel to the 34th parallel.

Even at the height of the 19th century imperialism, no movement of imperial expansion can be compared to what Soviet Russia has achieved in Asia in recent years. Stalin has surpassed all the Ivans, Peters, Alexanders, and Nicholases of Russian history. Such a movement partakes of the nature of a glaciation.

(XXI)

I wish now to ask the Committee to consider the consequences of Soviet expansion and the Chinese Communist insurrection on the countries to the south and southwest of China.

That the program of world Communism taking advantage of certain situations in Asia and the Far East to accelerate its expansion has been greatly strengthened

by the Soviet-supported Communist insurrection in China is openly admitted by no less an authority than the Cominform itself. THE COMINFORM JOURNAL of October 7, 1949, published in Bucharest, carried the following editorial:—

"Unquestionably the victory of the Chinese revolution will inspire the peoples of colonial and dependent countries to intensify their struggles for national aspirations.

"India, Burma, Indonesia, Viet-nam and other countries of the East—defined by Stalin as the heavy reserves and the main hinterland of world imperialism—have already either become centers of struggle for freedom and national independence or have matured as reserves of the revolution. The People's Republic of China will be their loyal friend and reliable bulwark in the struggle against imperialism."

On January 21, 1949, a Chinese Communist broadcast promised that "a new China . . . will assist in Japan's democratization and prevent the re-emergence of reactionary forces." The same day, in Moscow, PRAVDA's editor Pospelov cited the triumph of the Chinese Communists and predicted "the 20th century will be the century of the complete triumph of Leninism."

M. Leon Pignon, French High Commissioner in Indo-China, stated on July 31, 1949, that there was evidence of co-operation between Communist China and the Viet-Minh of Indo-China. The Chinese Communists, he said, had supplied ammunition and guerrilla fighters to the Viet-Minh (NEW YORK TIMES, August 1, 1949). M. Pignon was in fact underlining what had been known long before. The French Far Eastern headquarters, on March 24, 1949, issued an official communique to the same effect:—

"Since March 15 there has been increased rebel activity, particularly along the Tonkin frontier. Attacks against our posts are growing more numerous in the region north of Langston and east of Laokay. The number of troops employed also have been growing, among which Chinese Communist units have been noted working with Viet-Minh units from Tonkin." (NEW YORK HERALD-TRIBUNE, March 25, 1949)

The situation in Burma is roughly the same. Neutral reports from Rangoon stated that the Chinese Communist chief, Mao Tse-tung "is reliably believed to have offered Thakin Than Tun (of Burma) a secret

mutual assistance pact last February. The pact envisages material aid from the Chinese 'People's Liberation Army' in 'liberating' Burma." (WASHINGTON POST, July 27, 1949)

Reports from Kuala Lumpur described the picture in Malaya as follows:—

"Since the Communist triumph in China, the Chinese in Malaya have been the instruments of the Kremlin's power drive. . . . The broad objective is to keep an armed Communist core in existence in Malaya until help arrives from the North—from China. According to the intercepted orders to the local guerrillas, the Communist victory in China insures that this help from the North will come soon." (WASHINGTON POST, August 11, 1949)

And it is the view of Mr. Malcolm McDonald, the British Commissioner General, that "the jungle guerrillas of Malaya are only waiting for outside help." (WASHINGTON NEWS, September 13, 1949).

It was also reported by the Philippine police that the Chinese Communists had links with the Hukbalahap rebellion in the Philippine Republic, and that one Chinese Communist agent possessed documentation directing him to discuss ways of cooperating with Huk guerrillas in a "general assembly" on or before the Philippine presidential elections on November 8th. (ST. LOUIS POST-DISPATCH, October 11, 1949)

The Communist insurrectionary activities in Southeast Asia were planned and dictated by the international Communist conference held in Calcutta in February, 1948. These insurrectionary activities, now that the Chinese Communists, with active and large-scale Soviet support, have occupied a large portion of China, are likely to spread far and wide. According to the independent observer, Mr. Stewart Alsop, who went on an extensive tour of the whole area:—

"If nothing is done, the sequence of events, as forecast by the most experienced observers in the Far East (and as undoubtedly forecast by V. M. Molotov, now directing the Soviet power drive in Asia) is broadly as follows. The Chinese Communist Armies will reach the borders of Indo-China and Burma. . . . The promised 'material support' will be delivered to the Communist forces in these countries, and Burma and Indo-China will rapidly be transformed into 'new democracies.'

"When Burma and Indo-China go, Siam will follow—on this point every one (including the Siamese) is unanimous. The long, irregular Siamese-Malayan border will then become an avenue of infiltration and supply for the Communist guerrillas in Malaya, and the British position in Malaya will be rendered untenable. The rest of Southeast Asia gone, the pressure on the harried, new-born Nationalist government of Indonesia will be too great to withstand. . . .

"This is not merely the opinion of this reporter. It is the opinion of every informed observer on the spot." (NEW YORK HERALD-TRIBUNE, August 22, 1949)

(XXII)

Looking back over the catastrophic events of the four post-war years, we see certain things more clearly now than before.

In the first place, Moscow has made, out of world communism and world imperialism, one new poisonous chemical compound. It may be called commu-imperialism or imp-communism. The poisonous strength of the new compound vastly exceeds the strength of either simple world communism or simple world imperialism, taken separately. It is as revolutionary in the political sphere as atomic energy is in the physical sphere. If civilization is to be saved, a coordinated plan of world defense must be made.

In the second place, it is clear that China, having a common boundary with Russia of more than three thousand miles, stands on the frontier of imp-communism in a way in which no other country stands. Observers, confining themselves to the surface of events, have jumped to the conclusion and judgment that China has failed. The judgment, Mr. Chairman, is premature.

I am not here to defend the reputation of individuals or groups in China, but I would like to ask the Committee to keep in mind the broad facts of the situation. As I stated at the beginning of my submission, my Government had been, before 1937, doing effective work to prepare the country to meet the challenge of Japanese militarism. Nevertheless, when war broke out on July 7, 1937, China had no economic surplus. The curse of poverty in China is as old as Chinese history. It is the fault not of one government or one regime. It is the accumulated result of centuries. A real remedy would require a concentrated and continued effort of

several decades. China fought the war not with any economic surplus but by deepening the already deep poverty of the people. The full-scale war lasted eight years. It was coupled with a blockade. These eight years of war and blockade, on top of an old and deep poverty, would be enough to break the back of any country or government. Mr. Chairman: Before anybody pronounces judgment on my country, let him imagine his own country similarly circumstanced and similarly burdened and try to find out what the outcome would be.

The armed conflict in China has so far been unfavorable to the Government. But, Mr. Chairman, there is something more than the scoreboard. The Chinese Communists published certain casualty figures on July 15, 1949, covering the three-year period from July 1, 1946 to June 30, 1949. These figures were reproduced in the NEW YORK TIMES of July 19. They are the figures of the Chinese Communists who undoubtedly understated their losses. Now, the Chinese Communists admit that in the three-year period they had lost 1,432,900 in wounded, killed, captured and missing.

Representative John Davis Lodge stated on the floor of the House of Representatives of the United States on August 16, 1949:—

"Here it is interesting to note the contrast between the above figures and the loss which our (American) armies sustained against the Japanese and Germans. These losses, exclusive of naval and airforce losses, were 948,574.

"In other words the Chinese Nationalist armies inflicted in three years greater losses on the Chinese Communist armies than the United States sustained in fighting the Japanese and Germans in almost four years. In these circumstances, it is, let us say, at least open to question when the flat statement is made that the Chinese Nationalist Armies have been in ineffective fighting force. Surely, an army which causes more losses to the enemy than the Japanese and the German troops were able to inflict on United States troops in almost four years of combat can hardly be described as totally ineffective."

Mr. Irving Short, a member of the American China Policy Association, having observed a battle for one of the island stepping stones to Formosa, cablegrammed his Association on October 31st of this year as follows:—

"I have just returned from a visit to Kinmen Island 100 miles across the channel from Formosa stop I accompanied General Sun Li-jen, Defense Commander of Formosa and Director of Training of the new army stop We flew in a C-47 loaded with fresh fruit, candies, cakes, cookies and vitally needed medical supplies stop The battle for Kinmen Island may well be a turning point in this struggle for the free way of life stop It is the first time that the new troops of General Sun's training command have met the Reds with sufficient supplies and equipment to be on even grounds stop They met their first battle test and came through with a victory that has amazed everyone here on the spot stop Vastly outnumbered and with nothing but light (75 m/m pack) artillery in general support they repulsed a major Red assault of picked troops stop

"The Reds landed parts of two armies (20,000) troops in the early morning hours of October 25th from junks, sampans and specially constructed assault craft stop The main thrust was made against two regiments of the 201 Infantry Division under the command of Major General Cheng Kuo stop These troops had only recently arrived from Formosa where they had been rigorously trained in the American manner under General Sun Li-jen, himself a graduate of VMI class of '27 stop By dawn of the next day these units had been pushed back almost two miles and the commies were moving to encircle them from their right flank stop At this moment a strong counter-attack by the 118th Division with light tank support into the left flank of the Reds stabilized the situation stop With daylight the Chinese Air Force came in with tactical air support and busted up the Red positions on the beaches desperately trying to re-organize for a final assault stop The Nationalists then counter-attacked and obliterated or drove into the sea or captured the remaining Reds stop It was a decisive battle as all these island battles are stop One side or the other wins stop The Chinese by latest count have rounded up over 7,000 prisoners stop That means that 13,000 Reds were killed or wounded or else were drowned when they pushed back into the sea stop

"I visited the actual battle scenes twenty-four hours after the engagement stop The stench of death still hung heavy over the beaches where

the dead were still piled up awaiting burial stop Every type of water-borne craft was strewn along the beaches stop I inspected the Chinese units as well as seeing the Red prisoners lined up on the beach awaiting evacuation stop I was amazed with these Red soldiers after hearing so much of the myth of the wonderful Red Army stop Their uniforms were of even shoddier stuff than the Nationalists and their equipment was of various types stop All of the equipment is now in the hands of the Nationalists stop Over 5,000 rifles, several hundred light and heavy machine guns and even several pieces of artillery stop Several ranking Red officers were captured including one who had the Red attack order in his pocket stop From this order it was evident that the Reds had expected little resistance as they had estimated that they would be in complete control of the island within three days stop The morale of the Chinese forces was considered good considering the heavy fighting that they had just been through and considering that the large majority of them were green troops never in action before stop

"This engagement puts the lie on widely circulated reports in the U. S. that the Chinese will not fight and proved to me what the newly trained units with capable officers and good equipment even limited numbers can do stop"

Much has been said of the aid which the United States Government has given to China. The figure of two billion dollars has been frequently given as the total. Let me present to this Committee an American analysis of this figure. The PITTSBURGH PRESS of April 18, 1949, published an editorial stating in part:—

"The two-billion-dollar figure used to discredit Chiang Kai-shek's Government is made up of three major items: (1) Lend-lease, (2) the value of surplus military goods sold to the Chinese, and (3) the American contribution to UNRRA. None of this was assistance in the war against the Communists. . . .

"Lend-lease expenditures largely were in services, and included carrying out the Japanese surrender agreement. Chinese troops did the job there that our own troops did in Europe. We also charged China the cost of flying supplies over the Hump during the war. Our service charge against China was 607 millions; against Britain

it was 426 millions, against Russia 79 millions.

"Yet, although we used Chinese troops and Chinese labor, the Chinese were credited with only 3,000,000 in reverse Lend-lease against 191 millions for Belgium.

"Much surplus property sold to China was in junk condition. We have President Truman's word that no weapons which could be used in fighting a civil war were made available.

"UNRRA supplies were divided between the Nationalists and the Communists.

"We have given China almost no military assistance in the war against the Communists.

"No military funds were voted until April 1948. Only one of the three ships carrying the initial cargoes under this program reached the Chinese mainland."

In order to understand this matter more clearly let me compare the amount of aid to China with the aid to some of the European countries. Let us take Greece. I wish to say that I have the greatest admiration for the Greek struggle against the Communist menace. I do not grudge in the least the generous aid which the Government of the United States has given to Greece. In the period from August, 1947, to March 31, 1949, 318,000,000 dollars of military aid was given to Greece with her 50,250 square miles and about 15,000 armed Communists, while China received \$125,000,000 as help to fight at that time 1,500,000 Chinese Communists in a country of 4,310,000 square miles. Furthermore, dollar for dollar, China obtained, in fact, less benefit than the European nations because a higher price was charged China. For example, China had to pay US \$51.00 for each American rifle whereas the Atlantic Pact nations were charged only ten percent of the price, that is, only US \$5.10 for that same American rifle.

(XXIII)

Finally I come to this question: What can the General Assembly of the United Nations do? I do not expect the United Nations to do the fighting for China. I know that the General Assembly has not a single rifle or a single plane to give to me even if it wished.

In face of the threat to China's political independence and territorial integrity, the General Assembly has definite Charter obligations. Furthermore, it has at its disposal a great fund of moral power over

the peoples of the world. I only ask that the General Assembly should draw upon its moral fund in the discharge of its obligations. In the first place, I hope that the General Assembly will pronounce judgment on the Soviet Union for obstructing the efforts of my Government in re-establishing its authority in Manchuria and for giving military and economic aid to the Chinese Communists. In the second place, I hope that the General Assembly will recognize that the cause of China's political independence and territorial integrity is a cause common to all the peoples of the world. In the third place, I hope that the General Assembly will recommend to all Member States to desist and refrain from giving further military and economic aid to the Chinese Communists. Finally, I hope that no Member State will accord diplomatic relations to any regime which the Chinese Communists may organize.

The above four decisions are all that I ask of the General Assembly.

While bringing the complaint against the Soviet Union before the United Nations, China remains a loyal Member of the United Nations. China wishes the United Nations to grow in strength so that it could do more in the future than it can do now. If the General Assembly for whatever reason finds it impossible to give to China the minimum or moral aid which I have asked, it would be at once the bankruptcy of the United Nations as well as a big blow to the struggle by the Chinese people for the preservation of their national and individual freedom.

Battles have been fought, but the Chinese people have not yet pronounced their decision and judgment. The Chinese people, both outside and inside the Communist controlled areas are still fighting the Communists. Let the General Assembly say to the millions of fighters for freedom in China: "We are with you."

CHAPTER 14

INDUSTRY

The Ministry of Economic Affairs had pursued a *laissez-faire* policy in the sphere of China's postwar economic reconstruction, but had to resort to wartime controls consequent upon the communist rebellion. Besides supervising all matters relating to industry and commerce, the administration's main efforts have been directed towards these two objectives: expanding China's industrial and mining production, and balancing China's international payments by increasing its export trade. The National Resources Commission, a part of the administration, renders assistance to private enterprises.

FACTORIES IN CHINA

There were in China 15,049 factories with an aggregate capital of CNC\$1,078,094,080 at the end of 1947. They were registered with the ministry in accordance with a government order of March 25, 1941. The order requires all factories

with the exception of arsenals and war plants to register with the government if they (1) have a paid-up capital of more than CNC\$10,000; (2) have a paid personnel of over 30; or (3) use prime movers in production. Of the 15,049 registered factories, 14,529 were privately owned; 10 jointly owned by the government and private interests; one owned by Chinese and foreign interests; 16 foreign-owned, and 493 owned by the government.

The ten factories jointly owned by government and private interests consisted of the following: Machinery, two, capitalized at CNC\$6-billion; chemical, one, CNC\$500-million; textile, four, CNC\$105,704,000; clothing, one, CNC\$60,000; and food and beverages, two, CNC\$92,040,000.

The 16 foreign-owned factories and their capitalization were: Machinery, one, CNC\$6,700,000; chemical, six, CNC\$78,100,000; food and beverages, seven,

TABLE 1—REGISTERED FACTORIES (BY INDUSTRY) DECEMBER 31, 1947

Industry	Government Owned		Privately Owned	
	No. of Factories	Capitalization (CNC\$1,000)	No. of Factories	Capitalization (CNC\$1,000)
Metallurgical.....	53	269,620	128	6,571,100
Machinery.....	52	4,977,188	1,849	64,691,880
Metal Works.....	8	104,950	822	36,127,909
Electrical Manufacturing.....	17	1,360,600	244	17,971,825
Chemical.....	157	156,625,723	2,603	201,784,116
Textile.....	144	1,070,627	3,127	306,306,672
Clothing.....	5	270,490	929	63,605,156
Food & Beverages.....	27	2,852,100	3,797	120,142,179
Printing & Stationery.....	21	243,440	512	24,549,912
Miscellaneous.....	9	38,480	518	57,212,519
TOTAL.....	493	167,813,218	14,529	898,963,268

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs

**TABLE 2—NUMBER AND CAPITAL OF REGISTERED FACTORIES (by locality)
END OF 1947**

Locality	Government Owned		Privately Owned	
	No. of Factories	Capitalization (CNC\$1,000)	No. of Factories	Capitalization (CNC\$1,000)
Kiangsu.....	1	2,028,220	610	47,632,550
Chekiang.....	44	22,555	374	12,328,381
*Anhui.....	19	12,083	179	5,417,275
Kiangsi.....	45	34,260	164	10,389,850
*Hupeh.....	11	177,373	49	2,786,220
*Hunan.....	16	380,830	386	11,805,940
Szechwan.....	54	610,040	1,185	9,774,704
Sikang.....	9	18,600	3	28,080
Hopei.....	2	..	111	1,198,110
Shansi.....	18	90,380	80	706,740
Shantung.....	7	207,200	85	1,516,572
Honan.....	63	1,425,180
*Shensi.....	29	69,000	154	565,719
Kansu.....	18	109,794	173	541,016
Fukien.....	14	19,320	96	1,352,380
Taiwan.....	439	13,815,040
Kwangtung.....	6	31,395	306	24,402,316
Kwangsi.....	1	11,000	23	4,569,302
Yunnan.....	26	286,970	220	3,289,380
Kweichow.....	25	145,850	212	3,724,280
Liaoning.....	486	6,164,064
Liaopei.....	8	18,000	364	2,909,532
*Antung.....	55	314,760
Kirin.....	5	44,400	676	1,743,156
Jehol.....	66	94,450
Chahar.....	9	323,300
Suiyuan.....	21	320,240
Ningsia.....	1	110	3	15,020
Nanking.....	5	170,000	55	4,866,500
*Shanghai.....	60	72,169,940	3,043	512,014,300
Peiping.....	3	500,000
*Tientsin.....	1	500,000	698	14,187,210
*Tsingtao.....	1,478	31,444,594
Chungking.....	45	204,284	1,489	3,312,473
Mukden.....	418	3,280,608
Sian.....	10	206,075	185	1,042,161
Hankow.....	7	89,295,087	81	6,366,350
*Canton.....	6	950,452	487	152,795,515
TOTAL.....	493	167,813,218	14,529	898,963,268

* In addition, there were 17 other factories located in Shanghai. They consisted of 13 foreign-owned factories capitalized at CNC\$4,587,090,000; three jointly owned by government and private interests, capitalization, CNC\$6,500-million; and one jointly owned by Chinese and foreign interests, CNC\$18-million. Two were in Anhwei (they were joint government-private enterprises, capitalization, CNC\$464,000). One (joint government-private enterprise, capitalization, CNC\$100-million) in Hupeh; one (joint government-private enterprise, capitalization, CNC\$5-million) in Hunan; one (joint government-private enterprise, capitalization, CNC\$300,000) in Shensi; one (joint government-private enterprise, capitalization, CNC\$10,680,000) in Antung; two (foreign-owned, capitalization, CNC\$12,700,000) in Tientsin; one (foreign-owned, capitalization, CNC\$2-million) in Tsingtao, and one (joint government-private enterprise, capitalization, CNC\$81,360,000) in Canton.

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs

CNC\$49,550,000; printing and stationery, one, CNC\$4,400-million, and miscellaneous, one, CNC\$67,440,000.

One chemical plant was jointly owned by Chinese and foreign interests. It had a capitalization of CNC\$18-million.

The food and beverage industry had the largest number of factories, 3,833, followed by the textile industry with 3,275 mills; chemical industry, 2768 factories; machinery, 1,904; clothing, 935; metal works, 830; printing, 534; miscellaneous, 528; electrical manufacturing, 261, and metallurgical industry, 181.

LOCATION OF FACTORIES

These registered factories were scattered in the provinces and municipalities. The largest number, 3,120, were in Shanghai. Other large industrial centers were: Chungking, 1,534 factories; Tsingtao, 1,479; Szechwan, 1,239; Tientsin, 701; Kirin, 676; Kiangsi, 611; Canton, 494; Liaoning, 486; and Taiwan, 439.

EMPLOYMENT

In the 15,049 registered factories, 138,673 staff members and 844,457 workers were employed at the end of 1947, making a total of 983,130. The textile industry

had on its payroll 38,141 staff members and 356,283 workers, totalling 394,424, which was by far the largest number employed by any one industry. The chemical industry was second with 174,268, including 28,317 staff members and 145,951 workers; and the food and beverages industry was third with 130,627 of whom 30,239 were staff members and 100,388, workers.

Of the 983,130 persons, 122,109 staff members and 681,877 workers were employed in the 14,529 privately-owned factories; and 16,293 staff members and 160,749 workers in the 493 government-owned factories. The 10 joint government-private enterprises employed a total of 119 staff members and 1,043 workers; the 16 foreign-owned factories carried a payroll of 137 staff members and 761 workers, and the one chemical plant jointly owned by Chinese and foreign interests employed 15 staff members and 27 workers.

In employment, Shanghai led other industrial centers with a total of 36,787 staff members and 278,580 workers on the payroll of 3,120 registered factories at the end of 1947. Chungking, the war-time capital, came next with 14,296 staff members and 84,674 workers; Szechwan, 13,413 staff members and 83,528 workers; Kiangsu, 8,036 staff members and 54,324

TABLE 3—STAFF MEMBERS AND WORKERS EMPLOYED IN FACTORIES
AT THE END OF 1947

Industry	Government-owned Factories		Privately-owned Factories	
	Staff Members	Workers	Staff Members	Workers
Metallurgical.....	2,568	30,551	1,986	14,611
Machinery.....	2,294	14,320	8,802	49,346
Metal Works.....	560	3,386	4,354	21,590
Electrical Manufacturing.....	916	4,436	1,940	9,543
Chemical.....	3,823	18,207	24,404	127,481
Textile.....	4,387	78,592	33,735	277,623
Clothing.....	129	1,298	9,038	51,653
Food and Beverages.....	651	5,353	29,522	94,656
Printing and Stationery.....	707	3,791	4,260	16,131
Miscellaneous.....	258	815	4,068	19,243
GRAND TOTAL.....	16,293	160,749	122,109	681,877

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs

workers; Tientsin, 5,930 staff members and 34,667 workers; Shensi, 4,451 staff members and 31,005 workers; Kwangtung, 4,105 staff members and 23,656 workers; Tsingtao, 4,822 staff members and 19,790 workers; Chekiang, 3,651 staff members and 21,810 workers, and Hunan, 3,122 staff members and 18,806 workers.

PRIME MOVERS USED

The 15,049 registered factories used at the end of 1947 a total of 57,218 sets of prime movers which had an aggregate capacity of 559,268.60 hp. and 2,132,333.56 kva. They consisted of 542 steam engines, 912 diesel engines, 436 coal gas engines, 92 water wheel engines, 78 boilers, 1,196 sets of miscellaneous prime movers, 597 generators, and 53,365 motors.

The textile industry employed a total of 30,541 sets with a total capacity of 211,840.25 hp. and 2,075,854.70 kva. Next came the food and beverages industry with 6,103 sets; the machinery industry, 5,769; the chemical industry, 5,721; and the clothing industry, 2,747 sets.

By far the largest number of prime movers was found in Shanghai. It had at the end of 1947 a total of 35,542 sets with an aggregate capacity of 253,477.75 hp. and 205,847.80 kva. Kiangsu came next with 3,134 sets; Chungking, 2,751; Tientsin, 2,580; Tsingtao, 1,858; Szechwan, 1,165; Canton, 1,060; Mukden, 996; Yunnan, 956; and Taiwan, 862 sets.

ENEMY FACTORIES TAKEN OVER

Following the Japanese surrender, the Ministry of Economic Affairs sent seven teams to take charge of the enemy and puppet plants. By the end of 1947, 2,685 such factories were taken over. They consisted of the following:

TABLE 4—ENEMY FACTORIES TAKEN OVER

Industry	China Proper	Northeast	Taiwan
Metallurgical.....	50	22	41
Machinery.....	222	26	549
Metal Products.....	48	8	..
Electrical.....	56	4	..
Chemical.....	327	55	477
Textile.....	175	5	50
Clothing.....	14
Food and Beverages.....	159
Printing and Stationery.....	25
Miscellaneous.....	157	8	207
TOTAL.....	1,233	128	1,324

In the textile mills were 2,088,736 cotton spindles and 38,591 looms, in addition to wool, silk and linen spindles.

INDUSTRIAL REHABILITATION

Light industries made great strides toward helping China become self-sufficient in consumer goods during the decade before the war with Japan. Factories mushroomed along the coastal regions, particularly in and around Shanghai and Tientsin because of transportation and other facilities. When hostilities broke out, these industries were immediately exposed to enemy attack.

In spite of extreme difficulties, more than 600 factories, with their cumbersome machinery, equipment and personnel, were moved to the interior. Great losses were sustained which could not be replaced because of the enemy blockade. The refugee factories had to struggle on the best they could, with their dwindling stocks and with whatever substitutes they could find for the needed raw materials. Frequent enemy air raids caused further interruption and destruction.

After the war, these factories, whether they remained in the interior or returned to the coast, were in a sad plight. Those which had survived the enemy occupation in the coastal areas had either been heavily damaged by allied bombing or stripped of their essential machinery. Few of China's pre-war industrial plants were left intact.

When the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration was first organized, it was hoped that it could

contribute materially toward the early recovery of Chinese industries. But this organization soon found its hands tied down by UNRRA rules and by the reduction of the size of the UNRRA/CNRRRA program in this country.

UNRRA regulations limited aid to industries producing goods for relief. The UNRRA/CNRRRA program, therefore,

looked after the requirements of essential productive enterprises and public utilities such as coal mines, power plants, water works and building materials. The original request was for the importation of 564,000 tons of supplies valued at US-\$349-million one-third of which was to be paid for by UNRRA. The aid sought consisted of the following:

TABLE 5—PROGRAM FOR INDUSTRIAL AID

Item	Weight (ton)	Value (US\$)
Food Processing:		
Flour mills.....	5,000	5,000,000
Oil presses.....	3,500	2,000,000
Sugar refineries.....	3,000	3,000,000
Textile Industry:		
Cotton spinning and weaving.....	24,000	16,000,000
Wool spinning and weaving.....	1,500	2,000,000
Building Materials:		
Cement works.....	20,000	6,000,000
Sawmills.....	1,600	1,000,000
Fuel Production:		
Coal mines.....	18,000	5,000,000
Petroleum refineries.....	12,000	4,000,000
Public Utilities:		
Power plants.....	30,000	25,000,000
Water works.....	8,000	2,000,000
Metal Industry:		
Machine shops.....	18,000	10,000,000
Electrical appliance plants.....	1,200	3,000,000
Steel and iron works.....	24,000	16,000,000
Chemical Industry:		
Soda ash plants.....	2,000	1,000,000
Fertilizer plants.....	5,000	5,000,000
Caustic soda plants.....	3,000	2,000,000
Soap factories.....	3,000	2,000,000
Paper mills.....	4,000	3,000,000
Rubber works.....	2,500	2,000,000
TOTAL.....	189,300	115,000,000

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs

These supplies were to be used to build a few modern plants in the areas qualified to receive relief benefits to produce urgently needed articles. As to the technical personnel needed to operate these plants, technicians were to be recruited from aboard or Chinese experts were to be sent to study the latest developments in their respective fields in foreign lands. The industrial rehabilitation projects were to be carried out by the Ministry of Economic Affairs with supplies and assistance from the CNRRRA. The program for UNRRA aid was later reduced to some US\$70-million, or approximately 60% of the original. Supplies for the textile, food processing and chemical industries were

greatly curtailed, and the plan for setting up key plants in centralized locations had to be abandoned.

Although supplies for such industries as power, building construction, hydraulic engineering, water and electricity, and coal mining were urgently needed, because of numerous reasons only some 40,000 tons, or slightly one-fifth of the total program, arrived in China by the end of June, 1946. Most of this was U. S. army surplus which had to be overhauled or refitted before being used.

The bulk of the industrial supplies were allocated mostly to the factories under the National Resources Commission under the Ministry of Economic Affairs. The

remainder was distributed to other factories, either government or privately owned which had suffered losses during the war.

Instead of the cotton cloth originally proposed by UNRRA, CNRRA succeeded in getting raw cotton and wheat. The former was delivered to the China Textile Industries Inc., and other cotton mills at cost. Over 300,000 bales were distributed, accounting for over 20% of the raw cotton used in Shanghai. Those mills receiving cotton from CNRRA were required to turn over to it 30% of the cloth made thereof for direct relief and work relief projects. The wheat, amounting to 250,000 tons, was allocated to flour mills.

REHABILITATION OF COAL MINES

The National Geological Survey of the Ministry of Economic Affairs estimated China's coal reserve to be 261,174-million tons, excluding that in Sinkiang, Mongolia and Tibet.* This amount is considered to be next only to that of the United States and Canada. Its geographical distribution is roughly as follows: 2% in the Northeastern Provinces; 88% in north China (Hopei, Shantung, Honan, Shansi, Shensi, Chahar, Suiyuan, Kansu and Ningsia), and 10% in other parts of the country.

In the past, coal mining was carried out most extensively in the Northeastern Provinces. In 1934, the National Resources Commission reported that the total coal production in China was 32.7-million tons, of which 12-million tons were mined in the northeast, or 30% of the total. During the war the coal mining centers in the northeast and north China were all under enemy occupation. Most of the colliers were either destroyed or stripped of their equipment. The few which remained in operation suffered from disrepair.

To alleviate the postwar coal shortage, CNRRA undertook to rehabilitate the various coal mines by importing supplies from the United States, Canada, and Great Britain. As of December, 1947, supplies received reached 8,180 tons and were worth US\$5,970,000.

Electric generators and other machinery, included in other CNRRA requests for the rehabilitation of coal mines, amounted to 2,193 tons and cost US\$2,710,000. Altogether, 10,910 tons of equipment were imported for the various colliers in the country: Honan, 1,450 tons;

700 tons; Shantung, 90 tons; Anhwei, Hopei, 950 tons; Shansi-Suiyuan-Chahar, 1,150 tons; Hupeh, 500 tons; Hunan, 1,570 tons; Kwangsi, 90 tons; Kwangtung, 450 tons; Kiangsi, 1,660 tons; Kiangsu, 450 tons; Taiwan, 1,150 tons; and the Northeastern Provinces, 700 tons.

The delivery of the supplies to the Northeastern Provinces, and north China was somewhat delayed by the unsettled conditions and transportation difficulties. In all other provinces these supplies brought about a marked increase in coal production. The Lihua mines in Hupeh and the Chekang mines in Kiangsi showed an increase of 30 to 40%; the Hwatung mines in Kiangsu and the Patzeling mines in Kwangtung, 60 to 70%; and the Kao-kung mines in Kiangsi and the colliers in Taiwan, 80 to 100%.

REHABILITATION OF POWER PLANTS

Statistics showed that in 1934 the average per capita consumption of electricity in China was only 3.7 kwh., as compared with 1,848 kwh. for Canada and 322 kwh. for Japan. Power plants in China were centralized in the coastal and lower Yangtze areas, with a few small plants in the interior. These areas came under Japanese occupation during the war.

After the war, much emphasis was laid on the rehabilitation of these power plants. It was planned to procure not only electric generator sets, but also important parts needed to re-equip the existing but damaged generators and accessories. The original program, calling for approximately 30,000 tons of supplies and worth some US\$14-million was later reduced. As of December, 1947, the procurement program was as follows: power plants, 6,463 tons; transformers, 1,431 tons; and electric motors, 97 tons; the generator sets to be both diesel and steam driven. The generators were to be distributed as follows: (See Table 6).

Of the supplies listed above, 60% were to go to the public utilities; 21.3% to coal mines; 14.4% to other industries; 3.4% to the Tangku harbor (Tientsin); and 0.9% unassigned.

REHABILITATION OF WATER WORKS

Almost all water works in the enemy-occupied cities were disrupted because of destruction to power plants. Most cities in China did not have a good water supply system. Exceptions were Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Hankow, Peiping and a few others, where the postwar water supply rehabilitation program was centered. It was planned to procure as much

* The 1947 figure given by the National Resources Commission is higher. See chapter on "Mineral Resources."

TABLE 6—DISTRIBUTION OF GENERATORS

Area	No. of Consignees (Power Plants)	Generators (Set)	Total Power (KW)
Hunan.....	8	10	9,500
Hupei.....	3	3	5,150
Kwangtung.....	4	4	4,500
Kiangsu.....	17	19	14,460
Kiangsi.....	5	7	6,980
Hopei.....	1	2	2,000
Honan.....	8	9	5,500
Anhui.....	4	4	2,906
Chahar.....	1	1	500
Kwangsi.....	4	5	1,000
Jehol.....	1	1	500
Suiyuan.....	1	1	500
Chekiang.....	3	3	1,886
TOTAL.....	60	69	55,382

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs

as possible equipment using power other than electricity. Water purification devices also received due attention.

Consequently, water pumps equipped with power units formed the main part of the supplies procured. Electrically-driven pumps numbered only five sets. As a result of these imports, Lanchow reported that its water works, which had suffered greatly during the war, had increased its capacity by 200%, and Shanghai water works, over 10%.

REHABILITATION OF MACHINE SHOPS

There were over 300 machine shops in China in 1936, but most of them could only duplicate existing models. During the war many moved inland where they made considerable improvement. V-J Day, however, found nearly all machine shops in the occupied areas totally wrecked. Those in the interior either had been damaged by bombing, or they suffered from lack of proper maintenance care. As the production of machines must be resumed before other industries could make much progress, CNRRA contributed heavily towards the rehabilitation of China's machine shops.

Out of US\$9,900,000 listed in CNRRA's final budget for the procurement of metal works, US\$6,200,000 was earmarked for machinery and building materials for railroad workshops; US\$265,000 for machinery and equipment needed for manufacturing sanitary and hygienic articles, and US\$3,700,000 for machine tools. The

actual procurement fell short of the original plan, however, because of the keen competition of buyers from other countries.

Power generation, metal working, foundry, carpentry, forging and welding material for the railroad workshops amounted to US\$5,500,000 and weighed approximately 6,000 tons. Another US\$700,000 was spent on 5,400 tons of beams and trusses, and US\$3,250,000 on 3,400 tons of medium and small-sized machine shops. Besides this, a full-sized machine shop weighing 300 tons was bought for US\$197,000 from U. S. Army surplus. Another US\$265,000 was spent on precision instruments and apparatus for the making of clinical and surgical instruments.

Up to the end of 1947, of the total of 15,090 tons of supplies, 13,097 tons had arrived in China. These included 9,957 tons for railroad workshops, 2,910 tons for general rehabilitation, and 230 tons for the National Institute of Biological and Chemical Products.

All the railroad workshop supplies were allocated to the railroad workshop at Wuchang, which by the end of 1947 was engaged in manufacturing spare parts and repairing passenger cars, freight cars and locomotives for the Canton-Hankow, Chekiang-Kiangsi and Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweiyang lines.

The machine tools and precision equipment went to the National Institute of Biological and Chemical Products for the manufacture of small medical and surgical instruments.

In the allocation of machinery to ordinary plants, priority was given to those which could resume production at once. Geographical distribution was also taken into consideration. One set of heavy machine tools was given to the General Machinery Manufacturing Corporation of the National Resources Commission. Its other gifts included water-supply systems, water transport and building materials which enabled it to build by the end of 1947 its own wharves, cranes and trusses. Among its first products were 300 hp. diesel engines, pumps and blowers designed especially for use in small factories.

Four medium-sized repair shops were turned over to the Northwest Industrial Corporation at Taiyuan, Shansi; the Kungyih Iron Works at Wusih, Kiangsu; the Taiwan Iron and Machine Works, and the Mingsun Coal Mine in Honan. Smaller units received consisted of five repair shops, five electric repair shops, and 35 mobile shops, three of which were allocated to the communist areas.

Other beneficiaries of replacement parts were the Shanghai Power Company, Shanghai Water Works, Shun Hsin Cotton Mill, Electric Shop of the National Resources Commission, and Shanghai Municipal Bureau of Public Works. All but the latter two were privately-owned.

CONSTRUCTION MACHINERY AND MATERIALS

To ameliorate the housing shortage and to repair the extensive damage to public buildings, highways and harbor facilities, CNRRA procured some prefabricated houses as well as machinery and materials for reconstruction of the old. The following items had been procured and allocated by the end of 1947:

Cement Supplies—Cement supplies valued at US\$4,137,258 were divided among four plants: US\$1,575,545 for the Kiangnan Cement Plant at Nanking; US\$105,950 for the Shanghai Cement Plant; US\$627,490 for the Sitseng Cement Plant at Canton, and US\$1,428,271 for the Taiwan Cement Plant at Kaohsiung. The specifications of these supplies were submitted through CNRRA to the UNRRA which handled the orders.

Brick and Tile Machines—Six sets of such machinery were procured, each weighing 268 tons and capable of producing 100,000 standard-size red bricks in an eight-hour day. They were allocated to six plants: at Changsha, Hunan; Hanyang, Hupeh; Chengchow, Honan; Nanchang, Kiangsi; Nanking; and Shanghai.

Glass Making Machines—Two sets of machinery for making plane glass, each weighing about 1,280 tons and capable of producing 700,000 sq.m. of 2 mm. plane glass annually, were turned over to the Yaohua Glass Company at Shanghai and the Wuhan Glass Company at Hankow.

Cinder Block Machines—Six sets, each weighing 516 tons and capable of producing automatically 9,600 blocks per 8-hour day, were purchased for plants in Tangshan, Hopei; Kaohsiung, Taiwan; Hangchow, Chekiang; Canton, Nanking, and Shanghai.

Concrete Pipe Machines—Two sets of concrete pipe-making machinery, each weighing 25 tons with a daily production capacity of over 10,000 feet of pipes of various diameters, were allocated to the Yangtze Industrial Corporation at Nanking and the Shanghai Cement Plant at Shanghai.

Lumbering Machinery—Altogether 855,041 tons of machinery for the lumbering industry were purchased. Most of it went to Taiwan, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Kwangtung and Shanghai. None was sent to the Northeastern Provinces, China's best timber lands, because of transportation difficulties and the impounding of supplies.

BUILDING MATERIALS

Of the 170,420 tons of construction materials, worth US\$11,032,280, about 44,354 tons were distributed by the end of 1947. These included 5,218 tons of quonset huts, 12,715 tons of steel and iron, 15,085 tons of wood, and 11,336 tons of miscellaneous materials. Most of the quonset huts were used in Shanghai and Nanking to house the great concentration of refugees. The rest went to Honan, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, and Kwangsi.

CONSTRUCTION MACHINERY

During the war, the pressing needs of military constructions called into use numerous new machines, some 30 and 40 varieties of surveying and drawing equipment, and machines for the building of bridges, culverts, dikes, highways, railways and harbors.

CNRRA, therefore, imported for China up to its termination at the end of 1947 over 21,800 tons of these supplies, while the delivery of 3,800 more tons including 3,513 tons of steel bridge parts and 287 tons of tools and parts were still outstanding as of 1948. Of the 21,800-odd tons already received, 65% was used for equipping 15 road-building corps of the National Highway Administration under the

Ministry of Communications. The rest was for the construction of railroads, factories and mines.

REPLACEMENT AND RECONSTRUCTION PROGRAM

In August, 1948, the Economic Cooperation Administration, (ECA) China Division, in agreement with the Chinese Government, worked out a combined industrial replacement and reconstruction program. This was reached after several months' review and survey of conditions in China by ECA's Reconstruction Survey Group that convinced both the Chinese and American authorities concerned of the urgent need of China's industry for replacement.

Under this program, to be completed probably within two years, US\$70-million of the total US\$275-million would be spent over replacement and reconstruction operations. It was further agreed that US\$35-million, or one-half of this sum, was to be allocated for replacement purposes, while the other half was to finance reconstruction projects.

The aim of the program is to make a significant start toward rehabilitating certain electric power plants, railroads and coal, tin and antimony mines.

Plans were also evolved for full utilization of equipment already made available to China by UNRRA. In addition, U. S. military surpluses would be used wherever possible.

To implement the replacement and reconstruction program, the Chinese Government, represented by its Council for United States Aid (CUSA), an agency of the Executive Yuan, and the ECA China Mission formed a non-voting consultative joint committee of three representatives of the Chinese Government and two representatives of the ECA Mission in October, 1948. The Joint Committee decided to retain as its "technical staff" the J. G. White Engineering Corporation of New York City.

This was a distinct departure from methods employed in previous aid programs by either government, or by the United Nations for the UNRRA program. Heretofore, the practice has been for each government to develop independent staffs and to seek to coordinate the efforts of hundreds of thousands of persons. More often than not, normal and usual channels of trade and established business firms were not used in functions that could be performed more efficiently and economically by private enterprises.

"PROJECT ENGINEERS"

The supervision of the US\$70-million ECA replacement and reconstruction program was to be carried out through the J. G. White Corporation which would send to China, for this purpose, a small group of 6 to 10 American engineers: This staff would not undertake any "projects" but would exercise technical supervision over other private firms engaged as "project engineers" engineering firms employed by beneficiaries of the program.

The relationship between the "project engineers" and their clients under ECA procedures requires these engineers to represent the clients in seeking out the best prices and deliveries obtainable in the world markets, and to seek competitive bids on some items. In other words, they are responsible for carrying out the projects at the lowest possible cost in the shortest possible time.

Engineers thus retained are allowed a marginal profit or fixed fee on equipment they handle and, in certain cases, by a profit plus fee for service. There will be no fixed percentage, as the character and amount of work involved—in relation to the money value—will vary widely. In order to carry out the program most efficiently, each "project engineer" is required to sign an affidavit, countersigned by the operator of the project, certifying (1) that on the basis of adequate technical survey the project may be expected to produce the results claimed; (2) that alternative sources of procurement and competitive prices have been investigated to ensure that the prices and local currency costs are as firm as possible; and (3) that the engineering organization guarantees the quickest and most economical methods possible in procuring and installing equipment for the project and will submit progress reports from time to time to authorities concerned.

REPLACEMENT AND RECONSTRUCTION PROJECTS

Up to the end of 1948, 14 reconstruction projects totalling US\$22,500,000 had been approved. These were selected on a basis of their possible effect on China's industrial economy, particularly on the increased production of sugar, textiles and power.

The 14 beneficiaries named were:

1. The Yangtze Power Company, US-\$1,200,000—This company provided power for Nanking and Pukow. Its dire need for replacement parts had cut down the

industrial production of that region. The allocation was meant to add power-generating capacity to its facilities.

2. The Kailan Mining Administration, US\$1-million—This great mining concern produced 50 percent of all the coal mined in China below the Great Wall in the fall of 1948. It was the chief source of fuel supply not only for north China, but for many cities, including Shanghai. The sum for Kailan would enable it continue as the principal coal producer in China.

3. The Tientsin-Peiping Power Grid, US\$1,200,000—Although it was one of the most important operations of the National Resources Commission, it had suffered from insufficient capital equipment. The materials and equipment it was to receive would add substantially toward improving its services to the industries of north China.

4. The Taiwan Sugar Company, US\$1-million—Another NRC operation, its economic importance means much to China's export trade.

5. The Canton-Hankow railway, US\$5-million—This rail line is the key to transportation in south China.

6. The Chekiang-Kiangsi railway, US\$2,500,000—The line links the rich area just south of the Yangtze with the Canton-Hankow line.

7. The Peiping-Tientsin railway, US\$1,500,000—This railroad connects these two north China metropolises.

8. The Taiwan railroad, US\$1,500,000—It skirts the west coast of Taiwan.

9. The Taiwan Power Company, US\$2,500,000—The company supplies power to important productive plants on the island.

10. Small power plants in south and central China, US\$2,500,000—These recipients are operated by the National Resources Commission.

11. Power facilities in Peiping, Tientsin, Taiyuan, Mukden, and Tsingtao, US\$2-million—This sum includes that allotted to the Tientsin-Peiping Power Grid listed in Project 3.

12. The Hankow power system, US\$300,000.

13. The Chungking power system, US\$250,000.

14. The Chinese Customs Service, US\$1-million—A part of this money had been designated to purchase replacement parts and equipment for the Customs Preventive Service in suppressing smuggling.

The first four had named their engineers at the end of September, 1948: Anderson Meyer & Co. for the Yangtze

Power Company; Jardine Engineering Co. for the Kailan Mining Administration; William Hunt & Co. for the Tientsin-Peiping Power Grid, and the General American Transportation Co. for the Taiwan Sugar Co.

On October 18, 1948, the ECA and CUSA jointly announced an additional sum of US\$37,750,000 as provisional allotment under the US\$70-million reconstruction and replacement program. Replacements alone were to get US\$12,750,000. This was in addition to US\$22,250,000 already announced for replacement projects, thus bringing the total to US\$35-million. These funds were *grants-in-aid* to the Chinese Government, as had been the case with all replacement projects. (Unlike a loan, a grant is a U. S. dollar credit which does not obligate the Chinese Government to repay.)

The new replacement allotments were for additional replacements for transportation and communication projects, US\$6-million; various coal mines replacements throughout China, US\$1-million; tin, antimony and tungsten mine replacements in south-central and southwest China, US\$500,000; and other replacements, US\$5,250,000. Prospective recipients of the last-mentioned allotment included power plants which hitherto had been unable to obtain foreign exchange for their replacement needs.

The reconstruction program has received US\$25-million in the form of loans, the only ones planned for in ECA's US\$275-million China aid program.

They were to finance the following projects:

1. Coal Mines—Hwainan Mine, Yangtze valley, US\$3,500,000; Nanling Mine, south China, US\$750,000; native pits, central-south China and Taiwan, US\$750,000; Kaokeng Mine, central-south China, US\$4-million.

2. Power—Shanghai Power Company, US\$5-million for a topping unit; Taiwan Power Company, US\$3,500,000 (including US\$1,500,000 to provide for the proposed Taiwan Fertilizer Company).

3. Fertilizer plants—I-Min Fertilizer Co., Taiwan, sponsored by the NRC, Bank of China and Andersen Meyer & Co., US\$4-million; NRC fertilizer plants, Keelung, Lotung, Sinchu, all in Taiwan, US\$1-million.

4. Yung Li Chemical Co., Nanking, US\$500,000.

5. Tin and antimony mines—southwest and south-central China, US\$2-million.

POST-WAR PRODUCTION

China's government and privately-operated factories together with those taken over from the enemy contributed a great deal to China's postwar industrial production. In 1947 alone, production in many cases increased from 10 to 70 times and in one case nearly 455 times that of 1945. The output of nitric acid shot up from five metric tons in 1945 to 2,272 m. tons in 1947, and the supply of electric power and the production of cement each increased nearly 20-fold. A large majority of these industries were privately owned. Other privately owned industries which registered increases in their production included:

Coal—Private colliers produced 4,613,000 of the 5,238,000 m. tons mined in 1945; 15,961,000 out of 20,447,000 m. tons for 1946, and 13,866,000 out of 19,488,000 m. tons for 1947.

Cast Iron—Private foundries were responsible for 25,939 of the total 48,495 m. tons for 1945; 29,674 out of 31,000 m. tons for 1946, and 30,001 out of 35,733 m. tons for 1947.

Steel—In 1945 private mills accounted for only 8,028 m. tons of steel as against 10,206 m. tons produced by government mills. Their production was increased to 8,164 out of 15,700 m. tons for 1946, and 44,493 out of 63,000 m. tons for 1947.

Machine Tools—Private factories manufactured 614 out of the 775 sets of machine tools for 1945; 1,015 out of 1,052 sets for 1946, and 18,915 out of 19,011 sets for 1947.

Machines—Private factories also dominated the manufacture of machines, producing 1,320 out of 1,421 sets for 1945; 2,033 out of 2,286 sets for 1946, and 68,322 out of 68,814 sets for 1947.

Prime Movers—Against their prime mover production of 1,248 out of 2,866 hp. in 1945 and 1,810 out of 4,765 hp. in 1946, private factories produced 17,845 out of 20,214 hp. in 1947, nearly eight times the production of government plants.

Generators—The manufacture of generators in the postwar years was almost a 100% private enterprise. In 1945 only 628 out of a total of 2,028 kva. of generators were produced by government factories. There was no government production of this item in 1946 and 1947. Private factories were responsible for all of China's generator output of 4,200 kva. in 1946, and 25,224 kva. in 1947.

Motors—In contrast with their production of motors of 766 out of 6,683 hp. in 1945, and 1,245 out of 4,178 hp. in 1946,

private factories in 1947 turned out 62,228 hp. out of a total of 68,391, which was more than 10 times that the government factories produced.

Transformers—In 1945, private factories produced fewer transformers than government plants (4,933 out of 10,496 kva). This record was reversed considerably in the following two years when private interests produced, in 1946, 7,071 out of 12,092 and, in 1947, 124,164 out of 146,680 kva.

Communications Equipment—Against their production of 60 out of 1,435 sets of communications equipment in 1945, private factories turned out 1,159 out of 1,385 sets in 1946 and 2,246 out of 2,517 sets in 1947.

Lamp Bulbs—Private industry manufactured 131,000 lamp bulbs out of a total of 969,000 in 1945; 1,686,000 out of 3,166,000 pieces in 1946; and 53,080,000 out of 55,019,000 pieces in 1947.

Cement—The production of cement by private interests: 40,093 out of 42,230 m. tons in 1945; 208,874 out of 292,123 m. tons in 1946; and 492,452 out of 735,929 m. tons in 1947.

Sulphuric Acid—Private interests have led in the production of this and other chemical products for industrial consumption. They produced 201,000 out of 256,000 m. tons of sulphuric acid in 1945; 6,986,000 out of 7,205,000 m. tons in 1946; and 13,140,000 out of 15,562,000 m. tons in 1947.

Hydrochloric Acid—Private factories produced 337 out of 338 m. tons of hydrochloric acid in 1945 and 2,233 out of 3,002 m. tons in 1946. Government factories produced 3,759 m. tons in 1947. Production statistics of private factories for that year were not available.

Caustic Soda—In the production of caustic soda, private factories were responsible for 3,184 out of 3,342 m. tons for 1945; 57,726 out of 61,178 m. tons for 1946; and 56,735 out of 60,594 m. tons for 1947.

Nitric Acid—All nitric acid was produced by private factories during 1945-1947. The production in 1945 was 5 m. tons; in 1946, 2,294 m. tons; and in 1947, 2,272 m. tons.

Alcohol—Private distilleries yielded 12,209,000 out of 16,222,000 gals. of alcohol in 1945; 8,987,000 out of 12,379,000 gals. in 1946; and 29,417,000 out of 31,201,000 gals. in 1947.

Paper—Private paper mills were responsible for the total production of 3,900 m. tons in 1945, exclusive of that in the recovered areas. In 1946 and 1947,

they produced, respectively, 57,369 out of 62,678 m. tons and 110,000 out of 125,187 m. tons.

Cotton Yarn—Privately owned cotton mills accounted for all the 69,000 bales of machine-spun yarn produced in 1945. They turned out 1,118,000 out of 1,544,000 bales for 1946; and 1,268,000 out of 1,974,000 bales for 1947.

GOVERNMENT INDUSTRIES

Electric Power—Although producing only 70,136,000 out of 196,263,000 kwh of electric power in 1945, government-owned power plants turned out 910,220,000 out of 1,280,851,000 kwh. in 1946; and 2,005,117,000 out of 3,735,189,000 kwh. in 1947.

Gasoline—The production of gasoline has been under full government control. The output for 1945, 1946 and 1947 were 4,305,000 gals., 5,058,000 gals., and 8,773,000 gals., respectively.

Minerals—The production of certain critical minerals such as tungsten, antimony and gold is exclusively a government enterprise. For production statistics, see section on the National Resources Commission elsewhere in this chapter, also the chapter on Minerals and Mining.

"PEOPLE'S LIVELIHOOD" INDUSTRIES

The term "people's livelihood industries" as applied in China refers to those industries which have a direct bearing upon the daily life of the people. The following affords a production perspective of coal, electricity and textiles, all of which are under the control of the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Coal—In spite of the fact that China produced about 14% more coal in 1947 than in 1946, almost every part of the country faced a coal shortage at the beginning of 1948 because of communist disturbances and transportation difficulties. Often surplus coal in one region could not be shipped to another where it was needed.

As of April, 1948, however, a survey of the country's seven coal producing areas indicated that the year's coal output would approximate the national demand of about 15,180,000 tons in 1947.

The Northeast—This area produced 4,578,600 tons of coal in 1947 in addition to 350,000 tons carried over from 1946, totalling 4,928,600 tons in all. This was expected to meet local needs for 1948. Communist disturbances, however, were already affecting the production of mines at Sian in Liaoning and Peipiao and Fusin in Jehol at the end of March, 1948.

North China—This region produced during 1947, 7,420,400 tons of which 1,500,000 tons were shipped to other parts of the country. The remaining 5,920,400 tons, plus a 1946-stockpile of 400,000 tons, were more than sufficient to cover the area's maximum consumption of 5,770,000 tons. If transportation facilities from the Kailan Mines in eastern Hopei had been improved, a considerable increase in the output would have resulted.

Central China—In addition to 180,000 tons stockpiled in 1946, this area produced 2,822,400 tons in 1947 and imported 1,800,000 tons from other areas, and 50,000 tons from abroad. Efforts were being made in 1948 to increase the production of all central China colliers up to 5,000 tons per month. The annual requirement of this region was estimated at 5,950,000 tons.

South China—This region is most deficient in coal production. It has been producing only 90,000 tons annually whereas its need is estimated at 440,000 tons. The Nanling and Fukuo mines in Kwangtung were expanded in 1947 to produce 200,000 more tons, an amount hardly adequate to cover the needs of Kwangtung alone.

The Southwest—It produces barely enough coal to meet its own requirement of 2,240,000 tons per year.

The Northwest—Against a yearly consumption of 1,220,000 tons of coal, this area produced 1,116,000 tons, hence a deficiency of 104,000 tons. The colliers in Kansu and Shensi were to be expanded in 1948 to increase their output by 300,000 tons.

Taiwan—The island produces nearly twice the amount of coal it needs each year. Of its yearly output of 1,100,000 tons, Taiwan consumes 580,000 tons and ships the rest to Nanking, Shanghai, Fuku, Kwangtung, or Hongkong.

Electric Power—China's total generating electrical power capacity was 1,281,000 kw. in 1946. By March, 1948 it was increased 1,302,000 kw., a gain of 21,000 kw. As of April 15 the same year, the new power plant facilities, capable of generating 83,000 kw., were being imported and installed, and the country's power producing capacity was expected to be increased to 1,383,000 kw. as follows:

Nanking-Shanghai-Hangchow — 26,300 kw. more generating capacity and 162,804 kwh. of power; Central China—5,500 kw. generating capacity and 27,381 kwh. of power; The Southwest—1,500 kw. generating capacity and 5,000 kwh. of power;

South China—21,770 kw. generating capacity and 335,535 kwh. of power; North China—32,500 kw. generating capacity and 53,470 kwh. of power.

Textiles—As of April, 1948, the Chinese textile industry was equipped with more than 4,200,000 spindles of which 80% or 3,300,000 spindles were in operation. Its monthly consumption of cotton was around 600,000 piculs. From April until the end of 1948 a total of 5,400,000 piculs of raw cotton would be needed, this to be derived from the following sources:

(a) 1,750,000 piculs of registered stock-piles of cotton owned by the various cotton mills; (b) 210,000 piculs of foreign cotton purchased by the Cotton Yarn and Cloth Export Commission; (c) 550,000 piculs of foreign cotton ordered by the China Textiles Incorporated and supplied by CNRRA; (d) 400,000 bales or 1,800,000 piculs of American cotton to be procured under the US\$80-million Cotton Loan of the United States; (e) 1,200,000 piculs of domestic cotton procured by the Cotton, Cotton Yarn and Cotton Cloth Control Commission.

The above total is 5,510,000 piculs, which would be sufficient to meet the country's needs for 1948. Of the 1948 cotton crops, 3-million piculs were to be purchased and placed in reserve for use in 1949.

At the end of 1947, China had a total of 232 cotton mills with 4,553,056 spindles and 64,003 looms. Forty of these mills with 1,797,932 spindles and 39,547 looms were owned by the government while the remaining 192 with 2,735,124 spindles and 24,456 looms by private interests. Their distribution as of December 31, 1947 is shown in Table 7.

The productive capacity of all cotton mills in China, as of December, 1947, was 1,973,917.78 bales of cotton yarn, 28,089 bales of cotton thread, and 47,625,415.10 bolts of cotton cloth. (There are 400 pounds to a bale and 40 yards to a bolt).

CHINA TEXTILE INDUSTRIES, INC.

Since 1946, the State-operated China Textile Industries, Incorporated has been the largest single owner of cotton mills in China. By the end of 1947 it was in charge of 1,763,480 of the 1,797,932 spindles, and 38,437 of the 39,547 looms owned by the Chinese government. The remainder was owned by local governments.

Although only 1,100,000 of its spindles and 23,000 of its looms were in operation during 1946, the company produced 450,000 bales of cotton yarn and 9,500,000

TABLE 7—COTTON MILLS IN CHINA, DECEMBER, 1947

Locality	Mills	Spindles	Looms
Shanghai.....	18	897,328	18,195
British interests.....	55	1,359,164	9,728
Szechwan.....	19	172,644	1,532
Shensi.....	7	93,657	1,655
Yunnan.....	3	29,176	140
Kiangsu.....	73	599,076	7,137
Chekiang.....	9	43,216	299
Hopei.....	4	96,492	690
Tientsin.....	7	332,872	8,640
Hupei.....	7	160,800	1,950
Shantung.....	3	61,400	240
Tsingtao.....	8	324,524	7,262
Shansi.....	5	63,824	702
Honan.....	2	25,088	42
Hunan.....	2	20,000	120
Kiangsi.....	2	17,000	200
Kwangtung.....	1	6,000	60
Anhui.....	1	20,000	..
Taiwan.....	1	7,587	81
Northeast.....	5	223,208	5,330
TOTAL.....	232	4,553,056	64,003

Source: Ministry of Economic Affairs

bolts of cloth that year. In 1947 its production went up to 740,000 bales of cotton yarn and 16-million bolts of cloth. In the first six months of 1948, 380,000 bales of cotton yarn and 8,600,000 bolts of cloth were manufactured.

Two of the company's most popular products are "Blue Phoenix" cotton yarn and "Dragon Head" cloth. Altogether 14,000 bales of the former and 867,000 bolts of the latter were exported in 1947. During the first six months of 1948, 18,000 bales of yarn and 992,000 bolts of cloth were exported.

As of August, 1948, the company's total assets were valued at US\$145,054,-977.96 Upon the issuance of the Gold Yuan on August 19, 1948, 70% or US-\$101,538,505.43 worth of the company's assets was pledged as part of the reserve for the new currency. Toward the end of that month preparations were under way to dispose of the earmarked assets through the issuance of shares to be sold on the open market.

The China Textile Industries, Inc. was set up in Shanghai in January, 1946 by the Ministry of Economic Affairs to amalgamate all textile mills taken over from the enemy. Factories thus incorporated totalled 68, of which 36 were located in Shanghai; 9 in Tientsin; 13 in Tsingtao, and 10 in the Northeast. They consisted of 38 cotton spinning mills; 13 printing and dyeing mills; 5 wool weaving mills; 2 ramie mills; 2 silk mills; 2 ribbon works; 2 needle works, and 4 machine shops. Of the 38 cotton spinning mills, 18 were located in Shanghai, 8 in Tsingtao, 7 in Tientsin, and 5 in the northeast at Liaoyang, Yingkow, Chinchow, An-tung and Fuchow.

NATIONAL RESOURCES COMMISSION

The National Resources Commission is in charge of China's industrialization program. It operates certain enterprises essential to this program, principally steel and chemical mining, and power industries.

HISTORY AND ORGANIZATION

When the Commission was organized in November, 1932, it was called the National Defense Planning Council and was part of the general staff. Its purpose was to survey Chinese resources and all available means of production and to co-ordinate all such economic measures as might be taken by the government in the event of war.

It acquired its present name in April, 1938, when it was placed under the Ministry of Economic Affairs. In May, 1946, it was given a ministerial status, but in March, 1949, it was restored to its original position. The commission has become the holding and controlling agency of newly-established state enterprises, somewhat in the nature of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in the United States. In the scope of its expanding wartime activities, the NRC also bore some resemblance to the American War Production Board.

The NRC planned and executed the transportation of 450 industrial and mining units from the coastal regions to the interior of China between 1937 and 1940. Under the most trying conditions and for the most part with only primitive means of transportation, it succeeded in moving 120,000 tons of machinery and materials and 15,000 skilled workers and their families to Free China. Within four more years the number of modern factories in Free China had increased tenfold. The NRC itself administered 86 industrial and mining units by the end of 1944.

The NRC is now composed of the following divisions under a business committee: power, coal, petroleum, ferrous metals, non-ferrous metals, mechanical, electrical, chemical, sugar, cement, paper, and coordination. To facilitate its work and operation, it maintained offices in the Northeastern Provinces, Peiping and Tientsin, Shanghai, Chungking, Taiwan, and New York—six in all.

NEW YORK OFFICE

The NRC's New York Office performs various functions. It is empowered to negotiate contracts in behalf of the Chinese Government with American and Canadian firms in matters concerning technical or financial assistance to China. It has working arrangements with many American firms: consulting engineers, construction engineers, and manufacturers of supplies and equipment for various industries.

The NRC's New York office has a training program. Trainees are selected in China for specialized training in various industries. When they are sent to the United States they are placed in positions corresponding to those they are to fill upon the completion of their training. Most of these are engineers and technical men, but there are also managers, accountants and research workers.

Another duty of the NRC's New York office is to process the loan programs from

the repayment end and handle the shipping of the tungsten, tin, antimony and mercury pledged in the Sino-American barter agreement. From 1940 to April 30, 1946, it handled 34,590 tons of mineral products from China, valued at US\$46,617,360. The bulk was paid to the Export-Import Bank.

SUBSIDIARIES AND THEIR PRODUCTION

Up to the end of 1947, the NRC had grown from a small staff consisting of a handful of experts to an organization with 96 production units—subsidiaries of limited companies which operated 291 factories, mills and mines with 32,917 staff members and 190,858 workers. The more important NRC subsidiaries are shown in Table 8 (on pages 396-397).

The enterprises owned and operated by the NRC occupy no small place in the nation's total production picture. In 1947, for an example, the NRC's power output rated more than 60% of the national production while its coal mines shared 32.5% of the country's production.

Prior to the communist occupation of large cities in north and central China 1948-49, the commission, which had been in full control of the domestic and refining of petroleum, supplied 20% of China's oil needs. It owned and operated all iron and steel production units with the exception of the steel mills in Shanghai. The NRC's yearly output of iron and steel at normal times should have averaged 200,000 m. tons, had it not been for the stripping of industrial plants in the Northeastern Provinces by Russian troops plus wanton destruction by the Chinese Communists. The NRC's estimated yield of iron and steel products for 1947 was 110,000 tons or 80% of the national production, which would have met one-third of the country's requirements.

Minerals for export such as tungsten, antimony and tin are mostly produced or purchased by the NRC. The Commission produced approximately 40% of the nation's cement. Its sugar yield during the year 1946-47 (October, 1946 to September, 1947) was about 30% of the national production while that for 1947-48 had been estimated at 300,000 tons or over 60% of the country's total sugar yield.

The NRC also produced a record number of locomotives, motors and transformers and about 20% of China's paper.

By the end of 1947, the aggregate value of all NRC production amounted to CNC-\$5,244,100,000,000 (at the value of the Chinese dollar in July, 1947). The North-

eastern Provinces rated the highest with CNC\$2,034,200-million; north China, next, with CNC\$1,289,000-million; and Taiwan, third, with CNC\$1,084,700-million. (The production in the northwest was included in the north China figure.) The remainder was distributed as follows: CNC\$597,300-million for central China (including Szechwan) and CNC\$238,900-million for south China (including the southwest).

PRODUCTION SINCE V-J DAY

At the end of the war there were over 100 NRC-operated enterprises in the interior of China. Since most of them had been directly or indirectly connected with the war effort, certain readjustments were necessary to convert them to peace-time production.

In the postwar years, with many units taken over from the enemy in various parts of the country, NRC's production has climbed steadily upward largely in the following main categories: electrical products, coal, petroleum, metals, iron, steel, mechanical products, chemicals, sugar, cement and paper. The largest increases have been made in power, coke and petroleum production. In some commodities such as iron and steel, however, production figures were actually smaller in 1946-1947 than in 1945.

Table 9 (see pages 398-399) shows NRC's principal subsidiary enterprises throughout China and their production for 1946, 1947 and part of 1948 (January-April) as against 1945.

In 35 of the 38 items listed above, production in 1947 registered gains over that in 1946. The drop in the output of alcohol in 1947, for an example, was due to the closing down or sale of all but one of the NRC-operated distilleries in the interior, which the commission had set up during the war. Among the NRC enterprises, whose production in 1947 was 3 to 11 times their 1946 outputs, were sulphuric acid, antimony, cast iron, machine tools, locomotives, freight cars, transformers, telephone sets, copper wire, hydrochloric acid, sulphur black, paper and paper board. Pyrite was a new NRC product.

The NRC's program for 1948 was aimed at increasing production and reviving the national economy in coordination with the nation's military campaign to suppress the communist rebellion. The commission did its utmost to maintain industrial and mining enterprises in the northeast, speeded improvements in north China, exploited resources in central and south China, and expedited the development of enterprises in Taiwan.

TABLE 8—NRC'S PRINCIPAL SUBSIDIARIES—DECEMBER, 1947

Subsidiary	Sub- ordinate Units	Staff Members	Workers
<i>Power:</i>			
Northeast Power Administration (Mukden).....	15	2,813	3,932
North Hopei Power Company (Peiping).....	4	1,810	3,821
Tsingtao Electricity Works (Tsingtao).....	1	321	793
Mingkiang Power Company (Wutungchiao).....	..	87	351
Taiwan Power Company (Taipeh, Taiwan).....	9	1,828	2,976
Hunan Power Company (Changsha).....	3	165	372
Canton Power Company (Canton).....	..	302	954
Kunming Lakeside Electricity Works (Kunming)...	..	94	354
<i>Coal:</i>			
Fushun Coal Mining Administration (Fushun, Liaoning).....	8	2,979	36,301
Fushin Coal Mining Company (Fushin, Jehol).....	6	648	16,178
Peipiao Coal Mining Company (Peipiao, Jehol).....	5
<i>Petroleum:</i>			
Chinese Petroleum Corporation (Shanghai).....	17	2,059	11,567
<i>Metals:</i>			
Northeast Metals Mining Company (Mukden).....	8	187	494
Central China Mining Administration (Nanking)...	5	118	1,037
Taiwan Gold & Copper Mining Administration (Keelung, Taiwan).....	1	140	2,147
Taiwan Aluminum Corporation (Kaohsiung, Taiwan)	2	129	978
Yunnan Consolidated Tin Corporation (Kunming)...	5	221	3,552
<i>Iron & Steel:</i>			
Anshan Iron & Steel Corporation (Anshan, Liaoning)	2	1,043	10,870
Penhsi Coal & Iron Corporation (Penhsihu, Liaoning)	2	604	8,917
North China Iron & Steel Corporation (Shihching- shan, Peiping).....	3	543	3,667
Central China Iron & Steel Corporation (Tayeh, Hupeh).....	..	109	720
Ta Tu Kou Iron & Steel Mill (Chungking).....	1	352	4,233
<i>Mechanical:</i>			
Mukden Locomotive Manufacturing Company (Mukden).....	3	353	2,111
Central Machinery Manufacturing Company (Shanghai).....	5	521	3,374
Central Shipbuilding Corporation (Shanghai).....	..	60	38
Taiwan Mechanical Shipbuilding Company (Keelung, Taiwan).....	2	333	1,919
Central Electrical Manufacturing Works (Nanking)...	7	756	2,137
Central Radio Manufacturing Company (Shanghai) ..	4	303	657
<i>Chemical:</i>			
Tientsin Chemical Industrial Company (Tientsin)...	3	124	847
Central Chemical Works (Shanghai).....	2	111	212
Taiwan Fertilizers Company (Taipeh, Taiwan).....	6	262	1,452
Taiwan Alkali Company (Kaohsiung, Taiwan).....	5	274	1,253

TABLE 8—Continued

Subsidiary	Sub- ordinate Units	Staff Members	Workers
<i>Sugar:</i> Taiwan Sugar Corporation (Taipeh, Taiwan).....	40	5,364	16,274
<i>Cement:</i> North China Cement Company (Peiping).....	2	132	617
Taiwan Cement Company (Taipeh, Taiwan)	3	433	2,354
<i>Paper:</i> Taiwan Paper Company (Taipeh, Taiwan).....	6	624	2,645
GRAND TOTAL.....	185	26,202	150,104

SOURCE: National Resources Commission

Prior to the communist occupation of the big cities, the NRC operated about 75% of all power plant facilities, produced 66% of coal, 90% of iron and steel, and owned a substantial portion of manufacturing industries in China. It also controlled the production and export of tungsten and antimony.

FUTURE PLANS AND POLICIES

Certain broad lines of future policy are being contemplated by the commission. Among these is its intention gradually to decentralize and loosen its control over certain industrial units considered not essential to China's industrialization plan. Certain basic industries will remain essential for a long time, and these must be undertaken by the government because private interests in China are not as yet in a position to conduct them. As for other industries, they are to be taken over by private interests as soon as they are on a self-supporting basis. For example, stock of the NRC-operated Taiwan Sugar Corporation has been offered for sale to the public. This is in full accord with the general belief that the state ought largely to invest its available capital in those industries which do not attract investment, either because they do not promise immediate returns or, more often, because of their size but which are necessary to an integrated economy.

Another plan is to diversify NRC investments, allowing at the same time a wider spread and a lesser degree of control. According to this plan the NRC would own shares in various industries in varying amounts, depending on where the capital would be most needed.

That joint operation with private industry is entirely workable has already been amply demonstrated. Besides its own enterprises, the NRC shares management in several partly-owned concerns, some of which have been in operation for a number of years. The NRC's participation in management is limited to its number of shares.

The NRC believes that the responsibility to encourage the growth of private business and manufacture in China is an important phase of its general plan for economic reconstruction, and that one of its functions is to facilitate "division of labor" between private and state enterprises.

INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH

China has a long way to go in industrial research. Up to the end of 1948, such research as had been carried on had a fourfold purpose: (a) To exploit the raw materials at her disposal for industrial production with an end toward self-sufficiency; (b) To develop better methods and processes of industrial production through the advancement of science and engineering; (c) To conduct studies which would help to standardize her industrial products; and (d) To encourage and promote industrial extension work in the rural as well as urban areas.

In August, 1948, there were some 25 industrial research institutes in China, of which four were operated by the Central Government, 10 by provincial governments and about 20 by private enterprise. The leading institute was the National Industrial Research Bureau under the then Ministry of Industry and Commerce

**TABLE 9—PRODUCTION STATISTICS OF NRC'S PRINCIPAL SUBSIDIARIES
1945 to 1948 (Jan.-June)**

Product	1945	1946	1947	1948 (Jan.-June)
<i>Power:</i> (1,000 kwh.)	70,136	910,220	2,005,117	662,193
<i>Coal:</i> (1,000 m. tons)	625	4,486	5,622	1,141
Coke (1,000 m. tons)	44	54	108	30
<i>Petroleum:</i>				
Gasoline (1,000 gal.)	4,305	5,058	8,773	4,664
Kerosene (1,000 gal.)	1,654	2,304	4,013	2,050
Diesel (1,000 m. tons)	887	1,253	3,178	1,323
Fuel Oil (1,000 gal.)			11,816	5,494
Natural Gas (1,000 cu. ft.)	237	61,098	54,603	15,802
<i>Metals:</i>				
Tungsten Ore Concentrates (m. ton)	2,638	6,402	3,368
Antimony Ore (m. ton)	426	1,780	920
Refined Tin (m. ton)	5,386	1,202	1,470	405
Lead Ingots (m. ton)	986
Gold (<i>Shih Liang</i> *)	7,000	4,865
Refined Copper (m. ton)	623	947	1,643	237
Pyrite (m. ton)	64,876	15,888
<i>Iron and Steel:</i>				
Iron Ore (m. ton)	42,594	15,114	18,894	32,123
Cast Iron (m. ton)	22,556	1,326	5,732	12,292
Steel Ingots (m. ton)	10,206	7,536	18,507	4,590
<i>Mechanical Products:</i>				
Prime Mover (hp.)	1,618	2,955	2,369	899
Machine Tools (unit)	161	37	96	58
Bicycles (unit)		3,922	9,260	3,544
Manufacturing Machines (unit)	101	253	492	36
Locomotives (unit)	4	23	7
Freight Cars (unit)	75	259	69
Vessels Repaired (m. ton)	92,588	105,415	75,719
<i>Electrical Products:</i>				
Motors (hp.)	5,917	2,933	6,163	2,383
Transformers (kva.)	5,563	5,021	22,516	8,284
Telephone Sets (unit)	3,379	171	879	242
Switchboard Lines (unit)	5,155	..	420	160
Communications Equipment (unit) ..	1,375	224	271	3,693
Copper and Steel Wires (m. ton)	325	826	1,756	231
Insulated Wires (coil)	44,043	57,478	83,265	48,656
Lamp-bulbs (1,000)	838	1,480	1,939	626
Dry Cells (dozen)	149,045	110,170	164,489	56,066
Storage Batteries (unit)	2,894	1,026	3,347	982
Porcelain Insulators (1,000)	2,236	1,813	2,017	135
<i>Chemical Products:</i>				
Sulphuric Acid (m. ton)	55	219	2,422	240
Hydrochloric Acid (m. ton)	1	769	3,759	992
Caustic Soda (m. ton)	158	3,442	3,859	1,523
Calcium Cyanamide (m. ton)	3,201	8,002	3,102

* One *Shih Liang*=31.25 grams

TABLE 9—Continued

Product	1945	1946	1947	1948 (Jan.-June)
<i>Chemical Products:—Continued</i>				
Superphosphate (m. ton).....	..	1,633	9,206	8,041
Calcium Carbide (m. ton).....	..	3,723	5,344	1,441
Bleaching Powder and Liquid Chlorine (m. ton).....	..	1,383	2,083	1,038
Sulphur Black (m. ton).....	..	84	275	72
Glass (box).....	..	175,044	241,886	128,838
Alcohols (1,000 gal.).....	4,013	3,392	1,784	1,809
Machine Belts (ply).....	..	1,668	17,639	483
<i>Sugar: (m. ton).....</i>	..	86,073	41,598	252,885
<i>Cement: (m. ton).....</i>	2,137	83,249	243,477	81,869
<i>Paper and Cardboard: (m. ton).....</i>	..	5,309	15,187	5,124

Source: National Resources Commission

which had 26 laboratories and seven model experimental factories.

The NIRB was established in 1931, as a part of the Ministry of Economic Affairs. It had three branches: Chungking Industrial Research Bureau, Lanchow Industrial Research Bureau, and Peiping Industrial Research Bureau. Of the 10 industrial research institutes sponsored by the local governments two were in Taiwan and one was in Shanghai. The rest were in the provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Hopei, Shansi, Shensi, and Kwangtung.

THE FOUR GOVERNMENT BUREAUS

The activities of all four Central Government-operated industrial research bureaus were well coordinated. Each had set up a number of laboratories and pilot plants for research purposes.

The National Bureau—It had 26 laboratories devoted to the studies of technical analysis, industrial fermentation, fine chemicals, ceramics, oils and fats, plastics, leather tanning, dyestuff, food industry, chemical cellulose, motor fuel, textile, material testing, machinery designing, heat power, high tension electrical power, electrical engineering, sugar, heavy chemicals, forest products, paper-making, wood-using industries, power testing/electronics, precision machinery testing, and industrial economic research.

The Chungking Bureau—It had 15 laboratories devoted to the studies of technical analysis, material testing, cellulose, leather tanning, fuel, fats and oils, heavy chemicals, cane sugar, herb drugs,

forest products, machinery designing, alloy, refractory material, food and beverage, and plastics.

The Lanchow Bureau—It had 9 laboratories devoted to the studies of technical analysis, industrial fermentation, material testing, beet sugar, wool and fibers, crude animal products, fats and oils, electro-chemistry, and heavy chemicals.

The Peiping Bureau—It had 9 laboratories devoted to the studies of technical analysis, fat and oil, material testing, heavy chemicals, cellulose, food fermentation, solid fuel, electro-chemistry, and machinery designing.

Generally speaking, the National Bureau was empowered to conduct research projects in almost every kind and branch of industry in China. The Chungking bureau confined its activities to the industries of southwestern China such as refractory materials, herb drugs, fruits, forest products, ceramics, pharmaceuticals, canning and wood-using industry. The Lanchow bureau specialized in the industries of the northwest such as natural alkali, wool and furs, beet sugar, wool-weaving, and fur-dressing, while the Peiping bureau concentrated its studies on such industries in north China as coal, iron, soybean, strategic minerals, salt, alkali and art work.

IMPORTANT RESEARCH WORK

The following are the more important items of research work conducted during the postwar years by the National Bureau under the Ministry of Economic Affairs:

Industrial Fermentation Research—The National Bureau's Fermentation Laboratory has played an important role by making a detailed study of various kinds of micro-organisms, such as *Aspergille*, *Mucor*, *Rhizopus*, *Penicillium* and *Citromyces* and Yeasts. Up to August, 1948, over 500 specimens of various micro-organisms had been collected, separated and identified by the laboratory.

Apart from the examination of micro-organisms, it had worked out effective methods to improve the manufacture of sauces, alcohol, wine, vinegar, lactic acid, acetone and butyl alcohol.

Cellulose—The National Bureau's Cellulose Laboratory included in its scope of research industries using cellulose as raw materials, and rayon. Its outstanding achievements have been (1) the manufacture of nitrocellulose dope and lacquer from domestic cotton, (2) the manufacture of cellulose acetate (one of the most important materials for making dope for aircraft), (3) the manufacture of the viscose of sulphonal cellulose (the principal raw material for making rayon), and (4) the designing of machinery for the manufacture of rayon.

Textiles—The National Bureau's Textile Laboratory has been seeking to improve the rural methods of weaving and spinning. The Indian Ghoseh spinning jenny has been introduced with some modifications as the most suitable pattern for China's rural areas.

Oils and Fats—The National Bureau has through its oils and fats laboratory achieved the following results during the immediate postwar period:

(1) **Plastics from tung oil**—Tung oil mixed with gallic acid to form a paste is heated in an oven with the addition of formaldehyde. The product is pulverized, combined with a filler and thermopressed into form. A bakelite substitute of high dielectric strength is obtained. (2) **Synthetic lubricants from vegetable oils**—Pyrolysis of vegetable oils with caustic soda, potash or quicklime produces unsaturated hydrocarbons which, when polymerized by the addition of anhydrous $AlCl_3$ and vacuum distilled, lubricants of good quality are obtained.

Paper-Making—The National Bureau's paper-making laboratory had conducted the following research:

1. Investigation of the chemical composition of paper-making raw materials—This includes the determination of moisture, ash, soluble extracts, pectin, acetic acid and protein, pentosan, cellulose, lignin, galactose and manose. The raw materials studied consist of (a) spruce, fir,

pine, cedar and poplar of the wood group; (b) various species of bamboo; (c) reed, wheat stalk, cotton stalk, corn stalk, and the straw group, and (d) barks from various kinds of trees.

2. Microchemical analysis of paper-making fibers.

3. Utilization of bamboo in paper-making.

4. Studies on the methods of paper-making.

5. Study of hand-made newsprint.

6. Studies on the base material for mimeograph paper—Investigation has shown that by the use of *Wikstraemia Sekokianum* as the chief raw material, with the addition of a small amount of straw and by careful heating, the tensile strength of the base material is greatly increased.

Research on Mechanical Designing Testing—The National Bureau's mechanical designing and testing laboratory supplies the mechanical industries with all sorts of designs and blueprints. It has designed the universal testing machine, oil and liquid fuel, textile, rock and paper testing equipment, pressure gauges, various types of boilers, alcohol distillation tower, machinery attachments and others.

Electrical Engineering—The National Bureau's electrical engineering laboratory conducted experiments on motors, generators, lamps and insulating and conducting materials and tackled such special problems as were referred to it for solutions. It has also studied the manufacture of jewels for meter bearings with Chinese quartz and phosphorus bronze for meter coils, and has manufactured a number of electrical gadgets including the voltmeter, ammeter, milli-ammeter, milli-voltmeter and watt-hour-meter.

Forest Products—The National Bureau through its forest products laboratory has conducted surveys of lumber production in China and made studies on the properties and uses of Chinese timbers. Post-war endeavors have been confined largely to the surveying of potential forest production in southwest China and the making of a series of testing. Relevant data and abstracts of reports prepared and published by the laboratory up to August, 1948, included:

1. Table of estimated Chinese forest resources;

2. Map showing China's main forest regions and lumber markets;

3. Survey of forest resources for railroad ties in southwest China;

4. Chinese logging and transportation;

5. Chinese lumber-trade;

6. A preliminary study of Chinese commercial timbers:

7. Systematic analysis of the woods of the *hamamelidaceae*;

8. A preliminary study of the basic specific gravity and calculated mechanical properties of some important Chinese timbers;

9. Ten years' progress of forest production research projects in China.

Pure Chemicals—The pure chemicals laboratory of the National Bureau has been engaged in the following lines of research:

1. Purification of sulphuric acid for storage battery use—A simple method has been found to eliminate the impurities from raw sulphuric acid.

2. Recovery of by-products from the native charcoal kiln—Generally practiced in Szechwan, charcoal is obtained by the slow burning of hard wood in a so-called "horse-shoe" kiln without recovery of the by-products. A simple condensing apparatus, consisting of bamboo pipes, a wooden bucket and a clay-jar is attached to the chimney of the kiln and acetic acid and acetone are obtained as by-products. The method is simple and is being widely adopted.

3. Preparation of lead, antimony, bismuth, molybdenum and their derivatives.

4. Extraction of ammonium salts and aqua ammonia from animal waste such as fur and bristles.

5. Extraction of saponin and curcumin—In China the seeds of the soap-plant and curcuma are produced in abundance. Saponin extracted by lead acetate and alcohol is a foaming agent and curcumin is used as a chemical reagent for test baric salt.

6. Conversion of camphor to borneol—By using aluminum and iso-propyl alcohol as reducing agents, about 80% of camphor is converted to borneol.

7. Extraction of caffeine from Chinese tea.

8. Synthesis of saccharin.

9. Preparation of pinene and its derivatives.

Ceramics—The National Bureau's ceramics laboratory has been conducting research work on various kinds of ceramic materials in China. Based on the results of research on refractory materials in Szechwan, the laboratory has been able to produce hundreds of tons of high-temperature firebricks for iron and steel plants. It also produces chemical porcelain for laboratory and factory use and pyrometric cones for temperature measurement. Following were the major research projects of the laboratory:

1. Analysis of pottery-clay—About 37 kinds of several pottery clays and 14 kinds of feldspar have been analyzed for their chemical composition and physical properties.

2. Biscuit and glaze experiments.

3. Research on the manufacture of insulating porcelain.

4. Color glaze experiment.

5. Manufacture of chemical porcelain for industrial use.

PRIVATE RESEARCH INSTITUTE

The Huang-Hai (Golden Sea) Research Institute of Chemical Industry is the first private institution in China engaged in scientific research. By 1948 it still ranked highest among the country's largest industrial research institutes financed chiefly by private sources.

It was founded in 1922, at a time when Chinese intellectuals were beginning to take a more active and lively interest in modern science. It was located at Tangku, the salt producing center in north China. When that region was invaded by Japanese troops late in 1937 the institute moved to Wutungchiao in southern Szechwan where it has been carrying on ever since.

The institute was established to pursue studies and investigations that would lead to the establishment of new chemical industries; and to study and improve, whenever possible, the old Chinese industries. Its work has been directed principally toward fermentation, fertilizers, metallurgy and salts.

Fermentation Research—Fermentation is a Chinese domestic industry of ancient origin. Today the making of alcoholic drinks, malt sugar, soybean sauce, and steamed bread is widely practised in Chinese homes. Other foodstuffs, prepared by fermentation processes, are no less important as essential articles in the Chinese diet.

The institute first undertook to study the various traditional fermentation processes. Men were sent to scattered parts of the country to make observations and collect samples. Then, to improve and standardize these processes, new methods were introduced for lower cost and uniform product. Among them, the production of lactic, citric and gallic acids by fermentation was studied. The findings of these studies have been published from time to time.

Pure strains of fungi were isolated and collected. Many strains for producing gallic and citric acids, soybean sauce and alcohol have been studied and tested. Several new forms have been found and their

characteristics described in various papers. As a result China has become a center for the study of fermentation industries.

Fertilizer Research—China being an agricultural country, the supply of fertilizers is of major importance. While there is a universal shortage of nitrogen fertilizers, the deficiency of phosphorus in the southern provinces has been a serious problem. To find an adequate supply of raw materials for the manufacture of potassium and phosphorus fertilizers has been another major research activity of the Institute. From a systematic study of the potassium and iodine content of seaweeds along the China seacoast, undertaken since 1928, it has been found that three of the common algae—namely, *Ecklonia kurome*, *Sargassum horneric* and *Undaria pidaifnila*, can be of industrial use.

The study of phosphorus fertilizers has centered around the methods of production of phosphoric acid for concentrated fertilizers. There are two important phosphate deposits in China, one in Kiangsu and the other in Yunnan. The composition of these deposits has been determined, and a suitable procedure for their treatment and extraction worked out. Experiments on a larger scale are being planned.

Metallurgical Research—Some work on the metallurgy of aluminum has been started. So far very little important bauxite ore has been found in China. There are, however, three alumite deposits (one in Chekiang and two in Anhwei) and two shale deposits containing a high percentage of alumina. The problem is to separate the alumina in a state pure enough for electrolysis. The presence of silica complicates the problem. This, however, has been thoroughly investigated and

a procedure worked out for its treatment.

A fairly large deposit of bismuth ore has been found in Kiangsi. This formerly was worked into concentrates and exported. In 1940 the institute initiated refining operation. A workable process was devised a year later to produce bismuth metal of 98% purity and a yield of about 95% of metal from the original ore.

Salt Research—Since the institute originated in a salt producing area, research on salt has been one of its chief lines of work. The soda beds in Mongolia and salt beds in Shansi have been items of experimentation. The work was resumed and expounded after the institute was moved to Wutungchiao, another salt producing center in China. The "gradation work" used in Germany for the concentration of brines was introduced in Szechwan with good results. Complete analyses of Szechwan subterranean brines have shown them to be rich in potassium, barium, strontium, lithium, boron and bromine. Experimental plants for the extraction of the salts of these elements were started. Their products proved helpful during the long blockade in the war years.

As of November, 1948, the institute maintained an office at Nanking as a liaison with other research and technological organizations. It was considering reorganization of its research work. Two main divisions were being formed: *Salt and Soda* and *Human Biology*. The Division of Salt and Soda, encompassing all such in the inorganic field, was to be directed by Dr. T. P. Hou, well-known chemical engineer. The Division of Human Biology is aimed primarily at the advancement of knowledge about man himself to enable him to live a happier, healthier and longer life.

CHAPTER 15

MINERAL RESOURCES

In common with other production enterprises, China's mining industry was disrupted during the war. Most of the mining enterprises in areas occupied by the Japanese were either seriously damaged by hostilities or put under Japanese control. As a result China had to draw on mineral resources in the interior provinces. Geologists of the National Resources Commission and the Ministry of Economic Affairs made intensive studies in the exploration and utilization of previously known but unworked mineral deposits in Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow, Hunan, Kwangsi, Kansu and Sikang to meet the nation's wartime needs. New mining enterprises were formed for the prospecting and refining of minerals. The remarkable progress made in this field bespeaks the concentrated efforts of the government mining authorities. Since V-J Day, the mining enterprises lost to Japan have been recovered except those in the northeast which were first stripped by Soviet troops and later seized by the communists. This has dealt a serious blow to China's postwar program of industrial development.

MINING AREAS

Mining areas are divided into two general groups of national reserves and private mining claims. In 1949 China had 253 national reserves areas distributed in 21 provinces. These national reserves are distributed as follows: COAL—58 areas (Hunan 16, Yunnan 9, Kweichow 7, Honan 6, Szechwan 6, Hopei 4, Kansu 4, Kiangsi 3, Shantung 1, Sikang 1, Jehol 1); IRON—60 areas (Szechwan 18, Yunnan 10, Anhwei 7, Sikang 4, Hupeh 3, Kansu 3, Kiangsu 2, Kiangsi 2, Hunan 2, Fukien 2, Kweichow 2, Chekiang 1, Kwangtung 1, Kwangsi 1, Jehol 1, Ning-sia 1); TUNGSTEN—85 areas (Kwangtung 43, Kiangsi 24, Hunan 17, Yunnan 1); TUNGSTEN-AND-TIN—1 area (Hunan); TIN—1 area (Hunan); ANTIMONY—2 areas (Anhwei and Hunan); COPPER—9 areas (Yunnan 5,

Hupeh 2, Kiangsi 1, Szechwan 1); ALUMINUM—15 areas (Yunnan 12, Jehol 3); ZINC—1 area (Hopei); MANGANESE—1 area (Kweichow); MERCURY—2 areas (Hunan, Kweichow); PHOSPHORUS—2 areas (Yunnan); SULPHUR—2 areas (Chekiang, Kwangtung); and MINERAL OIL—14 areas (Kansu 6, Szechwan 4, Shensi 3, Sinkiang 1).

Private mining claims in 1949 totalled 6,100 areas covering an aggregate area of 44,473,949 ares (an are is equivalent to 0.0247 acre). Coal mine areas, numbering 3,874, represent 63.51% of all the private claims. Distribution, according to kind, of the private mining areas is listed in Table 1 on page 404.

RESERVES AND PRODUCTION

COAL

In 1945 the National Geological Survey of China published a table of estimated reserves of coal deposits of China. Through the efforts of survey parties sent out by the National Geological Survey of China, the National Resources Commission and the Mining Department of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, new coal reserves were found in various parts of the country. During the war, the Japanese had also engaged in surveying and checking up on the coal deposits in north China. Thus the whole picture of China's coal reserves has been considerably modified. Table 4 on page 407 shows the most recent estimates.

Approximately two-thirds of China's coal production is mined by private interests and only one-third is produced by government-owned mines.

IRON

China has large known deposits of iron ore, but the estimates vary as surveying and exploitation in the field are yet unfinished. The 1947 estimated reserve made by the National Geological Survey of China is 2,554,896,000 m. tons,

TABLE 1—MINING AREAS (Private)

	Number	Area (in are)*
Coal.....	3,874	31,163,676.36
Iron.....	245	393,031.79
Tungsten.....	141	860,658.40
Antimony.....	278	511,204.56
Tin.....	327	1,891,120.08
Mercury.....	8	169,763.60
Copper.....	7	10,564.93
Zinc.....	10	33,325.61
Manganese.....	75	438,383.19
Molybdenum.....	11	34,778.45
Lead.....	83	507,875.43
Gold.....	459	5,746,069.23
Silver.....	9	23,445.52
Cobalt.....	2	315.00
Bismuth.....	3	4,579.49
Sulphur.....	73	141,484.20
Phosphorus.....	5	92,458.50
Arsenic.....	29	68,402.33
Rock Crystal.....	7	148,659.06
Potassium.....	2	1,642.04
Asbestos.....	19	86,493.09
Aluminum.....	18	521,255.81
Mica.....	11	43,776.81
Gypsum.....	56	365,518.24
Alum.....	3	7,481.97
Natural Soda.....	9	17,090.95
Barite.....	44	154,783.58
Nitrate.....	3	623.00
Fluorite.....	85	76,386.19
Graphite.....	24	141,034.55
Fire Clay.....	61	367,428.25
Talc.....	17	92,705.21
Magnesia.....	14	197,358.14
Marble.....	9	19,697.14
Silica.....	1	99.33
Porcelain Clay.....	74	105,357.90
Feldspar.....	2	10,743.01
Rock Salt.....	1	23,479.96
Calcite.....	1	198.10
TOTAL.....	6,100	44,473,949.00

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

* An are is equivalent to 0.15 *shih mow* or 0.0247 acre.

while that made by the Bureau of Mineral Exploration of the National Resources Commission amounts to 5,065,838,000 m. tons.

The centers of China's iron and steel industries are Anshan in the northeast, Shihchingshan in north China, and Tayeh in Hupeh. After V-J Day, as iron and steel plants in the northeast were almost completely stripped, and the facilities at Shihchingshan and Tayeh were all in need of repairs, normal pro-

duction could not be immediately regained. (See Table 6-9.)

PETROLEUM

Oil reserves in China remain largely an unknown factor pending completion of a survey which has been under way for some time in Kansu, Shensi, Sinkiang, Szechwan, Taiwan and in the northeast. Findings have also been reported from Chinghai, Chekiang, Kweichow and Sikang where more intensified

TABLE 2—PREWAR MINERAL PRODUCTION OF CHINA (tons)
(Excluding the Northeastern Provinces)

Minerals	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936
Coal.....	18,490,971	18,585,271	20,493,342	14,938,000	15,034,000
Iron ore (Fe 35-60%).....	1,207,181	1,136,405	1,359,582	1,774,468	1,749,802*
Pig iron.....	134,283	173,274	155,640
Steel.....	25,000	25,000	50,000
Mineral oil (barrels).....	2,251	3,187	2,613	3,000	2,000
Manganese ore (Mn 45%).....	21,501	9,500	1,929
Tungsten ore (W ₂ O ₃ 60%).....	2,210	5,698	6,305	7,000	7,000
Molybdenum ore (Mo 45%).....	0.7	1.4	1.5
Gold (ounces).....	99,450	94,608	86,926
Silver (ounces).....	150,945	200,585	121,504
Copper ore.....	440	483	471
Zinc ore (Zn 36-42%).....	10,584	10,565	13,299	10,000	10,000
Zinc metal.....	57	147	136
Tin.....	7,253	8,358	8,004	9,000	11,000
Mercury.....	0.5	0.4	0.54
Antimony.....
Regulus.....	11,410	11,112	13,615	14,000	13,000
Crude.....	1,287	1,727	1,807
Oxide.....	1,408	1,327	914
Bismuth ore (Bi 40%).....	20	45	73
Arsenic ore (As 20-60%).....	1,427	1,159	1,206	1,000	1,000
Pyrite.....	45,000	43,000	40,000
Kaolin fireclay.....	791,000	796,650	805,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
Limestone.....	4,220,000	4,220,000	4,220,000	5,000,000	5,000,000
Rock salt.....	2,520,000	2,450,000	2,500,000
Gypsum.....	64,508	64,020	67,720
Alum.....	11,070	14,870	15,550	15,000	16,000
Salt peter.....	5,000	4,950	5,000	5,000	5,000
Soda, natural.....	16,253	16,314	16,445
Sulphur.....	3,918	3,781	3,464
Asbestos.....	250	236	220
Fluorspar.....	3,510	4,800	5,050	7,000	8,000
Talc.....	1,680	3,000	3,000
Feldspar.....	25,077	21,589	22,780
Barite.....	505	3,092	9,500
Quartz sand.....	100,000	100,000	100,000

* Anhwei and Hupeh production plus those produced from native mines.

SOURCE: National Geological Survey of China

studies would be necessary to determine the economic value of the various reserves. The known oil reserves in China have been estimated at 778,855,000 m. tons, including 520-million tons of oil shale. (See Table 10.)

The Shensi reserve can be divided into the Yenchang, Yungping and Yen-an groups. The Yenchang wells, first dug in 1907, were still producing oil, at last report, to supply local needs. The production, however, was economically insignificant.

The Kansu oil fields were geologically surveyed in 1934-37. Prospecting work was started by the National Resources Commission in 1938 and drilling work began in 1939. It is now known that the vein extends from Yumen to Yungteng on the northern foot of the Chilienshan range and is capable of large-scale production.

The Kansu Petroleum Production and Refining Administration has been in charge of developing the Kansu oil fields. The administration has sunk 24 wells of which 12 have turned out to be flowing producers. It has built two refineries, one of which is of the shell-still type. The second has pipestills of up-to-date design.

In 1939, refineries under the Kansu Petroleum Production and Refining Ad-

ministration produced only 100 barrels each of gasoline and kerosene and 180 barrels of Diesel oil. Much progress was made in five years. Production figures for 1944 were 96,380 barrels of gasoline, 51,390 barrels of kerosene and 3,700 barrels of Diesel oil. In 1947, the Kansu refineries, together with the new refinery in Taiwan province, produced 428,000 barrels of gasoline, 357,000 barrels of kerosene and 714,000 barrels of Diesel oil.

Oil fields are found both north and south of the Tienshan range in Sinkiang. The northern zone extends from Tihua to Tacheng. The southern zone extends from Kuche to Kashgar. The Tienshan range is one of the most promising oil fields in China. A modern plant produced gasoline on the northern foot of Tienshan before the summer of 1943. It suspended production early in 1944.

In June, 1946, the National Resources Commission formed the Chinese Petroleum Corporation. The Kansu Petroleum Administration, Szechwan Petroleum Prospecting Administration, and all the petroleum projects taken over from the Japanese in Taiwan and the Northeastern Provinces were brought under the unified control of the corporation.

TABLE 3—PRINCIPAL MINERAL PRODUCTION IN CHINA

Minerals	Unit	1944	1945	1946	1947
Coal.....	m. ts.*	5,502,000	5,238,000	18,158,000	19,487,400
Pig iron.....	m. ts.	40,134	48,495	31,000	35,733
Steel.....	m. ts.	13,361	18,234	15,700	63,000
Gasoline.....	1000 gals.	4,048	4,305	5,058	8,773
Kerosene.....	gals.	2,160,647	1,654,697	2,325,000	10,818,000
Diesel oil.....	gals.	155,374	216,322	326,000	967,662
Natural gas.....	cu. ft.	272,502	237,316	35,361,000	54,603,000
Gold.....	taels	100,000	100,000	150,000	107,030
Tungsten ore.....	m. ts.	3,225	..	2,260	6,042
Antimony.....	m. ts.	204	..	426	1,799
Tin.....	m. ts.	5,102	2,704	1,963	3,970
Mercury.....	m. ts.	121	63	31	10
Copper.....	m. ts.	898	623	947	1,643
Lead (refined).....	m. ts.	646	567	400	141
Zinc (refined).....	m. ts.	331	328	100	125
Niter.....	m. ts.	1,733	1,500	1,000	1,000
Sulphur.....	m. ts.	2,265	2,000	1,500	7,397
Manganese ore.....	m. ts.	20,000
Gypsum.....	m. ts.	50,000

*m.ts.—metric tons

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

Oil shale is found in abundance in Liaoning, Shensi, Kwangtung and Kansu.

The known oil reserve in China is estimated in Table 10.

TUNGSTEN

Most of China's known tungsten reserve is found in Kiangsi. Out of the known national total of 5,342,800 m. tons, southern Kiangsi accounts for 4,939,640 m. tons. The Bureau of Mining Exploration of the National Resources Commission reported that in addition to Kiangsi, Kwangtung has 328,100 m. tons of tungsten reserve; Hunan, 51,100; Hopei, 15,400; and Sinkiang, 8,600. No estimates are available

for tungsten reserves of Yunnan and Kwangsi.

MANGANESE

Manganese ore is found mainly in Hunan, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien and Kansu. Findings have also been reported in Yunnan, Hupeh, Kweichow, Chekiang, Hopei and Liaoning. The present known manganese ore reserves are shown in Table 11.

No reliable figures are available for the production of manganese ore in China in recent years.

GOLD AND SILVER

Gold mines in China are widely distributed. The leading production centers

TABLE 4—COAL RESERVES (million metric tons)

Province	1945*	1947**
Liaoning.....	1,836	3,110
Antung.....	..	785
Kirin.....	1,143	1,594
Sungkiang.....	..	440
Hokiang.....	..	3,326
Heilungkiang.....	1,017	4
Hsingan.....	..	1,126
Liaopei.....	..	249
Nunkiang.....	..	16
Jehol.....	614	1,763
Hopei.....	3,065	4,366
Shantung.....	1,639	2,126
Honan.....	7,764	8,034
Shansi.....	127,127	295,600
Kiangsu.....	217	217
Anhwei.....	360	760
Chekiang.....	100	100
Hunan.....	1,293	1,203
Kiangsi.....	700	700
Hupeh.....	354	354
Fukien.....	153	153
Kwangtung.....	333	333
Szechwan.....	3,833	3,833
Kweichow.....	2,518	2,518
Kwangsi.....	1,157	1,157
Yunnan.....	2,310	2,310
Sikang.....	531	531
Chahar.....	504	504
Suiyuan.....	476	476
Ningsia.....	457	457
Shensi.....	71,950	71,950
Kansu.....	1,056	1,056
Chinghai.....	824	824
Sinkiang.....	31,980	31,980
Taiwan.....	..	444
TOTAL.....	265,311	44,489

* Published by the National Geological Survey of China

** Compilation of the National Resources Commission.

are in the Northeastern Provinces, Sinkiang, Hopei, Kansu, Chinghai, Yunnan, Sikang and Szechwan. The mines are largely exploited by native miners with crude tools and primitive methods. Very few of the mines are worked with modern machinery. The Gold Mining Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs, besides prospecting for gold in various provinces, ran four gold mining districts in Yunnan, Kiangsi, Kansu and in the Szechwan-Sikang border area. Because of the high cost of production and the low official price for gold, miners could not make a profit panning gold in spite of lifting of the ban on free panning and marketing of gold in China as ordered by the National Government in 1943. The Gold Mining Administration was abolished in 1944. Two "caretaker" offices were established by the National Resources Commission to look after the Sikang

and Hunan gold mining districts. Operations in most of the other gold mines have been suspended. A number of private gold mines have also ceased to operate. Only small-scale panning still exists. (See Table 12.)

A small amount of silver is produced in China as a by-product of lead-smelting. The country produced 200,000 ounces annually before the war. Silver production figures for recent years are not available.

COPPER

Copper deposits are found in most of the Chinese provinces, with the main reserves in Yunnan, Sikang, Kweichow, Hunan, Fukien and Szechwan. Findings have also been reported in Hupeh, Shansi, Honan, Sinkiang, Taiwan and Liaoning. Recent studies and surveys placed the revised estimated reserve of pure copper in China as shown in Table 13.

TABLE 5—COAL PRODUCTION IN CHINA (metric tons)

Province	1945	1946	1947
Szechwan.....	2,300,000	1,800,000	1,748,400
Yunnan.....	250,000	180,000	200,000
Kweichow.....	192,000	300,000	199,200
Kwangsi.....	10,000	60,000	132,000
Kwangtung.....	100,000	40,000	60,000
Hunan.....	150,000	500,000	699,600
Sikang.....	30,000	30,000	30,000
Shensi.....	600,000	650,000	540,000
Kiangsi.....	100,000	140,000	219,600
Kansu.....	200,000	286,000	240,000
Hupeh.....	50,000	150,000	308,400
Honan.....	50,000	1,000,000	720,000
Fukien.....	30,000	30,000	30,000
Anhui.....	100,000	700,000	871,200
Chekiang.....	5,000	10,000	99,600
Ningsia.....	100,000	150,000	159,600
Chinghai.....	50,000	50,000	50,400
Sinkiang.....	200,000	200,000	176,400
Hopei.....	680,000	4,650,000	5,540,000
Shansi.....	151,000	960,000	600,000
Shantung.....	..	537,000	300,000
Kiangsu.....	30,000	450,000	624,000
Chahar.....	..	30,000	180,000
Suiyuan.....	..	73,000	80,400
Liaoning.....	..	1,800,000	2,160,000
Liaopei.....	..	882,000	600,000
Jehol.....	..	1,500,000	1,599,600
Kirin.....	219,000
Taiwan.....	..	1,000,000	1,100,000
TOTAL.....	5,378,000	18,158,000	19,487,400

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

Production centers of copper are Yunnan, Szechwan, Taiwan and Sikang. Several modern copper refineries are in operation, some of them using the electrolytic process to treat crude metal from Yunnan, Szechwan and Sikang, and refine it to a product of 99.95% purity. The electrolytic copper production in 1945 in China amounted to 725 m. tons.

LEAD AND ZINC

In China, lead and zinc deposits are usually found together. The chief lead and zinc producing centers are Hunan, Yunnan, Sikang and Szechwan. Kwangsi and Kweichow also produce lead and zinc in smaller amounts. Several

modern refineries treat lead and zinc ores in Szechwan, Yunnan, Hunan and Sikang. The electrolytic refineries in Yunnan and Szechwan can refine zinc to a purity of 99.97% for military and electrical uses.

Antung and Liaoning provinces together have a lead reserve of 14,200,000 m. tons and zinc reserve of 10,900,000 m. tons. Kirin has three million m. tons each of lead and zinc reserves. The reserves of Yunnan, Hunan and Sikang are not estimated.

TIN

The chief tin producing center in China is the Kochiu district in southern Yunnan where cassiterite is obtained from super-

TABLE 6—ESTIMATED IRON RESERVES (metric tons)

Province	NGSC Estimate Tonnage ¹	NRC Estimate Tonnage ²
Heilungkiang.....	500,000	500,000
Kirin.....	15,700,000	15,700,000
Liaoning.....	1,390,050,000	3,601,144,000
Jehol.....	11,340,000	15,000,000
Chahar.....	111,645,000	526,000,000
Suiyuan.....	5,700,000	117,000,000
Ningsia.....	7,579,000	7,579,000
Sinkiang.....	34,011,000	34,011,000
Kansu.....	2,496,000	2,496,000
Shensi.....	10,847,000	10,847,000
Hopei.....	42,170,000	42,179,000
Shansi.....	22,240,000	22,240,000
Shantung.....	15,340,000	15,340,000
Honan.....	17,897,000	17,897,000
Chinghai.....	50,000,000	
Sikang.....	39,909,000	39,909,000
Szechwan.....	22,023,000	22,023,000
Hupei.....	193,174,000	143,174,000
Anhwei.....	19,204,000	20,000,000
Kiangsu.....	5,700,000	5,000,000
Chekiang.....	3,224,000	3,224,000
Fukien.....	92,562,000	92,560,000
Kiangsi.....	15,466,000	15,466,000
Hunan.....	31,753,000	21,750,000
Kweichow.....	117,600,000	20,000,000
Yunnan.....	12,156,000	12,156,000
Kwangsi.....	2,067,000	2,067,000
Kwangtung*.....	257,155,000	128,000,000
Taiwan**.....	5,388,000	
Antung.....	..	112,576,000
TOTAL.....	2,554,896,000	5,065,838,000

Notes: * Including the reserve in Hainan Island.

** According to the *Statistical Abstracts of Taiwan Province, 1946.*

¹ Compilation of the National Geological Survey of China.

² Compilation of the Bureau of Mineral Exploration of the National Resources Commission.

TABLE 7—PREWAR, WARTIME, AND POSTWAR IRON PRODUCTION (metric tons)

Province	1936	1941	1946
Chekiang.....	450	..	500
Anhwei.....	484,800
Kiangsi.....	1,200	1,300	7,500
Hupei.....	661,180	2,200	16,750
Hunan.....	15,800	15,800	19,000
Szechwan.....	50,000	127,027	151,239
Sikang.....	9,000	17,000	11,900
Shansi.....	202,000	82,000	24,380
Shantung.....	150,000
Honan.....	25,000	25,000	2,330
Shensi.....	1,800	1,800	2,400
Kansu.....	1,500	2,400	2,400
Ningsia.....	300
Fukien.....	5,100	6,100	4,600
Kwangtung.....	25,000	23,000	5,280
Kwangsi.....	11,000	6,000	3,548
Yunnan.....	18,000	25,408	32,216
Kweichow.....	9,000	13,000	27,000
Liaoning*.....
Kirin**.....
Sinkiang.....	500	500	500
TOTAL.....	1,671,330	348,535	311,843

Notes: *Iron production in Liaoning in 1931 amounted to 963,529 m. tons.

**Iron production in Kirin in 1931 amounted to 300 m. tons.

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

TABLE 8—STEEL PRODUCTION (metric tons)

	1944	1945	1946	1947
Government-owned Mills.....	7,603	12,206	7,536	5,657
Private-owned Mills.....	5,758	8,028	8,164	4,343
TOTAL.....	13,361	20,234	15,700	10,000

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

TABLE 9—PIG IRON PRODUCTION (metric tons)

	1944	1945	1946	1947 (Jan.-June)
Government-owned Mills.....	12,523	22,556	1,326	8,994
Private-owned Mills.....	27,611	25,939	29,674	5,006
TOTAL.....	40,134	48,495	31,000	14,000

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

cial deposits and rock ores. Tin is also produced in Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kwangtung and Hunan.

Tin is an export mineral. The National Resources Commission maintains modern smelters to refine tin to a purity of 99.95% (Yunnan tin) and 99.80% (Kwangsi tin).

Of the 652,000 m. tons of tin reserves in China, Yunnan has 360,000 m. tons, Kiangsi 240,000 m. tons, and Kwangsi 52,000 m. tons.

ANTIMONY

The production of antimony in China is led by Hunan where more than 30 *hsien* are antimony-producing centers. Kweichow also produces considerable antimony. Findings have been reported in Yunnan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Anhwei, Hupeh, Szechwan and Kiangsi.

Known antimony reserves are located in five provinces: Hunan, 1,995,500 m. tons; Kwangtung, 1,183,000 m. tons;

TABLE 10—OIL RESERVES (metric tons)

Province	Mineral Oil	Oil Shale
Liaoning and Jehol.....	20,000,000	301,000,000
Shensi.....	222,000	118,000,000
Kansu (Yumen).....	29,000,000	
Kansu.....	30,000,000	4,000,000
Szechwan.....	59,033,000	..
Sinkiang.....	120,600,000	..
Kirin.....	..	30,000,000
Kwangtung.....	..	65,000,000
Other Provinces.....	..	2,000,000
TOTAL.....	258,855,000	520,000,000

SOURCE: Bureau of Mineral Exploration of National Resources Commission.

MERCURY

Mercury is chiefly produced in Kweichow and Hunan. Szechwan, Sikang, Yunnan, Kwangsi and Kansu also produce mercury in small quantities. The mercury mined and smelted on the border of Kweichow and Hunan is 99.98% pure. Government-owned smelters produced ten m. tons of refined mercury in 1947.

Kweichow, 509,810 m. tons; Kwangsi, 66,560 m. tons; and Yunnan, 48,000 m. tons (National Geological Survey figures).

ALUM AND BAUXITE

Alum is found in the boundary district of Chekiang and Fukien, Anhwei and Kweichow. The Anhwei reserve at Lukiang and Wuwei was estimated at

TABLE 11—ESTIMATED MANGANESE ORE RESERVES (metric tons)

Province	Tonnage	Kind of Ore	Content
Fukien.....	931,000	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	34-43%
Kiangsi.....	3,758,600	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	38-52%
Hunan.....	1,550,120	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	15-58%
Kansu.....	800,000	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	41.74%
Taiwan.....	300,000	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	35%
Kwangtung.....	18,661,000	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	20-45%
Kwangsi.....	3,638,000	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	41-50%
Liaoning.....	50,000	Psilomelane, Pyrolysite	40%
TOTAL.....	29,688,720		

SOURCE: National Geological Survey of China

23,939,000 m. tons, and the Chekiang reserve at Pingyang 552,752,000 m. tons. The alum content of the Chekiang ore is 74%. (See Table 14.)

Bauxite is mainly found in Liaoning and Shantung. Hopei, Kweichow and Yunnan are also rich in bauxite reserves. The Shantung reserves have 271-million m. tons of bauxite which could give an estimated 68-million m. tons of aluminum. The Liaoning reserves total 110-million m. tons which could yield an estimated 29,651,000 m. tons of aluminum. (See Table 15.)

Production of aluminum of the plant in Taiwan (formerly operated by Japanese) is about 20,000 m. tons per year.

MOLYBDENUM

Molybdenum is produced in small quantities in Chekiang, Fukien, Shantung, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan and Kiangsi, mostly found together with tungsten and bismuth. A very small amount of molybdenum is produced at Pingyang and Hohsien in Kwangsi.

TABLE 12—AVERAGE ANNUAL GOLD PRODUCTION (ounces)

Province	Quantity
Hunan.....	57,740
Szechwan.....	31,400
Sikang.....	18,500
Kweichow.....	1,550
Yunnan.....	1,500
Kwantung.....	6,400
Kwangsi.....	5,980
Fukien.....	100
Kiangsi.....	3,200
Chinghai.....	5,670
Kansu.....	4,000
Sinkiang.....	15,000
Shantung.....	27,500
Hopei.....	13,000
Shensi, Honan, Hupeh, Chekiang.....	1,000
The Northeastern Provinces.....	120,000
Taiwan.....	10,000
TOTAL.....	322,540

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

TABLE 13—ESTIMATED RESERVE OF PURE COPPER (metric tons)

Province	Tons
Yunnan.....	270,490
Sikang.....	260,800
Szechwan.....	27,500
Kweichow.....	178,000
Hupeh.....	18,000
Shansi.....	4,000
Shensi.....	3,780
Liaoning, Liaopei, Antung.....	4,800
Taiwan.....	427,000
Other Provinces.....	200,000
TOTAL.....	1,394,370

SOURCE: National Geological Survey of China.

TABLE 14—ESTIMATED ALUM RESERVE (metric tons)

Locality	Aluminate Reserve	Content of Alumite	Alumite Reserve	Content of Alum	Alum Reserve
Pingyang, Chekiang.....	552,752,000	30-60%	236,543,000	74%	175,042,000
Lukiang, Anhwei.....	47,610,000	26-38%	13,893,000	3.33%	4,626,000
Wuwei, Anhwei.....	43,520,000	60%	26,112,000	74%	19,313,000
TOTAL.....	643,882,000		276,548,000		198,981,000

SOURCE: National Geological Survey of China

TABLE 15—ESTIMATED BAUXITE RESERVE (metric tons)

Province	Ore	Tons	Content	
			Al ₂ O ₃	SiO ₂
Shantung.....	Bauxite	68,000,000	51.66%	29.67%
Kweichow.....	Bauxite	44,616,000	47.77%	33.22%
Yunnan.....	Bauxite	..	64.79%	7.90%
Hopei.....	Aluminum Shale
Yentai, Liaoning.....	Bauxite	1,651,000	44.48%	30.95%
	Aluminum Shale
Penshi, Liaoning.....	Shale	..	40%	..
Fuhsien, Liaoning.....	Bauxite	28,000,000	36.50%	46.24%
TOTAL.....		142,267,000

SOURCE: National Geological Survey of China

NICKEL

Sikang has two good reserves of nickel. One is at Hweili which is estimated at 70,000 m. tons. Another reserve lies at Tienchuan with an estimated 270,000 m. tons.

ARSENIC

Arsenic oxide is obtained by oxidizing the arseno-pyrite which occurs in association with iron pyrite in southern Honan. Realgar and orpiment are worked in Yunnan and western Hunan. Kwangsi also produces arsenic oxide. In 1935, southern Hunan produced 820 m. tons of arsenic oxide, Yunnan produced 341 m. tons of realgar and orpiment, and Kwangsi produced 15 m. tons of arsenic oxide.

BISMUTH

Bismuth ore is found usually as an accessory mineral with tungsten, hence it is worked and mined together with

tungsten. The leading producing centers are Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kwangtung and Hunan. A total of 130 m. tons of bismuth was produced in 1931—a peak year. Production dropped to 73 m. tons in 1934.

SALT

Salt is produced in most provinces in China. The average annual production is about 3,220,000 tons, 85% of which is produced from sea water in the coastal provinces; 6% from rock salt and salt wells in Szechwan, Yunnan, Hunan and Hupeh; 4% from salt lakes in Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Ningsia and Sinkiang; and 5% along the Yellow river in Honan and Hopei. Annual production of salt in China is shown in Table 16.

GYPSUM

Gypsum is found in nearly every province in China. The main reserves are found in the northwestern provinces of

Sinkiang, Ningsia, Chinghai, Kansu and Shensi. Important findings have also been reported from Hupeh, Hunan, Szechwan, Kiangsi, Kweichow and Yunnan. The average annual production of gypsum in China is about 80,000 m. tons with Hupeh leading with an annual average of 58,000 m. tons.

The National Geological Survey of China reported that of the 611-million m. tons of gypsum reserves in the country, Kansu accounts for 500-million and Sinkiang 111-million m. tons.

SALTPETER

Most of China's saltpeter is produced in Hopei, Kiangsu, Honan, Shantung, Kwangtung and Hunan. Chinghai has a rich reserve of Chile saltpeter.

Annual production of 6,420 m. tons of saltpeter, according to the National Geological Survey of China, originates from Hopei (1,200 m. tons), Honan (800), Hunan (500), Shantung (500), Kiangsu (500), Szechwan (330), Heilungkang (300), Fukien (300), Shansi (240), Kwangtung (500), Liaoning (350), Hupeh (200), Kweichow (100), Shensi (100), other provinces (500).

PHOSPHORUS

China has an abundant phosphorus reserve, according to recent studies. Yunnan and Kiangsu have the largest reserves. The Yunnan reserves, centered around Kunming, are estimated at 50-million m. tons, with a phosphorus content of 15.53 to 42%. The Kiangsu reserves are centered around Tunghai and are estimated

at 2-million m. tons. Bird droppings on the Paracel Island off the Kwangtung coast provide an estimated reserve of 200,000 m. tons of phosphorus.

SULPHUR

With the exception of some natural sulphur reserves in Chinghai, Jehol and Ningsia, China's sulphur is mainly produced from pyrites, which occur in every province either in coal seams or in association with the sulphide ores of lead and zinc. The total national reserve is estimated at 80-million m. tons. Calculated at an average sulphur content of 20%, the potential yield is 16-million m. tons of pure sulphur.

POTASSIUM

Potassium is produced in China together with salt and gypsum. Salt waters from the salt wells at Tzeliuching in Szechwan contain 1.5-3.7% of potassium. An annual average of 2,700 m. tons of potassium can be produced from the Tzeliuching wells. Rich potassium contents can also be found in the salt lakes in the northwestern provinces.

GRAPHITE

Graphite is found in several provinces, including Hunan, Honan, Suiyuan, Kiangsi, Szechwan and Kiangsu. The Suiyuan reserves total 10-million m. tons. Honan has an estimated graphite reserve of 5,400,000 m. tons. Hunan now produces about 150 m. tons of graphite each year. Before the war, Hsiashu, near Nan-

TABLE 16—ANNUAL SALT PRODUCTION (Piculs*)

Area	Production
Tunghai, Kiangsu.....	7,650,000
Shantung.....	8,000,000
Hopei.....	4,400,000
Shansi.....	1,200,000
Inner Mongolia.....	200,000
Ningsia and Suiyuan.....	182,000
Liaoning.....	6,000,000
Port Arthur and Dairen.....	6,000,000
Northern Kiangsu.....	620,000
Chekiang.....	4,200,000
Szechwan.....	7,000,000
Kwangtung-Fukien.....	5,000,000
TOTAL.....	50,452,000

* 1 picul equals 110 pounds

SOURCE: Ministry of Economic Affairs

king, produced 1,500 to 2,000 m. tons of graphite each year.

MICA

The best mica reserves in China are found in Sikiang, Suiyuan and Honan. Mica crystals found in these provinces average 30 cm. in diameter. Hopei and Sinkiang also have good mica reserves.

PLATINUM

Platinum reserves have been reported in southern Shensi recently. They are found together with gold sand in river sand bars.

FLUORSPAR

Fluorspar is mainly produced in the province of Chekiang where the total reserve is estimated at 400,000 m. tons. The prewar annual production of fluorspar in Chekiang was from 7,000 to 8,000 m. tons. Hunan, Honan, Shantung, Liaoning, Shansi and Szechwan also produce fluorspar. The Szechwan production reached 10,000 m. tons a year before the war.

TALC

Talc has been mined in Liaoning for a number of years. In 1933 the production was 60,000 m. tons. Shantung also produces talc to the amount of 1,000 m. tons a year.

CLAY

Clay is chiefly worked for the pottery or porcelain industry. Kiangsi annually produces about 150,000 m. tons of clay to meet the needs of the porcelain industry there. Hopei produces 200,000 m. tons, Shantung 80,000 m. tons and Kiangsu 60,000 m. tons a year for pottery making. Szechwan produces a considerable amount. Keichow, Sikang and Yunnan also produce clay for pottery-making. Fireclay is produced in Szechwan.

ASBESTOS

Asbestos is found in many provinces. Liaoning and Hopei produce asbestos in good quantities. Sikang, Kwangsi and Hunnan also produce asbestos. The Sikang reserve has fibers six inches long. It is one of the leading asbestos reserves in China.

LIMESTONE

Limestone is mined for the making of lime and cement and is produced in all provinces. But the production is rather scattered. Total national production is estimated at 5-million m. tons. Of the southwestern provinces, Szechwan produces 150,000 m. tons, Yunnan 50,000 m. tons and Kweichow 30,000 m. tons a year.

THORIUM AND URANIUM

Thorium and uranium ore has been discovered recently by the National Resources Commission's experts in Hohsien, Fuchuan and Chungshan in Kwangsi province. According to recent studies, the thorium content of the ore is 0.158%, while the uranium content is 0.6%. As these two rare minerals are of supreme importance to national defense, the *Regulations Concerning the Control of Thorium and Uranium Ores* were promulgated in March, 1948, by the Executive Yuan. The uranium and thorium ores are designated as national reserves, hence private prospecting and exploitation of the said minerals are forbidden.

PRECIOUS STONES

Southwest China is famous for its production of precious stones. Emeralds, amber, agates, rubies and sapphires are found in Yunnan. Sikang and Sinkiang are famous for jade production.

MINING LAW

The Chinese *Mining Law* as promulgated on May 26, 1930, was revised for the sixth time on June 8, 1944. Highlights of the law are:

1. Mining rights within the Republic of China belong to the government. No prospecting for or exploitation of any mineral is allowed except when such rights are given by the government according to law.

2. All citizens of the Republic of China have the right to mine for minerals except in national mining districts and national reserves.

3. Foreign capital may be admitted in a mining company with the approval of the Executive Yuan through the Ministry of Economic Affairs, subject to the following conditions: a. The Chinese capital of the company shall be more than half of the total; and b. More than half of the board directors and the managers of the company shall be Chinese

citizens. These rulings are applicable to private mining industries as well as to those belonging to the central or local governments.

4. Iron, mineral oil, copper and coal reserves fit for the manufacturing of coke and liquid fuel shall be prospected and exploited by the government. They may be leased to private enterprises (limited to citizens of the Republic of China) when it is not necessary for the government to undertake such prospecting and exploitation. The government has priority in the purchase of iron ore, mineral oil and copper ore products. Any ex-

ploitation of such minerals shall require the sanction of the authorities. The Ministry of Economic Affairs shall determine the standard of coal deposits fit for the manufacture of coke and liquid fuel.

5. Iron, mineral oil, coal deposits fit for the manufacture of coke and liquid fuel, tungsten, manganese, aluminum, apatite, molybdenum, tin, mercury, bismuth and other ores specified by the Executive Yuan at the request of the Ministry of Economic Affairs may, when necessary, be designated as national reserves and private prospecting and exploitation of the said minerals shall be forbidden.

CHAPTER 16

WATER CONSERVANCY

ADMINISTRATION

China has had a centralized administration in charge of water conservancy for less than a decade. The first national organ, known as the National Water Conservancy Commission, was created under the Executive Yuan in September, 1941. In July, 1946, it became one of the Executive Yuan's component units and in May, 1947, it was made a full-fledged Ministry of Water Conservancy. But in March, 1949, it was abolished and its functions were transferred to the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

The Ministry supervised all conservancy projects that were national in character and assisted in the execution of those undertaken by local authorities. Its primary purpose was: (1) to regulate river courses and erect dikes to minimize dangers of flood and similar catastrophes; (2) to improve and develop irrigation canals in order to increase agricultural production; (3) to maintain navigable waterways in serviceable condition so as to facilitate river transportation, and (4) to develop hydraulic engineering for industrial advancement. Special emphasis has been given to farmland irrigation and flood prevention.

CONSERVANCY AGENCIES

Directly under the Ministry of Water Conservancy at the end of 1947 were 11 regional conservancy agencies. Ten of them had been operative prior to the establishment of the Ministry. They were: The Hwai River Conservancy Bureau, Yellow River Conservancy Bureau, Yangtze River Conservancy Bureau, North China Conservancy Bureau, Pearl River Conservancy Bureau, Kiang-Han Engineering Bureau, King-Lo Irrigation Engineering Bureau, National Hydraulic Research Institute, Model Hydraulic Engineering Office, and Hai River Conservancy Bureau. The Northeast Conservancy Bureau was set up in September, 1947.

In addition, the Ministry of Water Conservancy had under it three irrigation engineering corps, namely, the Sinkiang Irrigation Surveying Corps, the Kansu Hosi (west of the Yellow river) Irrigation Corps and the Suiyuan Irrigation Corps, and 469 hydrometric surveying stations of which 202 were set up in 1947.

Regional administration of water conservancy enterprises varied from province to province. At the end of 1947, Hunan, Kwangtung and Jehol delegated such authority to their reconstruction departments while 23 other provinces each had a special organ to look after their water conservation affairs—a water conservancy bureau or its equivalent. These provinces were Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hupoh, Szechwan, Sikang, Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Ningsia, Fukien, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Kweichow, Chahar, Suiyuan, Sinkiang, and Taiwan. Chekiang and Kiangsu each had an additional conservation organ to carry out special projects: the Northern Kiangsu Grand Canal Engineering Office and the Chientang River Engineering Bureau. In the case of the Nine Northeastern Provinces there were no water conservancy offices for the individual provinces. All such projects in that region came under the Northeast Water Conservancy Bureau.

For 1948, loans from the Farmers' Bank of China, amounting to CN\$750-billion were to finance 28 large irrigation projects in 14 provinces which, when completed, would benefit a combined acreage of 3,668,530 *mow*.

FARMLAND IRRIGATION

Farmland irrigation projects are generally financed either by appropriations from the National Government or loans from banks. The Ministry of Water Conservancy in charge of all large projects including the construction of canals, whereas minor projects such as the digging of wells and re-dredging work were

often left to the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

LOAN-FINANCED PROJECTS

The government embarked upon its loan-financed, large-scale irrigation projects in 1941 to boost the country's food production. The loans were extended through the Farmers' Bank of China. By the end of 1947 such loans had benefitted 18 provinces through the completion of 91 irrigation works capable of watering an aggregate area of 2,859,137 *mow*, which can yield 4,170,000 more piculs of grain each year. Fifteen of these projects, notably the Lohui Canal Project in Shensi, were completed in 1947 through loans totalling CNC\$361,876,936, benefitting 1,327,066 *mow* of land. The 18 provinces were Szechwan, Sikang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Hunan, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Fukien, Hupeh, Hunan, Anhwei, Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai, and Suiyuan.

FUND-FINANCED PROJECTS

Since the need for farmland irrigation could but partly be met by loans from the Farmers' Bank of China, the Government in 1947 set aside CNC\$20-billion as a Farmland Irrigation Fund. Allocations were to be made out of this fund during that year to construct 16 new projects in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangsi, Shantung, Honan, Kansu, Suiyuan and

Shansi, in addition to financing five unfinished works in Honan, Shensi and Kansu. The acreage of land thus to be benefitted was estimated at 6,095,130 *mow*.

For the first half of 1948, the Government earmarked CNC\$100-billion for 15 irrigation projects in eight provinces, either already under construction or to be initiated. Periods of completion of these projects ranged from five months to two and a half years. As a result, it was expected that 4,992,652 *mow* of land benefitted would yield 2,212,280 piculs of grain and 7,500 piculs of cotton.

THE LOHUI CANAL PROJECT

Of the 91 irrigation jobs completed up to the end of 1947, the Lohui Canal Project represented the largest and most difficult of its kind ever attempted in modern China. The project, which involved the excavation of five tunnels and the building of two dams, took 14 years to build (1934 to 1947).

The canal was completed in September, 1947, and was formally opened for irrigation purposes on December 12, when water from the Lo river was diverted to irrigate 500,000 *mow* (83,000 acres) of farmland in southeastern Shensi. It is 96 km. in length and has six branches, traversing the counties of Tali, Chaoyi and Pucheng, northeast of Sian in the area where the Lo river empties into the Yellow river. The soil thus enriched is

TABLE 1—LOAN-FINANCED, LARGE IRRIGATION PROJECTS COMPLETED IN 1947

Province	Location	Name of Project	Area Irrigated (<i>mow</i>)	Yield in Piculs
Szechwan	Hwayang	Shahopao	16,000	24,000
	Kuanhsien	Tukiangyen	8,000	12,000
	Santai	Tawei Dam	13,000	19,500
Kweichow	Huishui	Lienkiang	25,200	37,800
	Kweicho	Chungtsaoussu	4,600	6,900
Kwangtung	Waiyang	Maanwei	150,000	225,000
	Kukong	Fengwanshui	6,100	9,150
Kwangsi	Linchwan	Kantangkiang	14,556	21,834
Honan	Tenghsien	Chwanhui Canal	153,610	230,415
Shensi	Tali	Lohui Canal	500,000	750,000
	Yenyang	Lihui Canal	230,000	345,000
	Panhsin	Laohui Canal	100,000	150,000
Kansu	Yungtsing	Yungfeng Canal	23,000	34,500
	Kinta	Sufeng Canal	70,000	105,000
	Kiuchuan			
Chinghai	Huchu	Tsaochiapao	13,000	19,500
TOTAL		15 Projects	1,327,066	1,990,599

SOURCE: Ministry of Water Conservancy

Estimate

Province	Location	Name of Project	Area to be Irrigated (mow)	Loan Allocations*	
				1st Half of 1948 in Millions	2nd Half of 1948 in Millions
Kwangsi.....	Lohsien	Shihlihuo	32,950	CNC\$ 10,000	CNC\$..
Kwangtung.....	Siujen	Huangtungho	10,300	9,200	..
	Toishan	Hsuantanpo	6,800	10,000	5,900
Fukien.....	Tsungfa	Wenchuanpi	75,000	..	100,000
	Hweian	Linwanghsi	66,000	34,000	..
	Futsing	Tienpaopo	15,000	6,000	..
	Ningteh	Hsiptang	10,000	4,000	..
	Changting	Chotienhsiang	3,400	2,200	..
Chekiang.....	Kinhwa	Huhaitang	20,000	12,000	9,800
	Fuyang	Chengpei	40,000	4,800	17,700
	Chuhsien	Huanglingchwan	7,000	1,800	5,180
	Yuyao	Moshanhu	7,000	1,800	..
	Changching	Taihu Causeway	100,000	5,000	..
	Hangchow	Zakow Pump Station	100,000	6,000	9,000
Kiangsi.....	Anfu	Anfu Canal	13,000	20,000	12,000
Hupeh.....	Wuchang	Chinshui Farm	31,000	9,600	18,400
	Lichwan	Tatang	17,000	1,200	2,300
Kiangsu.....	Wukiang	Pangshanhu	8,000	9,000	..
Shensi.....	Lunghsien	Hsinghui Canal	30,000	34,000	32,000
	Nancheng	Lenghui Canal	40,900	40,000	..
	Shantan	Water Diversion	20,000	23,100	..
	Yungtsing	Yunglo Canal	46,000	23,000	77,800
Ningsia.....	Kingta	Sufeng Canal (2nd Stage)	100,000	24,000	..
Suiyuan.....		Annual Repairs	1,886,480	9,600	..
Chahar.....		Annual Repairs	670,000	36,000	..
Chinghai.....		Lingcan Canal	220,000	7,200	..
Szechwan	Sining	Liangtanho and other unfinished projects	19,000	..	48,000
			89,000	..	37,000
TOTAL.....		28 Projects	3,683,830	CNC\$343,500—Million	CNC\$385,080—Million

* The loan allocations, aggregating CNC\$750-billion, include CNC\$343,500-million for the first half of 1948 and CNC\$385,080-million for the second half of 1948 as well as CNC\$21,420-million as a reserve fund. The total amount was to be granted through the Farmers' Bank of China.

SOURCE: Ministry of Water Conservancy

expected to bring an annual yield of 100,-000 piculs of wheat, 75,000 piculs of beans and 75,000 piculs of cotton, which will more than pay off the canal's construction cost of \$3,015,000 (at its prewar value) in government appropriations.

The Lo river, about 450 km. long, rises in northwest Shensi, coming down the loess-covered hills to the alluvial plain, is heavily laden with silt. Its irrigation value is negligible until it reaches the border line of Pucheng and Tengcheng in south-eastern Shensi where it is no longer confined in the rocky mountains. At Lao-chuang, in the county of Tengcheng both its banks and bed are limestone, suitable for the construction of a spillway dam to divert water for irrigation purposes. The idea was evolved by Li Yi-chih, China's foremost hydraulic engineer, who thereupon blueprinted the Lohui Canal but did not live to see it realized. He died in 1937.

The Lohui canal project in its final form comprises an arc-shaped dam, 16.20 m. high and 177 m. long, built of concrete and loose rocks; a small dam which directs water into the canal and a regulator which diverts into six other channels in order to drain more land than a single waterway can possibly service. Near the dam is an escape-sludge which returns the excessive water during flood season to the Lo river.

Between Laochuang, where the spillway dam is located, and the diversion regulator, where the six branches leave the canal, there is a distance of some 20 km. through the Tienlien mountains. To permit the water to flow through, five tunnels were dug through the cliffs. The fifth tunnel, 3,377 m. in length is the longest of its kind in China. Its excavation took 11 years and 51 lives, including that of an engineer. The tunnel was chiseled through a mountain abundant in shifting sand and subterranean rivers which caused cave-ins.

Work on the tunnel began in February, 1935. Throughout the war, even when the Japanese were only a few miles away across the Yellow river, work went on. It was finally completed in November, 1946.

FLOOD CONTROL

China's recurring floods are reminders of the magnitude of control measures necessary to preserve large areas of fertile farmland for cultivation. In the immediate postwar period, China, with material and technical aid from UNRRA, began the repairing of dikes and conservancy

projects, many of which were either damaged or had fallen into disrepair due to wartime neglect.

By the end of 1947, a total of 11 flood prevention projects sponsored by the Ministry of Water Conservancy were in various stages of progress, some nearing completion. The Yellow River Project received the highest priority and was almost completed. The project was expected to effect the reclamation of some 12-million *mu* of farmland. The other projects concerned primarily repairs on dikes along the Yangtze and Pearl rivers and the Grand Canal, the total drainage area of which is approximately eight and one-half times that of the Yellow river flooded area with a production capacity ten times as great.

Supplementary statistics made available late in August, 1948, by the Ministry of Water Conservancy indicated that the flood prevention projects had made considerable headway during the first six months of the year. Earthwork and stonework completed up till June were given as 4,851,878.89 and 15,335.13 cu.m., respectively. The projects covered the main waterways of the country including the Yangtze, Yellow, Pearl, Hwai and Pai rivers and the Grand Canal as well as nine small rivers in Kiangsu.

THE YELLOW RIVER PROGRAM

The Yellow river (Hwang Ho) diversion and dike repair project marked one of the largest and most difficult engineering feats ever undertaken in China.

The Hwang Ho has been called the most fascinating and baffling of the world's great rivers—fascinating because of its complexities; baffling because many of its vagaries have not yet been understood and conquered.

In forcing the river to return to its prewar course, a mile-long dike had to be built and 1,300 km. of double dikes stretching from Kaifeng, Honan, to the sea had to be repaired.

This project, which received major UNRRA and CNRRA contributions in money, food, machinery and skill, was carried out by the Yellow River Conservancy Commission of the Ministry of Water Conservancy.

(a) SEALING OF THE GAP

Since ancient times the Yellow river has changed its course nine times and dike breaches have occurred 2,000 times, averaging once every two years. Attempts to seal the dike breaches had been made before, but none had proved so difficult as the project that centered around the

TABLE 3—ALLOCATIONS OF THE FARMLAND IRRIGATION FUND FOR THE FIRST HALF OF 1948

Province	Location	Name of Project	Area Irrigated (mow)	Period of Completion	Production Increase (piculs)			Allocations in Millions
					Rice	Wheat	Misc. Products	
Fukien Shantung Suiyuan	Changlo	Lienpin Harbor	36,000	5 months	76,000			CNC\$ 8,400
	Changkiu	Hsiuhui Canal	45,122	9 months	..	20,000	5,000	6,274
	Rear of Yellow River	Yangchiaho	1,120,700	2½ years	..	1,197,000	..	29,280
	Yellow River Bend	Yungtsi Canal	1,044,000		..			
Shensi	Chengku	Fuhsing Canal	812,000					
	Tali	Yiho Canal	628,000					
	Chengku	Suhui Canal	162,630	5 months	340,000			8,000
Kansu	Tsingyuan	Lohui Canal	500,000	6 months	100,000	75,000	7,500*	6,000
		Tsinglo (Yuansheng) Canal	20,000	6 months	..	20,000	..	1,526
	Kulang	Liutiaofo	15,000	1 year	..	11,280	..	13,520
Chahar	Hwaining	Tungyangho	230,000	2 years	345,000	10,000
Kiangsu	Kiangning	Yungfeng Dam	5,000	7 months	2,500	11,000
Shansi	Central Part	Old Canals Repairs	259,200	6 months	5,000
Yunnan	Kunning	Huangtupo	10,000	6 months	15,000	1,000
		Chenchiyung	5,000	6 months	10,000
TOTAL		15 Projects	4,992,652		888,500	1,323,280	12,500	CNC\$100-billion

REMARKS: Some of the listed projects were old or unfinished.

* In terms of cotton.

SOURCE: Ministry of Water Conservancy.

main break at Huayuankou, an important ferry crossing in Honan.

It was undertaken at a time when the river had continued on the same course for eight years and its continued southward push had poised a threat to areas above the Yangtze river.

The 5,000-foot break in the dike south of the Yellow river was made in June, 1938, to check the Japanese advance on Kaifeng, Honan's provincial capital. The cut was made ten miles downstream from the Peiping-Hankow railway bridge.

This diversion of the river brought floods to eastern Honan, northern Anhwei and northern Kiangsu, with results as follows:

Persons displaced	6,135,000
Areas under water	29,000 sq. km.
Area of farmland affected	11,800 sq. km.
Loss of crops per year	1,492,500 tons
(including 1,470,000 tons of grain and 22,500 tons of cotton)	

Moreover, the waterway system in eastern Honan, northern Anhwei and northern Kiangsu was disrupted and, during the high-water season, the Tientsin-Pukow railway and the Lunghai line were frequently interrupted.

Work on the gap-sealing project began on March 1, 1946, under the auspices of the Yellow River Conservancy Commission and CNRRA's Honan regional office with the assistance of 15 foreign experts from UNRRA, headed by Oliver J. Todd, American engineering expert and a veteran of 20 years of experience in China. Foreign personnel also included Soviet, Norwegian, Dutch and other nationalities. Labor was recruited under an arrangement that provided both relief and employment.

The Huayuankou breach, increasingly widened through the years, measured 1,460 m. in length when the closure project began. The river bed was 18 m. deep. To return the river to its original course, it was necessary to raise the water mark by more than three meters.

After repeated attempts to stem the rushing current through the erection of dams had failed, it was decided to discard the orthodox scientific methods and resort to the old Chinese way of holding back the river waters by blocking them. Instead of iron and cement, kaoliang (sorghum) stalks, willow branches and stones were used in the building of new dams. At first, the water ran through the open construction but the silt and sand borne by the current soon stopped the openings. The faster the water flowed, the more sand was deposited. Thereupon, the stones were cast in. And the dams held.

Finally on March 15, 1947, the breach at Huayuankou was sealed with a great waterproof dam 250 feet in width.

Into the creation of this massive wall went 3,800,000 man-days of work; 5,000 tons of UNRRA flour, for partial payment of workers; 2,750,000 cu. m. of earthwork; 430,000 piculs of kaoliang stalks; 1,050,000 piculs of willow branches; 60 tons of galvanized iron wire; 100 tons of locally-made hemp rope; 2,500,000 sand bags; 150,000 cu. m. of rock from quarries 75 km. from the project. In addition, huge appropriations were made by the Chinese Government for administrative expenses and for the purchase of local materials including foodstuffs.

Heavy machinery from the U. S. supplied by UNRRA included pile drivers and timber piles; road rollers and graders; power shovels; cranes; bulldozers; a large fleet of CNRRA highway transport trucks and a light railway system with a gasoline locomotive for moving rock to the closure site. The modern mechanical aids were supplemented by tens of thousands of wheelbarrows, ox carts, donkey carts and men with carrying poles and baskets engaged in moving the vast quantities of earth, rock, kaoliang and willow stalks and other materials.

(b) DIKE REPAIR

Dike repair, which constituted the secondary phase of the general Yellow river program, proved no less difficult and hazardous. Military and political obstacles, which adversely affected the work in government territory, where operations could be concentrated, became more formidable along dikes below Huayuankou. Shantung was almost inaccessible to engineers of the Yellow River Conservancy Commission, since the communists claimed the right to handle all dike-repairing work in areas under their military control.

After a series of conferences, an agreement was reached on May 15, 1946, whereby rebuilding of the dikes in communist-held areas was to be affected by the communists themselves with funds to be appropriated by the National Government. The communists obtained additional funds from the government which they declared would be used to resettle farmers who had been living in the old river bed following the 1938 diversion. All this money was appropriated to them through UNRRA.

Repair work on the 1,400-km. dike of the Yellow river finally got under way in April, 1946, centering at first around the 65-km. segment in Honan which had fallen into serious disrepair. Communists reneging on their pledge, however, caused

TABLE 4—FLOOD PREVENTION PROJECTS
(January-June, 1948)

River	Location of Project	Kind of Work	Work Completed (cubic meter)
Pai River.....	Luan River, Tzeva River, Lower Course of South Grand Canal, Nantawei Embankment (Tientsin) Main Course and Tributaries	Earth	218,685.34
Hwai River.....		Stone	3,300.00
		Earth	1,154,007.00
		Stone	11,247.00
Pearl River.....	East, West and North Rivers, Han River.....	Earth	508,686.61
		Stone	2,161.90
Grand Canal (south Shantung).....	Shifu, South Shantung	Earth	205,102.00
Kiang-Han Main Dike.....	Hupei	Earth	377,070.58
Yangtze River.....	Anhui-Kiangsi-Hunan Area	Earth	786,830.00
Yellow River.....	Honan-Shantung Area	Earth	34,374.94
	Shantung	Stone	788.13
Liao River.....	Main Course and Tributaries	Earth	144,162.80
Fangting River.....	Pih sien, Kiangsu	Earth	122,476.49
Pulao River.....	Pih sien, Kiangsu	Earth	16,761.94
Kuankou River.....	Tungshanhsien, Kiangsu	Earth	75,628.57
Yen River.....	Peih sien, Kiangsu	Earth	172,503.73
Kuei River.....	Hsuehow, Tungshanhsien, Hsiaohsien, Kiangsu	Earth	365,354.10
Grand Canal (middle).....	Tanshanti, Tayushu, Kiangsu	Earth	282,632.58
Hsiangwei River, Puyang River.....	Changwan and Tatun, Kiangsu	Earth	230,370.30
Shanhou River.....	Shallow Part of Shanhou River, Kiangsu	Earth	122,614.68
Mo River.....	Sutsien Hsien, Kiangsu	Earth	34,597.23
TOTAL OF EARTHWORK COMPLETED.....	4,851,878.89 cubic meters	4,869,375.92
TOTAL OF STONEWORK COMPLETED.....	17,497.03 cubic meters	

Source: Ministry of Water Conservancy.

numerous delays and setbacks in the repair program, and the situation at times became desperate as government technical personnel and workers operating near communist-held territory were frequently molested. The work score at the end of 1946 was 15,615,829 cu. m. of earthwork finished.

The general pace of dike repair slowed down considerably during 1947 owing to the breakdown of peace negotiations between the government and the communists and the spreading of the latter's armed rebellion. In March, control of the north bank of the Yellow river embankment in Honan passed to the communists. The loss was somewhat offset by the government's recapture of the river's south bank in western Shantung which enabled repairs on 113 km. of dikes between Chukou and Shihlipao.

The repairing was further impeded in July when the communists crossed the river from western Shantung. Many government-appointed engineering personnel were attacked, abducted or killed. In August the communists at Sushih and Tahan in northern Honan deliberately breached the dikes at Hsinho, thereby precipitating a serious flood.

The problem of repairing dikes at the lower reaches plagued government and UNRRA engineers alike throughout the Yellow river project. Surveyors were not able to complete what they had begun and the conclusion of the dike repairs in Shantung had to be left largely to local organizations. Despite military and political troubles, the dikes were restored by the end of July, 1947. On August 21 an aerial survey by Mr. Oliver J. Todd of the UNRRA engineers' group showed that no breaks had occurred in the system and final investigations in late October showed that the dike repair work along the full length of the river had proven satisfactory.

The picture had become considerably blurred by December, however, with the whole of western Shantung and eastern Honan engulfed in the rebellion and the government evacuation of the Yellow river positions all the way from Lanfeng in Honan down to western Shantung.

As of the end of 1947, repairs scheduled for the year on the south bank of the Yellow river in Honan and Hopei and the Tsiho-Tsinan section in central Shantung had practically all been carried out, covering a total distance of 488 km. Repair projects partially completed included the 113-km. Chukou-Shihlipao section on the south bank in western Shantung and another 95 km. of dikes repaired by the local people themselves.

THE YANGTZE RIVER PROJECT

The dikes along the Yangtze river stretch for more than 1,800 km. from Shasi in Hupeh down to Chinkiang in Kiangsu, while those along its tributaries, the Han and Kan rivers and Poyang lake, extend for more than 1,900 km. Farming along the Yangtze and its tributaries depends on the upkeep of these dikes, which protect an estimated 46-million *mow* of cultivated land. At many places, the farms are from six to 18 feet below the adjacent rivers at time of high water. At the end of the war, many sections of these dikes were found to be badly in need of repair. A repair program was worked out by the former National Conservancy Commission and launched in April, 1946, with UNRRA's assistance. The total earthwork and stonework required for the project were estimated to be 78-million and 48,000 cu. m., respectively, apart from 70,700 tons of foodstuffs for the laborers to be employed. By the end of 1947, 14,167,519 cu. m. of earthwork and 48,126 cu. m. of stonework had been moved, and 37,828 tons of foodstuffs had been used by 20-million workers.

THE HWAI RIVER PROJECT

Also started in April, 1946, was the repair project on the Hwai river dikes, which stretch for about 1,100 km. from Hunghokow in Honan down to Shuangkowchen in Anhwei and protect 21-million *mow* of farmlands in the latter province. However, beyond some minor earthwork, little was accomplished in that year because Yellow river waters, still crossing the path of the Hwai river, so raised the latter's level that work along the banks was impossible. When the south dike of the Yellow river was cut in 1938, its waters flowed through the Sha Ho and minor tributaries into the Hwai river. Since the capacity of the Hwai river is considerably smaller than that of the Yellow river and its bed is not wide enough to carry the Yellow river water in addition to its own, its dikes between the Sha Ho and Hungtze lake gave way. Water flowing through the gaps inundated an area of 2,000 sq. km.

Large-scale dike operations along the Hwai river did not start until after the closure of the Huayuankou gap in the Yellow river dike. By the end of 1947, in little more than ten months, 15,314,045 cu. m. of earthwork had been moved which involved a labor force of 7,965,766 persons and 24,100 tons of food consumed.

This represented a 90% completion of the repair program which had benefitted

3-million inhabitants in the Hwai river valley in Anhwei, by restoring to them at least 1,000 sq. km. of farmland. Apart from the repairing and construction of dikes, several slit banks were excavated to improve navigation. Certain parts of the newly built dikes were reinforced by stone.

The Hwai river has its source in Shensi, becomes navigable by heavy-laden junks at its confluence with the Sha Ho in Anhwei, and ends its 600-km. course in Hungtze lake. The lake is one of the larger natural water reservoirs in central China, from whence a small part of its water flows into the East China Sea and the rest through a system of lakes and laterals into the Yangtze river, near Chinkiang.

THE PEARL RIVER PROJECT

The low-lying Pearl river delta depends on dikes for its protection. During the Sino-Japanese war, these dikes fell into disrepair, causing a large acreage of farmland to be flooded. A postwar project covering the East, West and North rivers, all tributaries of the Pearl and the Han rivers in eastern Kwangtung called for the repairing of 257 out of 1,009 km. of dikes in order to protect 10-million *mow* of cultivated lands. It was estimated that 24,140,000 cu. m. of earthwork and 6,700 cu. m. of stonework would be necessary. Actual repairing work was commenced in March, 1946, and progressed well till May and June when unusually heavy rains caused a number of breaches in dikes that were to be strengthened. (The rehabilitation project for the inundated areas is detailed elsewhere in the chapter.) By the end of 1947, 3,821,158.90 cu. m. of earth and 2,293,106.5 cu. m. of rocks had been moved and 10,190,839 metric tons of foodstuffs consumed by 4,495,860 workers on the project.

THE GRAND CANAL DIKE REPAIR

The Shantung-Kiangsu section of the Grand Canal runs from Tsining in southern Shantung through northern Kiangsu to Chinkiang on the Yangtze. The dikes on both sides of the canal and its tributaries extend for approximately 1,540 km. and protect 44,600,000 *mow* of farmland. During the war this part of the country was under the occupation of the Japanese who did nothing to maintain the dikes. Although the Japanese carried away all steel structures, the locks themselves were in a usable condition. Work on the canal began in May, 1946, but did not really get under way until the spring of 1947

because of communist disturbances in the area. By the end of 1947, 2,292,268 cu. m. of earth and 34,918 cu. m. of stone had been removed and 10,800 tons of foodstuffs used by 5,999,817 workers on the project.

THE PAI RIVER SYSTEM DIKE REPAIR

The Pai River System comprises the Yungting, Taching and Tzeyu rivers and the southern and northern sections of the Grand Canal. There was an aggregate length of 3,395 km. of dikes protecting 55-million *mow* of cultivated land. In view of the disastrous Yungting river flood in 1939, the former National Conservancy Commission had, prior to the return of the government to Nanking in May, 1946, mapped out a repair project for the north China river system to be completed within two years. Work on the project began in June, 1946, but its progress was retarded by frequent communist interference. By the end of 1947, of the originally estimated 6,916,495 cu. m. of earthwork and 4,180 cu. m. of stonework required for the project, only 747,421 cu. m. of earth and 1,083 cu. m. of stone had been moved by 517,037 workers who consumed 971 tons of foodstuffs.

THE LIAO RIVER DIKE REPAIR

The postwar dike repairing project in the Northeastern Provinces primarily concerned the Liao river middle and lower reaches and its tributaries, the Hun, Pu, Taitze and Sha rivers where five breaches were caused by flood waters in July, 1947. At least 2,500,000 *mow* of farmland were under water and property losses were estimated in August to exceed \$300-million in Northeastern Circulation Notes, or CNC\$4,500-billion at the then prevailing rate of exchange.

The Liao river, which is the main stream of Liaoning province, flows through Tiehling onto the plains and fertile lands of the province. Even before the floods came, the area had been but precariously protected by deteriorating, poorly constructed river dikes.

In addition to closing the five gaps, the project called for repairs on 60 sections of the dike with an aggregate length of 3,206 m., dredging of the river over a distance of 1,000 m., and the excavation of 1,785,719 cu. m. of earth. Work began in August, 1947, to be completed within two years, with CNRRA supplying the needed foodstuffs for the workers. By the end of the year construction was under way at 59 places with 491,246 cu. m. of

earth already moved by 201,791 workers on the project, but the work had to be suspended later owing to the spreading of the communist rebellion.

THE KIANGSU SEA WALL PROJECT

The Kiangsu sea wall, extending for 300 km. from Kingshanwei to Fushankou, Changshu, along the Yangtze, was built to protect farmlands from the high tides of the East China Sea. The area protected by this embankment extends to the north of the Yangtze river, south of the Lunghai railway, east of the Grand Canal and west of the East China Sea. In the past, farmlands behind this sea wall were often inundated by the tidal waters. At the end of the war, many sections of this sea wall were in bad shape. A repair project was launched in March, 1946, by the former National Water Conservancy Commission in conjunction with the Kiangsu provincial government.

It was estimated that upon the completion of the project, approximately 8,500 sq. km. of land would have been reclaimed or protected to make possible an annual production of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ million tons of wheat.

The project included (a) a drainage system; (b) a tide protection system; (c) sluices, locks and headgates; (d) pumping stations, and (e) an irrigation system. With Changshu, Sungkiang and Chwansha as bases of operation, the job of repairing the sea wall in the most crucial areas was well under way by the end of 1947 when at least 8,949 cu. m. of masonry and concrete work had been erected.

THE CHIANTANG DIKE PROJECT

Whereas the Yellow river has been called "China's Sorrow," the Chientang river is known as her "Prodigal Son." The Chientang sea wall is 308 km. long, stretching from Kiangshanwei to Hangchow bay. It runs 190 km. along the north bank of the river from Shangssuhsiang of Hangchow to Kingssuniang bridge at Pinghu and 180 km. from Lingpuchen, Hsiaooshan to Tsaowochen, Yuyao. The huge sea wall, built of ashlar stone 1,200 years ago by Prince Chien of the South Sung dynasty, fell into disrepair during the war years.

The Chientang Dike Project was sponsored jointly by the former National Conservancy Commission and the Chekiang Provincial Government, with UNRRA assistance. The objective of the project was to force the waters of the Chientang

river at Hangchow into a narrow, navigable channel and to safeguard the farmland from flood permanently.

During late August and September the tide comes into Hangchow bay with a great rush and is referred to as the "Hangchow Bore." Squeezed into a narrow area and unable to level off, it overflows the dikes, inundating vast areas of fertile land with salt water.

The Chientang Dike Project was launched in February, 1946, and scheduled for completion in 1949. By August, 1946, the first phase had been finished with some 660 m. of brush dike and 200,000 cu. m. of earth set in place to guard the most dangerous gaps in the sea wall. The brush and earth held the full bore.

Unlike the Yellow river diversion which, at its peak, engaged 400,000 laborers, repair of the Chientang dike was largely a mechanical operation. It employed pile drivers, jack hammers, road rollers, cranes, "pony" locomotives, and 200 narrow-gauge miniature railroad cars for hauling stone from the Tang Hill rock quarry, the largest mechanically operated rock quarry in China. At the end of 1947, the quarry was producing about 300 cu. m. of rock daily.

The hauling of rock to provide the amount needed was the main operation through the second phase of the project, which was actively carried through during 1947. By March, 1948, work had started on the third and last phase which involved the erection of a series of spur dikes jutting out from the Chientang sea wall. Instead of fighting the forces of nature, the spur dikes put those forces to work by catching the river's silt and piling it up on the banks, thus forcing the river out into a single well-defined channel away from the sea wall. This would render unnecessary the continuous repair of the sea wall in the future. It would also increase the productivity of areas concerned and develop Hangchow as a seaport.

KWANGTUNG FLOOD REHABILITATION

Following upon the damaging floods in the Pearl river valley in May and June, 1947, which caused many dike breaches and laid waste large tracts of cultivated land, a temporary repair program was launched in August by the Pearl River Conservancy Bureau. It was concluded at the end of December with 595,266 cu. m. of earth and 7,050 cu. m. of stone set in place to afford temporary protection. Meanwhile an overall conservancy project for the flooded area was carried

TABLE 5.—REPAIR OF DIKES ALONG VARIOUS LARGE RIVERS SINCE V-J DAY—(1946-1947)

Name of Project	Length of Main Dike (kilometer)	Area Protected (mow)	Work Completed (cubic meter)	Foodstuffs* (ton)	Funds CNC\$	Laborers
Yellow River Dike Repair	1,459	30,000,000	19,207,575.42 (earth)	23,690	54,838,544.812	9,080,962
Yellow River Gap Closure	43,500,000	2,952,329.64 (earth) 96,335.8 (stone)	5,910	41,348,160,701	3,170,000
Yangtze River Dike Repair (including the Han River)	3,706	46,400,000	26,451,777.00 (earth)	37,828	17,282,080,000	20,000,000
Hwai River Dike Repair	1,084	21,000,000	48,126.00 (stone)	24,000	7,559,007,620	7,965,760
Pearl River Dike Repair (including the Han River)	1,009	10,000,000	15,314,045.00 (earth) 3,821,158.90 (earth)	10,191	4,404,800,000	4,495,760
Grand Canal Dike Repair (Kiangsu and Chekiang)	1,450	44,600,000	29,033.53 (stone) 2,293,106.50 (earth)	10,800	3,328,130,000	5,999,817
Pai River System Gap Closure and Dike Repair (including the Luan River)	3,395	55,000,000	35,769.00 (stone) 747,421.60 (earth)	971	6,412,222,400	517,037
Liao River Gap Closure and Dike Repair ..	1,475	15,778,500	1,083.00 (stone) 491,246.00 (earth)	433	600,936,970**	201,791
Kiangsu-Chekiang Sea Wall Repair	608	13,600,000	13,788 (meters)	8,849	14,600,000,000	..
TOTAL	14,186	279,878,500	71,502,795.39	122,672	149,772,945,533 NE\$600,936,970	50,531,127

* Foodstuffs provided for the labor employed

** In Northeast Circulation Notes (then exchange rate: one to \$15 Chinese National Currency)

SOURCE: Ministry of Water Conservancy.

out. Work was to cover an aggregate dike distance of 60,471 m. in the area of the East, West and North rivers and the Han river. The project was scheduled for completion before the flood season of 1948 to protect a total of 2,514,096 *mow* of farmland.

NORTH KIANGSU FLOOD REHABILITATION

During the years of Japanese occupation, the neglected waterways in northern Kiangsu became unnavigable in many sections due to excessive silting. After V-J Day, government efforts to effect extensive repairs on the Grand Canal dike were hamstrung by communist trouble and local unrest. In the summer of 1947, heavy rainfall and rising waters deluged 17 counties, submerging more than 10-million *mow* of farmland, rendering 5-million people homeless. A rehabilitation project was in progress by December that year.

RIVER IMPROVEMENT SCHEMES*

THE YUNGTING RIVER SCHEME

In September, 1947, China carried out her most important and comprehensive postwar waterway improvement scheme when work began on the construction of the Kuanting detention reservoir in Huailai, Chahar. The reservoir is one of the principal flood control works of the Yungting River Improvement Scheme proposed by the North China River Commission.

To facilitate construction, an 1,800-km. motor road, parallel to the Yungting river, was to be built from Mupao, a station on the Peiping-Suiyuan railway, to Touying on the opposite bank of Kuanting, for the movement of materials and machineries. The project called for the construction of a Yungting river bridge and store houses and the appropriation of land, the first year. It was scheduled to be completed by 1950.

The Yungting river is the largest river in north China and has a catchment basin embracing 45,270 sq. km. In time of flood it has a maximum discharge of more than 5,000 cu. m. per second, which far exceeds its carrying capacity. Detention reservoirs, when constructed in the upper reaches of the river, will smooth out the flood peaks so as to lessen the danger of inundation.

* The realization of most of these schemes has been indefinitely delayed as a result of the communist occupation of vast areas in the north-east, north and central China in 1948-49.

The proposed detention reservoir, to be built across the upper end of a rocky gorge near the village of Kuanting, is shaped like a funnel and commands a wide valley until Kuanting is reached, which resembles the throat of the funnel. The general features of the reservoir comprise a gravity spillway dam across the gorge and a side tunnel through the right cliff serving as the outlet of the reservoir, and also as a stream diversion tunnel during the period of construction. At ordinary floods, the outlet tunnel alone will be quite effective to level the flood peak and to discharge safely below the dam. The spillway will be operative only in time of maximum flood. The reservoir will undoubtedly be subject to some silting since the Yungting river carries an enormous amount of silt in time of flood. However, it will be effective for about 300 years, according to computations based on all available data.

THE YELLOW RIVER SCHEME

By the end of 1947, the improvement scheme for the Yellow river remained in the blueprint stage. Preparatory measures, to be launched in 1948, included the regulation of ditches in the upper Yellow river to reduce the river's silt deposits and to slow down the current, and the construction of a detention reservoir at Palihutung below Tungkwan (east of Kushui and north of Sinan in northwest Honan) to hold the river's discharge at its lower reaches down to 10,000 cu. m. per second. Other important projects in connection with the Yellow river improvement scheme were also to be worked out on the basis of data which a group of conservancy experts had gathered in 1946 from an investigation tour of a number of cities above Kaifeng, including Chengchow, Shenh sien, Lungmen, Ning-sia, Lanchow and Sining.

THE PEARL RIVER SCHEME

A special appropriation was earmarked in 1948 for the completion of the Pearl river improvement scheme, left unfinished at the end of 1947. Meanwhile it was planned to start the dredging of Canton's rear navigation line at Taweisha, Tashih-sha and Yuankangsha in order to make it possible for steamships with a draught of 15 feet to call at Canton at any time of the year. Dredging machines went into operation in April, 1948.

THE HWAI RIVER SCHEME

Work projects on the Hwai river improvement scheme for 1948 included the

repair and construction of the sluices at Hwaiyin in Kiangsu and the movable dams at Sanho in Anhwei. Work was to begin whenever conditions in these regions became stabilized.

Schemes for radical improvement of other rivers such as the Chientang river, the Kan river and the Han river (in Hupeh) were all in a preliminary stage at the end of 1947.

NATIONAL CONSERVANCY RECONSTRUCTION PLANS

Toward the end of the war, the former National Water Conservancy Commission formulated the first five-year plan for water conservancy which was scheduled to begin the second year after V-J Day. Conditions prevailing throughout 1947, however, made it impossible to carry out the project in its original form. Even up to early in 1948, work on the readjustment of navigation routes and establishment of hydraulic power plants were still being conducted piecemeal—a fault to be remedied by the five-year plan which includes the following essential projects:

IRRIGATION PROJECTS

According to preliminary estimates, 90-million *mow* of China's wasteland can be reclaimed into paddy fields, and 160-million *mow* of farmland can be similarly transformed. Under the five-year plan, which proposes to use army and civilian labor in reclamation, a new irrigated area totalling 37,100,000 *mow* can be developed with 10,400,000 *mow* in the Yellow river valley, 37,100,000 *mow* in the Yangtze river valley, 4,200,000 *mow* in the Pai river valley, 700,000 *mow* in the Pearl river valley, 1,100,000 *mow* in Sinkiang, and 2,100,000 in Kansu west of the Yellow river. The order in which these areas are to be developed is as follows:

(a) *The Northwest*—This area, comprising Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai, Suiyuan and Sinkiang, where rainfall is negligible, is to have priority in irrigation projects.

(b) *The North*—This area, comprising Shansi, Hopei, Shantung, Honan and Chahar, where rainfall is also slight, comes second in point of urgency regarding irrigation projects.

(c) *The Southwest*—This area, comprising Szechwan, Sikang, Yunnan and Kweichow, has abundant rainfall but irrigation is necessary during the sowing season.

(d) *The Central Area*—This area, comprising Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsu, Che-

kiang, Anhwei and Kiangsi, like the south mentioned below, has more rainfall than elsewhere, but deficient seasonal precipitation often causes poor crops. Simultaneously with flood prevention projects, irrigation is needed to increase the crops.

(e) *The South*—This area, composed of Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Fukien, has characteristics identical with the central area. Crops could be increased with better irrigation.

(f) *The Northeast*—This area is still to be surveyed and investigated.

READJUSTMENT OF NAVIGATION ROUTES

Under the first five-year water conservancy plan, it is proposed to improve all the waterways in the country, including the Sungari river, Liao river, Pai river, Yellow river, Hwai river, Han river, Yangtze river and Pearl river, in order to make them navigable or suitable for use by ships of larger tonnage. The total length of routes coming under this project is approximately 7,200 km. Efforts are to be made to make tributaries of these rivers navigable.

It is proposed to improve the Grand Canal to make it an effective link between the Pai river, the Yellow river, the Hwai river, the Yangtze river and the Chientang river; open the Sungari-Liao canal; divert part of the Yellow river as a canal leading northward from the vicinity of Chengchow to Tientsin and southward to the Hwai river; lengthen the Ling canal between Hunan and Kwangsi to connect the Yangtze and the Pearl river; and connect other provincial waterways, wherever possible, with a close network linked with the main water routes.

HYDRAULIC POWER PROJECTS

Projects under the five-year plan are to produce in the first year 90,000 kw. of hydraulic power in the Yellow river valley, 479,000 kw. in the Yangtze valley, 81,000 kw. in the Pearl river valley, and 100,000 kw. in Fukien and Chekiang, aggregating 750,000 kw. Completion of these projects is expected to give China a total hydraulic power of 1,270,000 kw.

TECHNICAL SURVEY

The five-year plan calls for 103 first-grade, 814 second-grade and 858 third-grade hydrometric stations along China's main waterways, with four aerial survey stations to supply reliable data concerning water conservancy.

THE YVA PROJECT

COMPLETION OF INITIAL SURVEY AND DRILLING

Initial survey work on the Yangtze Valley Authority (YVA) project which began in July, 1946, following the second visit to China of Dr. John L. Savage, noted American engineer, was completed in June, 1948, despite extreme financial difficulties. Concluded simultaneously was the drilling at Pingshanpa above Ichang, the YVA site, under the supervision of American technicians.

Although temporary suspension of the YVA project was announced by the government in December, 1947, on account of financial difficulties, preliminary planning and work were continued whenever material and personnel were available. The National Resources Commission has been in charge of the project.

The YVA blueprints were prepared by Dr. Savage in September, 1944, when, at the request of the National Government, he made a survey of the hydro-electric potential of the Yangtze. Dr. Savage became convinced that the Yangtze gorges would provide one of the world's best sites for a hydraulic power project.

According to the blueprints of the American engineer, who was loaned to China by the U. S. Bureau of Reclamation, a dam is to be built at Pingshanpa

some ten km. west of Ichang, in western Hupeh. The upper Yangtze watermark is to reach 220 m. and an artificial lake is to be formed from Ichang up to Luhsien, a stretch of 375 km. The drop would be capable of generating 10,500,000 kw. of electricity, or about five times that produced by TVA. The power plant at Ichang would serve cheap power to all towns within a radius of 1,000 km. including Nanking in the east, Taiyuan in the north, Kweiyang and Nanning in the south.

The completion of the YVA project would also facilitate transportation. At present large steamboats can only travel up to Ichang, beyond which there are numerous rapids. If the project is carried through, even 1,000-ton ships will be able to ply up and down the river all the way up to Chungking throughout the year.

As another advantage, the YVA would curtail recurrence of some of China's disastrous floods. Some of the water flowing between Ichang and Luhsien is to be dammed up for reclamation and irrigation purposes, thereby benefiting about 6-million *mu* (1-million acres) of farmland capable of yielding at least US\$37-million worth of crops every year.

It is estimated that around US\$3-billion would be required to complete the project, including the establishment of auxiliary plants to turn out needed supplies.

CHAPTER 17

LABOR

POLICY AND PROGRAM

On May 5, 1945, the Sixth National Congress of the Kuomintang adopted in Chungking a labor policy which included: (1) development of labor organizations, (2) elevation of workers' status, (3) improvement of workers' livelihood, (4) promotion of labor-management cooperation, (5) adjustment of the supply and demand of labor, (6) increase in labor efficiency, and (7) strengthening of international labor relationship based on the principle of national sovereignty and the spirit of international cooperation.

A labor program drafted in accordance with the above policy was adopted by the same congress on May 17. Its objective was to ensure social stability and to fulfill the needs of national defense and the people's livelihood. Its main points were:

(1) all workmen should join trade unions, (2) an eight-hour day and a six-day week schedule should be enforced, (3) organizations should be established to safeguard the welfare of child and woman labor, (4) factory inspection should be enforced, (5) health, accident, and other forms of social insurance should be promoted, (6) supplementary education and cultural facilities should be furnished laborers, (7) technical training should be given to laborers, (8) labor unions should use arbitration and mediation to settle disputes between labor and management, (9) workers should be encouraged to participate in political activities, and (10) workers should be encouraged to promote global labor cooperation to safeguard international social stability.

On January 1, 1947, the National Government promulgated the Constitution of the Republic of China in which the rights and privileges of laborers are protected and relations between labor and management defined. The articles concerned are found in Chapter VIII, Section 4, which reads:

"Article 152.—The State shall provide opportunity of employment to people who are capable of work.

"Article 153.—The State, in order to improve the livelihood of its laborers and farmers and to increase their productive technical skill, shall enact laws and carry out policies for their protection.

"Women and children engaged in labor shall, according to their age and physical condition, be accorded special protection.

"Article 154.—Capital and labor shall, on the principle of harmony and cooperation, promote productive enterprises. Mediation and arbitration of disputes between capital and labor shall be stipulated by law.

"Article 155.—The State, in order to promote social welfare, shall enforce a social insurance system. To the aged, the infirm and the crippled among the people who are unable to earn a living, and to victims of unusual calamities, the State shall extend appropriate assistance and relief."

LABOR ADMINISTRATION

The Labor Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs, which is the highest labor administration in China, had the following functions: (1) Manpower investigation, registration and statistics, (2) manpower requisition and classification, (3) coordination of restrictions and readjustments regarding pay scales, dismissals and employment of workers, (4) coordination or restriction of organs and public bodies that engage in the employment of workers, (5) investigation and restriction of workers employed in private households regarding number and capability, (6) enactment of plans for the mobilization of manpower, (7) promotion of labor service, (8) control of workers and employers, (9) legal protection of the interests of conscripted laborers, (10) coordination of organs in charge of mobilization of manpower, and (11) other matters pertaining to the mobilization of manpower.

Since V-J Day, the Ministry of Social Affairs has been paying particular attention to: (1) stabilization of laborers' livelihood, (2) promotion of labor-management cooperation, and (3) encouragement of labor participation in governmental affairs.

Following the abolition of the Ministry of Social Affairs in March, 1949, labor administration was transferred to the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

China had in 1948, 11,522 registered labor unions with a total membership of 5,003,598 workers, as compared to 10,846 unions with 4,953,006 members in the previous year. Before the conclusion of the war in 1945, there were only 4,359 registered labor unions with a total mem-

bership of 1,552,003. Most of the unions were in the big cities.

The Chinese Federation of Labor was organized in Nanking on April 19, 1948, by 117 delegates from 36 labor unions. It represented 20 provincial, 10 municipal, and 6 regional labor unions, whose aggregate membership numbered 16,130,250. As stated in its constitution, the federation aims at increasing the knowledge and skill of workers, developing their productive capacity, safeguarding their livelihood, improving their conditions of employment, raising their status, and strengthening their relations with workers in other countries.

The following table shows the kinds and numbers of labor unions as well as their membership registered with the Ministry of Social Affairs up to the end of June, 1948:

TABLE 1.—LABOR UNIONS AND MEMBERSHIP REGISTERED WITH THE
MINISTRY OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS, JUNE, 1948.

Unions	Number of Unions	Membership
Trade Federations.....	3	69*
Provincial (Municipal) General Labor Unions.....	3	156*
Hsien (Municipal) General Labor Unions.....	835	10,631*
Ordinary Labor Unions.....	10,268	4,037,025
Industrial Workers' Unions.....	766	892,119
Occupational Workers' Unions.....	9,253	2,892,660
Mixed Workers' Unions.....	249	252,246
Special Labor Unions.....	413	966,573
Postal Workers' Unions.....	50	20,649
Tele-communications Workers' Unions.....	12	7,157
Highway Workers' Unions.....	11	29,022
Railway Workers' Unions.....	11	116,060
Seamen's Unions.....	32	126,347
Native Junk Workers' Unions.....	251	262,678
Salt Workers' Unions.....	34	117,850
Mine Workers' Unions.....	10	285,709
Public Utility Workers' Unions.....	1	376
Other Private Transportation Workers' Unions.....	1	725
GRAND TOTAL.....	11,522	5,003,598

* Group membership not included in totals.

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs

The Trade Unions Act, which was passed by the Executive Yuan on October 21, 1929, was amended on June 13, 1947. Its main points were:

A. The functions of a trade union should include: (1) conclusion, amendment and cancellation of collective agreements; (2) establishment of employment

exchanges and finding of employment for members; (3) organization of vocational institutions and other forms of training for workers; (4) settlement of disputes between its members; (5) arbitration of disputes between workers and employers; (6) investigation of economic conditions of workers' families, of methods of labor

recruitment, and of unemployment, and compilation of labor statistics; (7) recommendations to administrative and legislative authorities on the drafting, amendment or repeal of labor legislation, and replies to enquiries made by these authorities;

B. The directors and supervisors of each trade union should be elected from among its members. Their terms of office are two years;

C. Every trade union should call a general meeting or a meeting of representatives at least once a year;

D. Employers are required by law to set aside funds for promoting the welfare of their employees;

E. In the event of a labor dispute, no strike should be called until mediation or arbitration efforts have failed to bring about a settlement;

F. In the event of a strike, no union should engage in acts affecting public peace and order, causing bodily injuries or property damages, or restricting the freedom of others;

G. In December each year, or whenever necessary, every trade union should submit to the competent authorities: (1) a list of names of its officers; (2) a list of its members and of those who have withdrawn from the organization; (3) a financial report; (4) a report on its activities, and (5) a report on disputes and their settlement;

H. Members and officers of a trade union should not engage in: (1) closing down factories or business establishments; (2) seizing or destroying goods and equipment of business establishments or factories; (3) seizing or assaulting workers or employers; (4) forcing management to employ only those workers they recommend; (5) bearing arms at meetings or demonstrations; (6) intimidating workers; (7) ordering their colleagues to commit sabotage or conduct similar actions; (8) arbitrarily levying fees or subscriptions;

I. The competent authorities may dissolve a union (1) if it fails to fulfill the requirements of a union; (2) if it commits a serious breach of law or order, and (3) if it engages in acts affecting public peace or order or the interests of the community;

J. A trade union may proclaim its voluntary dissolution on one of the following conditions: (1) bankruptcy; (2) insufficient membership; and (3) amalgamation or merge with another union.

WAGE STABILIZATION

The Ministry of Social Affairs began to regulate wages in December, 1940. On January 15, 1941, the Executive Yuan promulgated the *Regulations Governing the Stabilization of Wages*, which were enforced first in Chungking and later in other cities. It was ruled among other things that wages be computed on the basis of the living conditions of the workers and the price indices.

Following the adoption by the government of the *Regulations Governing the Enforcement of the Program for Strengthening Price Control* on December 17, 1942, a new set of measures for the restriction of wages was announced by the Ministry of Social Affairs in an effort to keep wages and transportation charges in line with the prevailing commodity prices. The new measures included:

(1) Pay scales prevailing on November 30, 1942, should be taken as the basis for wage adjustments;

(2) Wages should be restricted in areas where price control is in force;

(3) These wage restriction measures should apply to the following occupations and industries: Salt, edible oil, machinery, fuel, paper, printing, flour, sugar, barber shop, weaving, rickshaw and sedan chair transportation, junk transportation, carpentry, masonry and stone work;

(4) A committee should be organized in each locality to decide on wage scales. It is to be composed of representatives of the local Kuomintang headquarters, government, *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, the chamber of commerce, the labor union and other related organs. Local administrative organs such as reconstruction departments or social affairs bureaus of provincial and *hsien* governments shall have the final authority on deciding wage scales;

(5) The organization and control of industrial, commercial, labor, and other related public bodies should be strengthened in areas where wage restriction measures are enforced; and

(6) These measures shall replace the *Regulations Governing the Stabilization of Wages*.

Efforts at wage control continued after the war. To keep up with the rising commodity prices, wages were adjusted from time to time.

Tables 2 and 3 show changes in the cost of living, the actual income and real wages of workers after V-J Day in China's big cities.

TABLE 2.—INDICES OF WORKERS' COST OF LIVING, INDUSTRIAL AND OCCUPATIONAL WORKERS' ACTUAL INCOME AND REAL WAGES IN THE BIG CITIES IN CHINA, 1946-1948 (JUNE)

Weighted Aggregate Average; First Half of 1937=100; Unit: CNC\$

1946					
Locality	Cost of Living	Industrial Workers		Occupational Workers	
		Actual Income	Real Wage	Actual Income	Real Wage
Nanking.....	464,769	684,618	122.6	687,018	147.8
Shanghai.....	550,673	831,839	151.6	847,173	..
Tientsin.....	382,788	817,654	155.6
Tsingtao.....	530,378	284,717	47.4	413,686	77.9
Canton.....	389,981	273,799	60.5
1947					
Nanking.....	2,758,571	3,128,436	113.4	3,801,150	137.8
Shanghai.....	3,818,672	4,984,473	130.5	4,343,380	113.7
Tientsin.....	3,510,070	5,330,660	151.9	5,060,981	144.2
Tsingtao.....	4,586,615	2,632,384	57.4	2,842,331	62.0
Canton.....	2,830,862	1,734,874	61.3	2,231,400	78.8
1948 (January-June)					
Nanking.....	32,206,541	43,703,487	135.7	44,033,361	130.2
Shanghai.....	31,995,631	49,800,157	155.6	43,721,763	123.2
Tientsin.....	42,006,791	66,617,265	158.6	44,745,331	114.4
Tsingtao.....	53,468,019	25,342,877	47.4	35,500,890	67.9
Canton.....	30,960,262	34,423,124	97.6	37,962,089	115.0

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs

DISPUTES AND STRIKES

After V-J Day, the Ministry of Social Affairs laid down *Regulations Governing the Arbitration of Disputes between Labor and Capital during the Rehabilitation Period and Regulations Governing the Settlement of Disputes between Employees and Employers during the Rebellion-Suppression Campaign*. The regulations stipulate that an arbitration board to be composed of representatives of the local authorities, civic associations, labor and management should be set up to seek a peaceful settlement of any labor dispute. Before an arbitration board has arrived at its conclusion, no strike or lock-out is to be called.

During the 1945-1948 period, out of 6,465 labor disputes, 3,527 were registered in Shanghai, affecting a total of 848,522

employees and workers. The demand for wage increases and the dismissal of laborers constituted the two main causes for the disputes.

Table 4 on page 436 shows the number of cases of labor disputes and the number of workers affected during the 1945-June, 1948 period.

LABOR PARTICIPATION IN THE GOVERNMENT

It has been the government's policy to encourage laborers to participate in government affairs. Up to the end of June, 1948, out of the 28,987 members in 1,755 people's representative councils at various levels in the country, 1,474 were labor delegates. In the National Assembly, 126 were labor representatives. There were 18

TABLE 3.—INDICES OF WORKERS' COST OF LIVING, THEIR REAL WAGES AND THEIR ACTUAL INCOME IN CHUNGKING, WARTIME CAPITAL OF CHINA, FROM 1937 TO JUNE 1948.

Weighted Aggregative Average; First Half of 1937=100; Unit: CNC\$

Period	Cost of Living	Industrial Workers		Occupational Workers	
		Actual Income	Real Wage	Actual Income	Real Wage
1937.....	100	103.5	101.5
1938.....	116	167.4	145.6
1939.....	192	315.0	183.1
1940.....	550	718.2	143.9
1941.....	1,842	1,650.8	92.1
1942.....	4,135	2,083	50.4	3,076.8	82.1
1943.....	11,498	4,842	42.1	7,776.6	74.2
1944.....	39,094	17,149	43.9	28,671.0	77.6
1945.....	143,806	57,721	40.1	136,212.0	107.3
1946.....	258,612	275,336	106.5	361,694.0	162.1
1947.....	1,577,908	1,812,030	114.8	1,176,899.0	87.0
1948—January.....	6,015,426	4,071,937	67.7	4,557,153.0	85.7
February.....	7,758,604	10,701,501	137.9	5,953,293.0	85.5
March.....	12,995,782	12,524,151	96.4	9,225,705.0	77.1
April.....	15,910,558	15,132,526	95.1	13,677,980.0	93.1
May.....	20,598,952	30,032,181	145.8	17,760,354.0	94.7
June.....	41,843,381	39,108,882	93.5	26,862,013.0	69.6

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs

labor representatives in the Legislative Yuan.

Table 5 on page 437 shows the number of labor members in the *hsien* and municipal people's representative councils in various provinces up to the end of June, 1948.

LABOR WELFARE

Labor welfare projects adopted by the Ministry of Social Affairs fall into the following categories: (1) factory inspection, (2) labor insurance, (3) construction of social and recreation centers for the workers, and (4) miscellaneous welfare measures.

Labor legislation is something relatively new in China. The *Chinese Factory Law* was promulgated in 1929 and was revised in 1942. The *Factory Inspection Law* was passed in 1931, and amended in 1935.

On January 26, 1943, the Executive Yuan adopted the *Regulations Governing the Employees' Welfare Fund*.

The ruling specifies that a new enterprise should set aside from one to five percent of its total capital as employees' welfare fund at the time of its establish-

ment. To finance welfare projects, the management should set aside from two to five percent of the entire monthly payroll plus allowances, while the employees, one-half of one percent of the salaries or wages plus allowances of each individual. From five to ten percent of the yearly profits and from 20 to 40% of money realized from the sale of waste materials or scraps should be devoted to promotion of welfare projects.

Trade unions are to earmark 30% of their membership fees as a welfare fund for the unemployment in their respective field. Competent authorities may grant subsidies for the promotion of labor welfare.

Special committees should be created by the factories, mines and other industrial organizations concerned to supervise the use of their respective welfare funds, and to see that the money is spent only for welfare work. Such committees should include union representatives drafted by the proper government authorities.

A fine of not more than \$1,000 will be imposed upon those who do not set aside funds to promote the welfare of their employees and workers in accordance with

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES IN VARIOUS PROVINCES AND MUNICIPALITIES DURING THE 1945-JUNE, 1948 PERIOD.

Localities	Number of Cases	Number of Factories, etc. Affected	Number of Workers Affected	Duration (Number of Days)
Kiangsu.....	325	8,839	117,600	3,879
Chekiang.....	385	17,074	130,419	3,389
Anhwei.....	1	5	186	1
Kiangsi.....	64	886	10,938	461
Hupei.....	90	6,783	75,035	757
Hunan.....	74	1,960	54,975	1,192
Szechwan.....	34	185	4,965	391
Sikang.....
Hopei.....	24	56	7,065	232
Shantung.....	6	14	1,485	68
Shansi.....
Honan.....	5	5	145	25
Shensi.....	24	53	13,856	115
Kansu.....
Chinghai.....
Fukien.....	19	249	5,375	207
Taiwan.....	12	22	1,736	301
Kwangtung.....	107	2,445	49,222	2,626
Kwangsi.....	51	1,614	19,558	429
Yunnan.....	40	309	11,450	211
Kweichow.....	4	147	693	26
Liaoning.....	5	15	5,337	33
Antung.....
Liaopei.....
Kirin.....	3	12	343	44
Sungkiang.....
Hokiang.....
Heilungkiang.....
Nunkiang.....
Hingan.....
Jehol.....
Chahar.....	2	8	212	16
Suiyuan.....
Ningsia.....
Sinkiang.....
Tibet.....
Nanking.....	52	5,465	20,762	690
Shanghai.....	3,527	43,071	848,533	*9,502
Peiping.....	15	169	8,041	182
Tientsin.....	410	2,204	66,074	5,674
Tsingtao.....	193	2,422	34,991	2,762
Chungking.....	728	8,384	182,156	7,138
Mukden.....	2	3	98	50
Hankow.....	208	21,472	164,107	1,562
Canton.....	55	5,075	51,637	1,278
Sian.....
Harbin.....
Dairen.....
	6,465	128,946	1,886,994	43,241

* The number of days affected in the 3,045 cases reported in the 1947-June, 1948 period is not included in this figure.

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs

TABLE 5.—LABOR REPRESENTATIVES IN *Hsien* AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS, JUNE, 1948

Province or Municipality	<i>Hsien</i> or Municipal People's Councils	Number of Council Members	Labor Representatives
Szechwan.....	143	5,385	505
Kweichow.....	80	1,904	83
Hunan.....	78	2,188	99
Shensi.....	79	1,208	24
Kiangsi.....	82	2,426	62
Ningsia.....	14	156	6
Shantung.....	110	2,040	84
Kiangsu.....	63	1,366	32
Chekiang.....	77	4,158	130
Sikang.....	39	434	23
Liaopei.....	10	290	9
Kwangsi.....	100	1,981	18
Fukien.....	69	1,294	45
Kansu.....	71	1,151	46
Anhwei.....	64	1,476	102
Kwangtung.....	99	1,749	34
Hupei.....	71	1,367	48
Yunnan.....	128	981	17
Chinghai.....	21	341	15
Honan.....	111	619	43
Suiyuan.....	23	425	12
Shansi.....	106	1,519	33
Hopei.....	25	416	9
Liaoning.....	21	643	25
Taiwan.....	17	408	4
Sinkiang.....	54	298	5
Nanking.....	..	30	6
Shanghai.....	..	181	16
Chungking.....	..	83	8
Tientsin.....	..	31	5
Tsingtao.....	..	54	2
Peiping.....	..	101	7
Hankow.....	..	63	5
Sian.....	..	30	2
Mukden.....	..	83	10
Canton.....
TOTAL	1,755	36,879	1,474

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs

these regulations. A fine of not more than \$500 will be imposed on those who do not report to the proper government authorities on the disposition of their welfare funds. Diversion of these funds to other uses is punishable by law.

These regulations were the first of the kind adopted since the outbreak of the war in 1937. Supplementary rules have since been promulgated to ensure extensive enforcement.

By order of the Central Government, provincial and *hsien* governments as well

as labor unions throughout the country have sponsored welfare projects, such as model villages for workers, schools and social centers, and medical, legal and vocational guidance.

Ministry of Social Affairs statistics showed that up to the end of June, 1948, there were 222 employees' and 129 labor union welfare committees and 260 employees' and 208 labor union welfare societies, totalling 819 organizations. The total for the previous year was 774.

Factory inspection was not placed on a nationwide scale until 1941, when the Ministry of Social Affairs came directly under the Executive Yuan. Since then the ministry has trained personnel for this work. Industrial and mining establishments in Chungking were inspected in 1942. The work was extended to both government and private factories in other parts of Szechwan in 1943, and to Kweichow, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Hunan and Shensi provinces in 1944. In the inspection, special attention was directed to sanitation, health, safety measures and general condition of the workers.

In 1943, the Ministry of Social Affairs adopted a labor insurance plan for the salt workers of northern Szechwan. Starting with 5,167 participants, this collective program was expanded to include 37,000 salt workers in the first six months of 1948. Preparations have been made to initiate accident insurance for mine workers.

CHINA AND I.L.O.

China became a member of the International Labor Organization in 1919 after she had signed the Treaty of Saint-Germain. Her filling of the permanent seat vacated by Japan's withdrawal was unanimously approved by the I.L.O.'s Governing Body in 1944. Chinese delegates have been present at all the 31 International Labor Conferences held since 1929.

In response to the International Labor Organization's endeavor to protect labor, the Chinese Government promulgated in 1923 the *Provisional Factory Regulations*. This was followed six years later, in 1929, by a comprehensive *Factory Law* which, after undergoing some minor revisions in 1942, has been in operation in the country.

Since 1928, the International Labor Office has sent officials to China on several occasions either to acquire first-hand knowledge of Chinese labor conditions or to render technical advice to its government. On the initial mission was Albert Thomas, first director of the International Labor Office. Largely through his efforts the China Branch of the I.L.O. was established in Shanghai in 1930. In 1948 Miss B. M. Power served as advisor to the Ministry of Social Affairs in technical matters concerning employment and youth training.

During the Sino-Japanese War, the I.L.O.'s China Branch was moved to Chungking. It did not return to Shanghai until May, 1946. Its director since 1938 has been Cheng Hai-feng.

The duties of the China branch are: (1) to act as a liaison agent between the Chinese Government, the employers' and workers' organizations and academic institutions, (2) to compile labor statistics, and (3) to disseminate labor information. The latest of its publications are "The International Labor Organization and China" and "The Preparatory Asian Regional Conference."

CHAPTER 18

COMMODITY PRICES

With the exception of a brief period immediately following V-J Day, commodity prices in China had been rising ever since the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in July, 1937. They varied with the place and the time, but all showed increases at an accelerating rate. The inflationary trends became particularly noticeable after the outbreak of the Pacific War in December, 1941.

On August 19, 1948, the government adopted a new currency, the Gold Yuan. Simultaneously it enforced severe economic control measures designed to curb hoarding and speculation. Prices, wages and service charges were all frozen at their August 19 levels.

However, with the worsening general situation, the temporary stability of the Gold Yuan was also lost through vicious inflation. On July 2, 1949, the National Government at Canton decided to enforce the second nation-wide currency reform and issued the Silver Yuan notes with 100% reserve.

Following is a review of the price movements both during the war and since the end of the war up to June, 1948.

WARTIME CONDITIONS

The second half of 1937 saw only a slight increase in commodity prices, with a general index of 110 (base period: January-June 1937), as the government had ample foreign exchange to meet the requirements of both exporters and importers. The monthly average rates of increase of wholesale and retail prices were one and 1.3% respectively. The increase was also slight from January, 1938, on to August, 1939. The general wholesale and retail indices fluctuated between 113 and 215 and between 114 and 209, respectively, with monthly average rates of increase of four and 5.5%. Bumper crops in the interior provinces were then the main deterrent to sharp increases.

The outbreak of the European War in September, 1939, cut considerably the supply of goods to China from abroad. The

closure of the Burma Road by the British Government in September, 1940, further aggravated the situation. It happened that crops were poor that year. In February, 1941, the Japanese landed along the Kwangtung coast, and two months later took the Fukien ports. As a result, the indices of the wholesale and retail prices respectively jumped from 232 and 224 in August, 1939 to 1,832 and 1,898 in November, 1941. Military setbacks and Japanese air bombings were other causes for the rise.

After the bombing of Pearl Harbor the China coast was blockaded by the enemy. The price indices rose from 2,111 to 2,147 and 67,988 to 77,348 respectively, in December, 1944, with an average monthly increase of over 10%. In the winter of 1944, the Japanese forces invaded Kwangsi and Kweichow. For a while even the wartime capital, Chungking, was threatened. Prices rose at a maddening rate. During January-July, 1945, indices for wholesale prices increased from 81,425 to 235,922, while those for retail prices from 93,751 to 261,913, with an average monthly increase of 20%, the highest during the war.

POSTWAR PERIOD

Commodity prices fell sharply following the Japanese surrender in August, 1945. Between August that year, and January, 1946, retail prices fluctuated considerably, but the general trend was downward. After January, 1946, the tide turned again and the rate of increase gained. The year 1947 saw violent increases in commodity prices primarily because of the large-scale military operations necessitated by the communist rebellion. Inflation, hoarding and speculation, the concentration of idle capital in a few large cities and an unbalanced budget were all contributory causes.

The average monthly rate of increase in 1947 was 26%, as compared with 12% recorded during February-December, 1946.

The wholesale and retail indices at the end of 1947 were 10,340,000 and 10,598,400, respectively.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

Due to difficulties in communication and military operations, regional differences in commodity prices were rather marked. Sian led the interior cities in price increases in 1939 and 1943. This was because of the tense military situation on the Shensi-Shansi border in 1939 and a great drought in Shensi and Honan in 1943. Chengtu took over the lead in 1940-42 in the soaring of prices of metals. It also provided the highest figure for clothing material in 1941. In 1944 and 1945, Kunming had the highest figures in the country for both wholesale and retail prices. The city was then China's only link with the outside world and it was being built up as the main base for a counter-offensive. Demands were always high. In Kweiyang prices during the winter of 1944 rose about four times as compared with those of the previous year because of the congestion of refugees from Hunan and Kwangsi.

Since the end of the war, the highest price figures were registered in Taiyuan, provincial capital of Shansi. In June, 1948, prices there exceeded 2,685,550 times those of the prewar period. Rapid increases were also reported in Peiping, Tientsin, Hofei, Tsinan, Tsingtao, Sian, Kalgan, Kaifeng, Nanking, Shanghai, Nanchang, Hankow, Hangchow, and Foochow. Places having somewhat slower rates of increase were Kweiyang, Chungking, Kunming, Chengtu, and Kweilin. In Taiwan, conditions are slightly different. In June, 1948, prices were 1,539 times those of the base period.

CONTROL MEASURES

Price control measures were adopted shortly after the war began in 1937. In May, 1942, the *National General Mobilization Act* was enforced, intensifying the controls. The restriction of prices was further strengthened upon the adoption on February 15, 1945, of the *Regulations Governing the Restriction and Evaluation of Commodity Prices*.*

Following the adoption of the Gold Yuan currency system in August, 1948, the Executive Yuan promulgated on September 15, 1948, a set of practical measures for the application of the foregoing

regulations modified to meet changed conditions. These measures fixed the prices prevailing on August 19, 1948, as the ceilings.

The full text of the measures is as follows:

(1) All municipalities and *hsien* of the country shall serve as areas for the enforcement of the restrictions and the evaluation of commodity prices.

(2) The competent authorities of the various localities shall fix the prices which prevailed in their respective local open markets on August 19, 1948, and convert them into Gold Yuan according to the rate of conversion.

The competent authorities may, taking into consideration the actual local factors of demand and supply, designate certain commodities for control.

(3) The provisions of the preceding article shall also apply to such businesses as hotels, restaurants, bath houses, barber shops, tailor shops, clearing and dyeing establishments, transportation concerns, clinics, hospitals, theaters and cinemas.

(4) Prices covered by Articles 2 and 3, when readjustment is warranted, except where otherwise provided, may be equitably readjusted by the Commodity Prices Evaluation Committee, which shall be organized by competent local authorities, in accordance with provisions of the Enforcement Measures for the Evaluation of Commodity Prices. These new prices are subject to the approval of competent local authorities and must be reported to the higher authorities for record.

Prices readjusted before August 19, 1948, which are too high may be re-evaluated and reduced by competent local authorities according to provisions of the preceding paragraph.

(5) Beginning August 19, 1948, any of the following shall be regarded as a price violation:

(a) Any commodity price which is higher than that which prevailed on August 19, 1948, and not approved by competent local authorities.

(b) Any change in name, quality or quantity of commodity whose price has been fixed in accordance with the standard of August 19, 1948. Any price change into Gold Yuan not in accordance with the rate of conversion or any secret sale at higher prices.

(c) Any other offense contrary to the measures for the restriction and evaluation of commodity prices.

* For details of measures for price stabilization during the war years, see CHINA HANDBOOK, 1937-1945.

(6) The norm for Paragraphs 2 and 3 of Article 6 of the Regulations Governing the Restriction and Evaluation of Commodity Prices shall be changed to GY\$500. Any violation of these rules involving over GY\$500, whether it be a business transaction, wage or transportation charge, shall be dealt with in accordance with the provisions in Paragraph 2. Any such offense involving less than GY\$500 shall be penalized in accordance with provisions of Paragraph 3.

(7) Fifty percent of the fines so collected, except for those imposed by judicial organs according to law, shall be

used as rewards, and the remaining 50% shall be turned over to the local treasury.

(8) Competent local government offices responsible for the carrying out of these price controls shall be the Bureaus of Social Affairs of the Municipalities under the Executive Yuan, the provincial capitals and the *hsien* government in cooperation with their respective security and police organs.

However, under heavy public pressure, the government was compelled to lift its price controls on November 1, 1948. (For details, see chapter on "Currency.")

TABLE 1.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES, 1937-47
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

Year	General Index	Food	Clothing	Fuel	Metals	Building Materials	Miscellaneous
1937.....	103	100	107	103	109	104	103
1938.....	131	108	160	131	167	141	164
1939.....	220	163	308	284	305	227	240
1940.....	513	406	763	629	732	453	486
1941.....	1,296	1,170	1,720	1,374	1,844	1,108	1,152
1942.....	3,900	3,254	5,527	4,347	5,760	3,167	3,704
1943.....	12,541	9,425	23,633	14,247	17,354	10,152	11,556
1944.....	43,197	34,808	77,059	47,621	50,446	30,628	43,227
1945.....	163,160	149,245	231,657	184,948	183,870	117,373	146,717
1946.....	378,539	351,363	496,411	494,504	358,537	340,419	319,523
1947.....	755,000	696,915	981,952	1,024,732	715,598	713,214	613,550
1947—January.....	1,102,885	990,444	1,362,448	1,442,514	1,144,775	975,686	999,977
February.....	1,219,439	1,034,556	1,448,740	1,599,890	1,391,490	1,156,246	1,138,020
March.....	1,390,200	1,221,856	1,757,500	1,696,500	1,626,975	1,265,100	1,243,260
April.....	1,968,567	1,851,569	2,321,186	2,133,491	2,194,320	1,611,870	1,720,600
May.....	2,483,000	2,343,900	3,165,600	2,694,600	2,684,000	2,017,000	2,221,700
June.....	3,122,400	2,755,200	4,098,100	3,567,400	3,433,300	2,941,300	2,909,500
July.....	3,439,200	3,146,400	4,232,400	4,144,600	3,989,200	3,103,900	3,317,400
August.....	3,836,800	3,473,400	5,208,500	4,757,300	4,490,800	3,503,000	3,795,100
September.....	5,931,300	4,903,300	8,296,100	7,274,500	7,193,800	5,088,700	5,631,400
October.....	7,686,500	6,234,200	10,482,000	9,961,300	9,961,300	6,704,200	7,313,500
November.....	10,340,000	8,647,400	13,782,400	12,025,900	13,515,000	9,104,330	9,606,300
December.....							

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 2.—INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES, 1937-47
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

Year	General Index	Food	Clothing	Fuel	Miscellaneous
1937.....	103	101	107	105	105
1938.....	130	115	156	138	140
1939.....	213	175	295	220	243
1940.....	503	416	725	538	532
1941.....	1,294	1,168	1,718	1,241	1,249
1942.....	4,027	3,072	6,023	4,080	4,242
1943.....	14,041	9,582	25,539	14,050	14,330
1944.....	48,781	35,639	90,200	51,945	52,572
1945.....	190,723	158,780	299,323	241,521	184,455
1946.....	425,487	374,512	563,482	520,453	373,821
1947—January.....	846,333	734,947	1,162,075	1,116,905	715,482
February.....	1,219,224	1,041,343	1,620,906	1,545,540	1,159,649
March.....	1,322,008	1,117,960	1,679,554	1,730,100	1,326,573
April.....	1,471,260	1,265,348	1,926,700	1,822,800	1,420,365
May.....	2,097,700	2,083,500	2,630,027	2,362,980	1,923,535
June.....	2,638,800	2,409,400	3,319,190	2,932,800	2,436,210
July.....	3,325,500	2,880,100	4,333,600	3,840,800	3,190,800
August.....	3,672,100	3,249,000	4,549,900	4,295,400	3,520,300
September.....	4,252,800	3,669,000	5,561,500	4,743,400	4,081,600
October.....	6,133,500	5,045,100	8,781,900	8,081,400	5,836,600
November.....	7,804,400	6,422,900	11,136,600	10,597,500	7,573,300
December.....	10,598,400	8,876,100	14,615,000	13,988,000	9,974,300

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 3.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES IN SEVEN CITIES DURING THE WAR
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

Cities	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Wholesale Prices									
Chungking.....	101	126	220	569	1,576	4,408	13,298	43,050	150,195
Chengtu.....	103	128	225	665	1,769	4,559	14,720	56,965	170,379
Kangting.....	104	137	225	587	1,352	4,388	12,982	49,229	171,053
Sian.....	105	146	245	497	1,270	4,120	16,279	39,676	155,341
Lanchow.....	107	146	217	399	1,061	2,853	10,047	26,533	88,655
Kunming.....								63,203	305,711
Kweiyang.....	98	105	187	413	969	3,395	9,428	34,940	167,025
Retail Prices									
Chungking.....	102	122	203	548	1,467	4,248	13,337	45,840	177,647
Chengtu.....	103	125	214	615	1,735	4,720	16,416	66,351	214,353
Kangting.....	107	135	243	690	1,644	5,539	18,925	62,830	92,708
Sian.....	104	142	221	417	1,135	3,994	16,136	40,305	157,169
Lanchow.....	105	140	204	373	762	2,592	8,693	26,241	96,198
Kunming.....								74,232	345,912
Kweiyang.....	100	105	194	448	1,029	3,711	11,088	45,546	239,181

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 4.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN EIGHT CITIES, 1946-47
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

Month	Nanking	Shanghai	Peiping	Tientsin	Tsingtao	Chungking	Hankow	Canton
1946—January.....	170,158	160,315	149,055	134,265	174,272	209,561	260,881	214,827
February.....	252,167	273,550	232,472	234,404	217,821	225,806	307,336	239,067
March.....	345,269	344,383	279,661	277,525	269,644	235,728	379,160	269,481
April.....	364,133	325,986	281,862	278,888	321,157	248,296	415,027	310,899
May.....	420,800	360,485	379,183	362,095	438,730	252,406	465,544	333,048
June.....	472,978	378,217	430,830	419,200	491,010	256,963	481,680	331,370
July.....	470,900	403,982	480,567	425,088	551,640	273,325	480,578	365,320
August.....	471,989	439,300	483,978	463,699	570,600	263,250	465,850	408,987
September.....	522,813	503,122	551,514	559,843	644,650	315,515	510,333	465,036
October.....	621,071	612,071	638,628	665,620	735,100	357,322	613,229	539,818
November.....	658,971	626,614	676,050	724,100	806,750	390,652	778,700	527,244
December.....	720,133	681,563	711,543	740,983	889,840	451,035	718,017	561,091
1947—January.....	842,480	817,750	842,480	834,587	1,017,955	525,300	791,660	645,916
February.....	1,282,353	1,309,848	1,267,912	1,264,554	1,565,427	722,986	1,304,364	1,111,674
March.....	1,363,290	1,386,593	1,428,567	1,419,939	1,837,410	770,105	1,468,333	1,160,536
April.....	1,621,259	1,669,900	1,579,417	1,721,433	2,199,579	780,567	1,667,885	1,311,971
May.....	2,417,500	2,584,000	2,893,467	2,673,396	3,090,214	987,186	2,182,400	1,883,607
June.....	2,881,400	2,905,000	3,311,846	3,172,826	3,789,667	1,334,382	2,727,133	2,367,401
July.....	3,451,151	3,359,400	4,014,909	3,778,015	4,619,111	1,986,593	3,259,286	2,658,501
August.....	3,511,083	3,649,300	4,165,140	3,936,743	5,295,125	2,219,269	3,769,364	3,666,973
September.....	4,361,642	4,635,700	4,905,881	4,574,905	6,304,000	2,590,240	4,500,200	4,169,327
October.....	6,721,869	7,293,400	6,796,571	6,494,190	9,068,800	3,872,665	6,745,286	5,520,741
November.....	8,328,562	8,261,300	8,402,200	8,158,881	10,729,756	4,958,040	8,140,833	7,256,009
December.....	10,400,400	10,063,000	12,269,714	12,100,259	13,672,500	6,407,078	10,247,381	9,419,215

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 5.—INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN EIGHT CITIES, 1946-47
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

Month	Nanking	Shanghai	Peiping	Tientsin	Tsingtao	Chungking	Hankow	Canton
1946—								
January.....	179,332	171,838	164,741	133,357	186,626	257,537	273,300	286,814
February.....	268,317	281,425	255,788	222,165	245,972	274,612	319,131	300,083
March.....	346,120	400,709	309,243	209,922	290,840	278,304	389,342	340,097
April.....	367,071	396,373	315,050	271,626	324,840	287,892	426,730	499,451
May.....	424,610	452,490	418,464	371,288	452,450	286,147	470,556	442,207
June.....	497,771	492,478	486,067	447,796	488,111	294,252	509,756	430,355
July.....	485,256	536,463	545,600	475,213	581,340	299,109	516,133	469,371
August.....	497,114	566,700	558,486	526,353	636,133	323,683	527,156	533,452
September.....	566,750	679,286	650,414	635,989	720,267	355,697	553,988	595,256
October.....	678,983	795,113	750,483	721,763	805,008	401,726	662,533	668,444
November.....	697,600	793,267	775,400	755,541	838,740	440,129	731,017	641,056
December.....	745,967	865,540	802,033	771,232	919,900	507,598	759,050	674,665
1947—								
January.....	890,920	1,048,500	948,240	872,972	1,925,791	592,120	847,780	765,059
February.....	1,345,240	1,533,400	1,413,516	1,320,724	1,987,500	763,793	1,450,767	1,286,047
March.....	1,408,935	1,580,400	1,550,143	1,472,516	1,987,500	782,060	1,556,643	1,327,796
April.....	1,652,885	1,838,956	1,720,735	1,720,735	2,181,526	793,725	1,759,583	1,506,226
May.....	2,483,706	2,676,000	3,085,786	2,693,919	3,156,000	1,056,672	2,414,167	2,106,727
June.....	2,944,333	3,077,200	3,580,462	3,217,706	3,775,273	1,372,587	2,824,125	2,707,368
July.....	3,472,917	3,739,800	4,348,200	3,971,115	4,557,444	2,015,069	3,436,846	3,277,035
August.....	3,670,818	4,004,600	4,430,000	4,215,044	5,275,375	2,237,639	3,913,636	4,267,272
September.....	4,396,732	5,160,700	5,302,250	4,785,933	6,439,857	2,625,004	4,944,000	4,881,188
October.....	6,875,749	7,836,500	6,980,667	6,431,660	9,530,600	3,897,266	7,114,667	6,212,594
November.....	8,127,370	8,670,200	8,694,400	7,773,064	11,058,000	4,978,174	8,253,200	7,944,051
December.....	10,050,553	10,745,000	13,025,758	11,760,767	14,312,333	6,458,773	10,521,707	10,572,556

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 6.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN JANUARY-JUNE, 1948
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

Month	General Index	Food				Clothing	Fuel	Metals	Building Materials	Miscellaneous
		Provisions	Grains	Others						
January.....	13,790,500	12,476,200	12,582,600	12,402,500	16,721,000	14,664,400	17,227,400	12,175,000	12,871,200	
February.....	18,440,400	17,724,000	18,553,000	17,012,000	20,999,000	18,704,000	21,522,300	15,489,000	17,356,000	
March.....	30,155,000	28,426,000	31,576,000	25,934,000	35,963,000	29,992,000	34,844,000	26,577,000	28,701,000	
April.....	39,553,000	36,062,000	37,992,000	34,856,000	48,352,000	39,651,000	45,427,000	38,123,000	37,579,000	
May.....	53,969,000	52,218,000	54,972,000	50,297,000	66,284,000	53,043,000	61,814,000	47,660,000	47,632,000	
June.....	102,210,000	96,279,000	101,960,000	89,730,000	136,328,000	100,738,000	100,894,000	86,258,000	91,569,000	

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 7.—INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN JANUARY-JUNE, 1948
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

Month	General Index	Food			Clothing	Fuel	Miscellaneous
		Provisions	Grains	Others			
January.....	14,322,200	12,841,000	12,883,000	12,890,200	17,914,000	16,895,500	13,328,500
February.....	19,329,000	18,377,000	19,037,000	17,989,000	22,732,000	20,847,500	17,985,500
March.....	31,155,000	28,620,000	31,990,000	27,001,000	37,325,000	32,440,000	30,350,000
April.....	40,822,000	37,152,000	38,690,000	36,465,000	50,539,000	42,816,000	40,443,000
May.....	56,438,000	53,639,000	55,437,000	52,780,000	68,294,000	56,446,000	51,896,000
June.....	108,160,000	98,980,000	103,152,000	96,915,000	141,400,000	112,429,000	99,208,000

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 8.—INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN 30 CITIES IN JANUARY-JUNE, 1948
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

	January	February	March	April	May	June
Nanking.....	14,249,839	19,932,417	34,084,740	41,225,886	55,299,346	109,471,234
Shanghai.....	13,845,000	18,650,000	32,082,000	37,906,000	51,247,000	107,810,000
Peiping.....	16,300,000	20,988,500	32,761,428	42,697,000	64,292,857	133,293,939
Tientsin.....	15,435,326	19,289,147	32,925,659	42,835,911	63,342,324	127,825,735
Tsingtao.....	19,433,913	28,686,667	43,239,000	59,112,857	80,587,333	137,784,375
Chungking.....	8,575,314	10,754,248	18,783,216	24,677,432	31,389,181	61,981,200
Mukden.....	2,778,992	3,222,676	3,846,773	6,781,977	12,264,490	22,140,301
Sian.....	15,696,786	18,968,261	27,198,125	37,083,333	57,488,571	113,125,641
Canton.....	12,413,616	18,177,866	29,172,725	40,284,833	59,678,500	93,270,304
Hankow.....	12,880,909	18,740,870	34,259,231	44,727,000	59,140,000	115,921,053
Chinkiang.....	15,164,364	20,902,731	34,419,205	42,317,794	57,660,184	98,743,400
Hangchow.....	13,777,500	18,624,300	30,926,443	42,317,794	50,856,918	122,481,356
Hofei.....	20,380,516	27,145,763	47,280,652	60,124,306	80,013,091	131,413,595
Nanchang.....	12,627,000	18,717,000	31,897,000	40,736,000	59,297,000	108,850,000
Changsha.....	11,157,000	15,554,000	26,741,000	37,256,000	51,477,000	84,314,000
Chengtu.....	9,996,000	12,542,671	19,244,208	25,313,953	35,640,189	73,974,153
Kangting.....	13,155,845	15,208,461	21,743,508	37,937,781	45,636,179	96,938,295
Tsinan.....	13,730,000	20,103,000	30,575,000	38,375,000	55,660,000	118,550,000
Taiyuan.....	34,498,150	38,140,772	67,167,531	101,515,397	134,572,142	268,555,031
Kaifeng.....	15,025,820	18,188,067	37,625,362	44,588,588	53,438,383	93,473,800
Lanchow.....	14,424,500	16,700,900	24,106,300	30,089,900	52,966,300	105,578,956
Foochow.....	14,297,013	20,379,484	33,103,664	43,314,250	55,163,628	63,876,060
Kweilin.....	8,576,100	12,823,012	21,287,274	29,773,507	44,712,611	78,534,127
Kunming.....	9,252,164	12,318,966	19,641,543	22,834,095	36,866,373	47,770,505
Kweiyang.....	6,767,373	9,763,268	15,661,545	19,665,268	27,942,677	47,770,505
Kweisui.....	17,490,700	20,924,760	30,444,000	38,668,182	54,321,250	99,127,500
Chengteh.....	17,505,800	22,568,609	28,644,722	38,287,149	52,727,213	148,084,710
Yinchuan.....	24,225,400	30,598,100	41,068,800	67,424,600	102,178,000	134,741,000
Kalgan.....	20,083,991	25,717,012	35,266,837	46,563,301	72,649,750	156,591,942
Taipei.....	106,545	120,831	138,653	143,747	146,639	153,943

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

TABLE 9.—INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN 30 CITIES IN JANUARY-JUNE, 1948
(JANUARY-JUNE 1937=100; SIMPLE GEOMETRIC AVERAGE)

	January	February	March	April	May	June
Nanking.....	13,826,427	19,653,502	31,941,846	38,569,143	52,948,049	102,283,962
Shanghai.....	15,322,000	21,223,000	34,201,000	40,499,000	56,295,000	110,380,000
Peiping.....	17,803,750	23,092,632	35,478,333	44,232,000	68,755,714	141,387,097
Tientsin.....	16,127,595	20,316,771	31,813,504	40,818,075	60,687,225	125,702,957
Tsingtao.....	20,642,857	31,025,714	45,684,444	61,121,429	83,695,000	147,058,621
Chungking.....	8,738,562	10,997,147	19,016,035	25,864,256	33,260,595	66,291,831
Mukden.....	3,980,203	4,852,638	5,877,622	11,745,401	21,315,245	37,791,687
Sian.....	14,686,897	18,340,417	27,010,588	36,830,833	56,475,714	110,587,500
Canton.....	13,923,023	21,414,547	32,875,962	45,173,188	68,394,422	103,001,161
Hankow.....	13,023,548	20,958,000	36,457,000	45,527,000	60,454,286	118,527,778
Chinkiang.....	15,067,365	21,003,874	35,361,870	43,146,069	59,248,384	104,171,500
Hangchow.....	14,411,195	19,559,601	30,804,206	37,682,526	49,941,322	122,087,163
Hofei.....	19,389,509	25,646,000	45,690,947	55,857,821	78,261,455	133,981,790
Nanchang.....	12,079,000	18,359,000	29,644,000	38,961,000	59,040,000	102,760,000
Changsha.....	12,071,000	16,918,000	27,848,000	38,597,000	54,527,000	88,523,000
Chengtu.....	9,964,144	12,613,465	19,370,917	25,497,641	35,793,983	77,907,625
Kiating.....	13,857,876	15,914,621	22,931,704	41,655,857	52,018,892	112,805,870
Tsinan.....	15,809,000	23,306,000	37,869,000	46,655,000	63,663,000	142,470,000
Taiyuan.....	38,707,659	44,011,343	82,759,755	120,745,988	158,416,605	319,762,354
Kaifeng.....	14,949,787	18,833,437	37,138,837	42,604,382	53,608,346	
Lanchow.....	13,740,800	16,527,600	24,049,200	30,100,900	50,789,000	88,489,100
Foochow.....	15,336,640	20,786,206	32,925,212	44,586,092	58,249,851	111,008,338
Kwellin.....	8,611,326	13,415,600	22,302,831	30,420,756	47,330,388	67,243,463
Kunming.....	10,639,044	14,268,566	22,879,379	26,803,099	42,891,802	90,653,125
Kweiyang.....	7,750,613	10,958,495	16,985,051	20,796,268	30,497,559	56,808,250
Kweisui.....	18,330,000	22,085,000	32,254,615	41,526,000	59,228,571	106,321,951
Chengteh.....	21,292,855	27,603,650	33,988,945	44,915,588	69,174,095	184,639,830
Yinchwan.....	22,041,731	28,946,300	38,626,800	62,866,100	94,550,000	123,847,000
Kalgan.....	18,975,550	24,105,961	36,118,975	46,012,862	72,647,983	155,305,663
Taipeh.....	97,487	114,094	133,516	141,532	144,139	148,665

Source: Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics

CHAPTER 19

PUBLIC FINANCE

The seriousness of China's postwar financial situation has been reflected in the runaway inflation and the ever-widening gap between the government's receipts and expenditures. Though budgetary deficits had existed before 1937, the year the Sino-Japanese war broke out, and had averaged as much as 30% of the annual budget, they never reached such staggering proportions as in the years immediately before and after V-J Day.

O. K. Yui, then Minister of Finance, told the National Assembly on April 13, 1948, that the budgetary deficit in 1945 was over CNC\$1,000-billion; 1946, over CNC\$4,300-billion; and 1947, over CNC\$27,000-billion. The sharp increase in deficit in each subsequent year showed the extent of inflation reached by the *fapi*,* the old legal tender notes.

Later, the Gold Yuan underwent similar inflation.

The steady deterioration in China's finances had both remote and immediate causes. It must be remembered that the Chinese economy was never quite sound even before the Sino-Japanese War, as there had been a perennial unfavorable balance of international payments. After eight years of war, that feeble economy was more precarious than ever.

Moreover, the sudden termination of hostilities caught the Chinese government unprepared to cope with problems of reconversion from war to peace which entailed relief, rehabilitation, demobilization and the return of the government machine from Chungking to Nanking.

But the most important cause of the government's financial straits was the communist rebellion. During the first year and a half after V-J Day, the prolonged peace negotiations between the government and the Communist party rendered it impossible for the former to reduce its armed forces as it had originally planned. Especially in the northern and northeastern provinces, the government had to

maintain large armed forces to forestall the latter's expansion. This meant great outlays of military expenses.

When the peace negotiations finally broke down, the Chinese Communists had already built up a greater army than ever before. Finally their open rebellion left the government no choice but to act by force.

While the campaign against the communist rebellion itself has been a most costly operation, communist destruction of lines of communications, especially railways and tele-communications, and the government's efforts to repair them caused much waste of money, materials which were mostly imported, and manpower. In disrupting the flow of goods within the country, the communists made the economic situation even worse.

The communist destruction to lines of communications was so extensive that the following statistics compiled by the Ministry of Communications up to the end of 1947 alone are revealing:

Telegraph-line in the Northeast	6,281 km.
Telegraph-line in north China	4,806 "
Telegraph-line in central China	1,922 "
Rails in north China	3,734 "
Rails in Northeast (1946 alone)	699 "
Bridges in north China	2,868
Bridges in Northeast	506
Railroad stations in north China	409
Railroad stations in Northeast	215

The above figures show only what were completely destroyed, and do not show the number of times that railways and railway bridges were damaged and telegraph lines were cut. In most instances destruction was followed by repairing, usually in record time. This involved huge outlay of money, material and manpower. During the two years of 1946 and 1947, railways, railway bridges and telegraph lines in north China and the northeast were destroyed and cut respectively 1,492, 1,420, and 3,094 times.

* *Fapi* means legal tender, then Chinese National Currency.

The spread of the communist rebellion over wide areas of the country greatly affected production and distribution of farm products, raw materials and manufactured goods. As a result commodity prices in cities reached unprecedented heights. This situation of scarcity-rising-prices-inflation, once set in motion, multiplied with accelerated velocity, and created new abnormalities that added momentum to the inflationary spiral.

Meanwhile, the government was compelled to spend bigger and bigger sums of money, at a time when its income was decreasing. Not wishing further to stimulate commodity prices, it had refrained from increasing the rates of public utilities and government operated railroads, postal and telegraph services as the rising prices would have warranted. To keep them going, however, they had to be subsidized heavily. For the same reason the government did not raise the rates of various revenues and taxes promptly after each major price movement.

The low rates of taxes and charges of government-operated services can be seen from the following facts. On the eve of the currency reform of August 19, 1948, the charge for a first class railroad sleeper ticket from Nanking to Shanghai, 311.04 km., was CNC\$17-million. Calculated on the basis of commodity prices, this was about US\$1.50. An ordinary air-mail letter within China was charged CNC\$115,000. The salt tax was collected at CNC\$450,000 per 50 kilograms. Before 1937, the corresponding charges were CNC\$0.35 and CNC\$6.

Self-imposed unrealistic rates on public utilities and government enterprises and low taxation scales were not the main reasons for the decline of the government's receipts. To evade the strict control of foreign exchange and import and export trade, there has been extensive smuggling in and out of the country. In the case of other sources of revenue, the returns were drastically curtailed as a result of communist expansion.

To meet ever-mounting expenditures with decreasing revenue the only emergency measure possible would be to print more money. That was what occurred in China before the recent currency reform.

In 1948 the government grappled with its financial problems by reducing expenditures to the minimum on the one hand and by tapping new sources of revenue on the other. Superfluous and overlapping government organizations were abolished, and the personnel of existing ones were considerably reduced,

In tapping new sources of revenue the government tried to increase receipts by overhauling the tax-collecting machinery and by readjusting the tax rates upward.

The total returns of land, commodity and salt taxes and customs levies were CNC\$118,300-million in 1945, CNC\$1,267,700-million in 1946 and CNC\$20,631,700-million in 1947. The total returns of these sources of revenue for the first half of 1948 were estimated at CNC\$40,000-billion.

August 19, 1948 was an important date in the history of Chinese public finance. On that day, a new currency, the Gold Yuan notes, was announced. It was a major monetary change, but it was also an over-all financial reform, whereby the government hoped to stabilize the nation's economy and balance the nation's budget.

Due to continued warfare, however, this attempt failed after two months of short success. Inflation returned and commodity prices soared again. On July 2, 1949, the National Government at Canton had to enforce a second nation-wide currency reform by adopting the Silver Dollar system in the hope of stabilizing national economy.

The government's budget for the second half of 1948 showed deficit, but as military and emergency expenditures were not published, the actual amounts could not be ascertained.

Since 1937 the Chinese government has been in a constant struggle to make both ends meet.

In January, 1937, the government announced that the budget for the year would be CNC\$1,000,649,496. China's fiscal year then was from July till the end of the next June.

The emergency expenses occasioned by the war forced the government to revise the budget five times during the year, and increased the annual total expenses of the government to CNC\$1,511,293,184.75. Almost the entire budgetary deficit of the year, \$495,936,228.71, was made up by government loans.

Beginning in 1939, China's fiscal year was made to coincide with the calendar year. Therefore, a half-year budget was prepared for the second half of 1938, from July till the end of the year.

The table on the following page shows the Chinese government's annual deficits from 1938 to 1946.

The government's budget for 1947 showed on paper a clear deficit of over CNC\$2,286,600,000. But actually, the year's total deficit was far greater than

TABLE 1—ANNUAL DEFICITS

Year	Total Budget	Deficit
1938 (July-Dec.).....	CNC\$ 1,293,588,753.00	CNC\$ 437,176,053.00
1939 (Jan.-Dec.).....	2,118,084,120.00	412,688,281.00
1940.....	3,107,235,403.31	619,160,718.31
1941.....	10,732,583,783.64	
1942.....	28,283,312,283.16	10,972,693,940.16
1943.....	57,406,556,045.55	21,170,142,184.55
1944.....	148,739,642,733.63	69,238,210,925.63
1945.....	1,363,576,911,772.51	1,099,732,727,872.51
1946.....	2,524,934,725,000.00	

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance

NOTE: The 1938 to 1945 total budgets include the deficits.

THE BUDGET OF 1947

A. GOVERNMENT REVENUES

(I) Taxes:	
1. Land taxes	CNC\$ 264,127,100,000
2. Direct taxes	943,000,000,000
3. Commodity taxes	1,217,621,700,000
4. Mining taxes	30,000,000,000
5. Customs duties	621,430,000,000
6. Salt tax	535,000,000,000
(II) Profits and incomes of government enterprises:	
7. From government banks and the Central Trust of China	150,522,000,000
8. From the China Textile Industries Corp.	410,006,000,000
9. From the National Resources Commission	30,000,000,000
10. From navigation, railway, air, and land transportation enterprises under the Ministry of Communications	187,092,000,000
11. From other Government enterprises	16,541,000,000
(III) Proceeds from the sale of government assets and goods:	
12. Enemy properties	800,000,000,000
13. U. S. Army surpluses	1,100,000,000,000
14. Gold and foreign exchange	350,000,000,000
15. Surplus foodstuffs and government scraps	50,000,000,000
(IV) Taxation in kind and food requisitions:	
16. Levy of land taxes in kind and food requisitions....	220,800,000,000
(V) 17. Fines, reparations, fees, interests on government assets, and contributions	107,156,870,000
Total	CNC\$7,033,296,670,000

B. GOVERNMENT EXPENSES

(I) National defense and related matters (Not including CNC\$1,200-billion for military re-conversion expenses)	CNC\$3,813,521,000,000
(II) Communications, natural resources, water conservancy, agriculture and forestry, national health, and land administration	1,553,386,000,000
(III) Relief and rehabilitation	1,422,322,000,000
(IV) Government administrative expenditures including the expenses of the five yuan and their subordinate ministries	876,500,000,000
(V) Subsidies including those to provincial and municipal governments	651,523,000,000
(VI) Education and cultural matters	342,181,000,000
(VII) Loan services	256,109,000,000
(VIII) Pensions and compensations for public functionaries....	404,500,000,000
Total	CNC\$9,320,042,000,000

that. Though the exact figure was unavailable, the Ministry of Finance revealed that repeated readjustments of the

year's government expenses boosted the total budgetary deficit to well over CNC\$32-trillion.

THE BUDGET OF 1948

BUDGET OF THE FIRST HALF OF 1948

For the first six months of 1948, the government's budget showed a deficit of CNC\$37,935,703,440,000. The total government expenses had been estimated at CNC\$96,276,600,410,000, and the total re-

ceipts from all revenues at CNC\$58,340,896,970,000. The following tabulates the first half-year budget for 1948 as approved by the Legislative Yuan:—

A. ORDINARY GOVERNMENT REVENUES

1. Commodity tax (36.776% of total government income).....	CNC \$9,788,000,000,000
2. Income taxes (18.862%)	5,020,000,000,000
3. Salt taxes (15.029%)	4,000,000,000,000
4. Fees (2.898%)	771,000,000,000
5. Sales tax (2.818%)	750,000,000,000
6. Customs duties (16.532%)	4,400,000,000,000
7. Profits of government enterprises (1.505%)	400,000,000,000
8. Miscellaneous (1.247%)	331,900,000,000
9. Mining taxes (0.797%)	212,000,000,000
10. Fines and reparations (0.624%)	166,100,000,000
11. Sale proceeds of government assets (0.476%)	126,700,000,000
12. Inheritance taxes (0.113%)	30,000,000,000
13. Accrued interests on government properties (0.009%)	16,000,000,000
14. Contributions and donations (0.060%)	2,500,000,000
15. Incomes of government enterprises (0.002%)	600,000,000
Total	CNC\$26,014,800,000,000

B. SPECIAL GOVERNMENT INCOMES

1. Loans (54.457% of total of such incomes).....	CNC\$37,935,000,000,000
2. Sale proceeds of government assets and goods (23.686%)	16,500,000,000,000
3. Proceeds from government enterprises (6.529%)	4,548,300,000,000
4. Customs duties (3.155%)	2,197,500,000,000
5. Levies of taxes in kind and food requisitions (3.043%)	2,120,000,000,000
6. 36th Year (1947) U. S. Currency Treasury Notes (2.957%)	2,060,000,000,000
7. Excessive profits tax (2.297%)	1,600,000,000,000
8. Land taxes (1.823%)	1,270,000,000,000
9. Income taxes (1.436%)	1,000,000,000,000
10. Business taxes (0.617%)	430,000,000,000
Total	CNC\$69,660,800,000,000

C. ORDINARY GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES

1. Ministry of Defense* (41.53% of such entire expenditures)	CNC\$11,054,200,000,000
2. Loan services (14.737%)	3,922,200,000,000
3. Education (10.893%)	2,899,200,000,000
4. Ministry of Finance* (9.401%)	2,502,200,000,000
5. Ministry of Food* (7.792%)	2,121,800,000,000
6. Ministry of Justice* (5.156%)	1,372,300,000,000

C. ORDINARY GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES—(Continued)

7. Secondary budget reserve (2.59%)	689,700,000,000
8. Ministry of Interior* (1.270%)	338,100,000,000
9. Ministry of Communications* (1.266%)	337,100,000,000
10. Ministry of Water Conservancy (0.62%)	166,800,000,000
11. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry* (0.491%)	130,700,000,000
12. Ministry of Land* (0.474%)	126,200,000,000
13. The National Government* (0.444%)	118,200,000,000
14. Ministry of Health* (0.433%)	115,300,000,000
15. Ministry of Social Affairs* (0.429%)	141,100,000,000
16. Ministry of Foreign Affairs* (0.405%)	107,700,000,000
17. Ministry of Economic Affairs* (0.314%)	83,500,000,000
18. Ministry of Audit* (0.296%)	78,700,000,000
19. Executive Yuan* (0.243%)	64,600,000,000
20. Administrative expenses (0.202%)	58,300,000,000
21. Examination Yuan* (0.186%)	49,400,000,000
22. Control Yuan* (0.124%)	33,000,000,000
23. Judicial Yuan* (0.298%)	26,100,000,000
24. Mongolian-Tibetan Affairs Commission* (0.094%)	24,900,000,000
25. National Resources Commission* (0.086%)	22,800,000,000
26. Legislative Yuan* (0.073%)	19,400,000,000
27. Pensions of civil servants (0.085%)	22,700,000,000
28. Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission (0.072%)	19,200,000,000
29. Subsidies (0.005%)	1,200,000,000
Total	CNC\$26,646,600,000,000

* Including subordinate organizations.

D. SPECIAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES

1. Living allowance readjustments and similar allowances (45.963% of total special expenditures)	CNC\$32,000,000,000,000
2. Ministry of Defense (31.965%)	22,267,200,000,000
3. Ministry of Food (5.579%)	3,886,600,000,000
4. Ministry of Communications (5.828%)	4,059,800,000,000
5. Provincial and municipal subsidies (4.195%)	2,922,400,000,000
6. Relief and Rehabilitation (3.589%)	2,500,000,000,000
7. Subsidy reserve fund (1.436%)	1,000,000,000,000
8. National Resources Commission (0.891%)	620,600,000,000
9. Ministry of Water Conservancy (0.545%)	379,900,000,000
10. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (0.027%)	190,000,000,000
11. Ministry of Health (0.009%)	6,000,000,000
Total	CNC\$69,832,500,000,000

**BUDGET OF THE SECOND
HALF OF 1948**

After the formation of the constitutional government in July 1948, Premier Wong Wen-hao's first task was to compile the government's budget for the second half of 1948, and to present it to the Legislative Yuan for approval.

Because of the campaign against the communist rebellion and the heavy military expenses involved, Premier Wong divided the national budget into two

parts, the first consisting of ordinary expenditures to be covered by its regular incomes, and the other for military and emergency expenditures to be met by special incomes such as proceeds from the disposal of enemy properties, government assets and surplus supplies.

The budget was presented to the Legislative Yuan towards the end of July, and it was passed with only minor modifications. It was formally announced by President Chiang Kai-shek on August 12.

A. GOVERNMENT REVENUES, JULY TO DECEMBER, 1948

1. Income tax (regular)	CNC	\$19,700,000,000,000
2. Inheritance tax (regular)		9,000,000,000,000
3. Sales tax (regular)		11,000,000,000,000
4. Special business tax (regular)		4,500,000,000,000
5. Customs duties (regular)		100,914,353,460,000
6. Commodity tax (regular)		112,700,000,000,000
7. Salt tax (regular)		8,100,000,000,000
8. Mining tax (regular)		2,300,036,000,000
9. Business tax (regular)		5,000,000,000,000
10. Land tax (regular)		12,167,545,000,000
11. Fines and reparations (regular)		3,330,500,000,000
12. Fees (regular)		5,127,796,540,000
(special)		572,954,500,000
13. Interests on national assets (regular)		225,289,266,000
(special)		300,000,000
14. Proceeds from sale of government assets and goods		
(regular)		10,701,400,000
(special)		90,791,000,000
15. Profits of government enterprises (regular)		16,700,838,460,000
(special)		20,075,000,000,000
16. Incomes of government enterprises (regular)		1,834,090,000
17. Contributions and donations (special)		50,000,000,000
18. Miscellaneous incomes (regular)		53,561,270,000
Total	CNC	\$331,621,500,986,000

B. GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES

1. National Assembly	CNC\$	14,205,000,000
2. Tsung Tung Fu (President's Office)		725,200,380,000
3. Executive Yuan		2,129,622,080,000
4. Legislative Yuan		1,974,782,830,000
5. Judicial Yuan		209,861,890,000
6. Examination Yuan		360,230,789,000
7. Control Yuan		221,164,620,000
8. Ministry of Interior		3,166,295,290,000
9. Ministry of Foreign Affairs		3,303,954,480,000
10. Ministry of Defense		130,321,131,300,000
11. Ministry of Finance		15,918,114,971,000
12. Ministry of Education		49,786,080,150,000
13. Ministry of Justice		9,908,558,800,000
14. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry		3,695,389,590,000
15. Ministry of Industry and Commerce		784,535,990,000
16. Ministry of Communications		5,338,517,864,000
17. Ministry of Social Affairs		2,751,544,110,000
18. Ministry of Water Conservancy		3,484,801,650,000
19. Ministry of Land		1,533,002,200,000
20. Ministry of Health		1,767,632,254,000
21. Ministry of Food		35,349,789,644,000
22. National Resources Commission		12,828,810,000
23. Mongolian-Tibetan Commission		252,857,250,000
24. Overseas Affairs Commission		265,134,497,000
25. Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics		102,440,300,000
26. Ministry of Audit		413,202,410,000
27. Loan services		37,221,843,900,000
28. Pensions and compensations for public functionaries		171,032,240,000
29. Subsidies to provincial and municipal governments		3,509,720,380,000
30. Second budgetary reserve fund		8,829,225,417,000
Total	CNC	\$323,512,701,086,000

DIRECT TAXES*

There are five direct taxes in China. They are the income, excess profits, inheritance, stamp and business taxes.

I. INCOME TAX

This tax is levied on: Business profit, emoluments and salaries, interest on capital and investment, rents on land and property, and temporary incomes.

(a) Income on business profit: The income of all profit-making firms, corporations, sole-owned firms and other organizations are liable to tax. The tax rate ranges from five percent up to 30% of the net income. A 10% reduction on the net incomes of public utilities, mining industries, and transport enterprises is provided for.

Conditions for claiming exemptions from this tax as of August, 1948, included: (1) if the annual total net income did not exceed CNC\$60-million; (2) net income of educational, cultural, public welfare, philanthropic organizations that were used solely for their own maintenance; and (3) net income of cooperative societies which were properly registered with local government authorities and which distributed all profits among their members.

(b) Income tax on emoluments and salaries: This tax is further subdivided into (1) earnings of all free occupations and services, and (2) salaries of civil servants, military personnel, and public and private employees. The rate is three percent on the former and one to four percent on the latter.

The following categories (August, 1948) were exempt from income tax: (1) If the annual income did not exceed CNC\$36-million; (2) if the monthly income under class 2 did not exceed CNC\$3-million; (3) monetary compensation to civil servants and members of the nation's military and police forces who died or suffered injuries while on official duty; (4) salaries of primary school teachers and other employees; (5) monetary compensations, pensions and relief funds to the disabled, laborers, and people without means of making a living; and (6) incomes of foreign diplomatic personnel in China representing countries which accord reciprocal treatment to Chinese diplomatic personnel.

(c) Income tax on interests on capital and investment: This tax is assessed on

the interest and premiums of all government bonds, company stocks, bank deposits, and loans of non-financial organizations. The rate is a flat five percent. No minimum is set but the following categories are exempt: (1) Interest on deposits of government organizations; (2) interest on compulsory savings of civil servants, members of armed and police forces, and laborers; and (3) interest on funds of educational, cultural, public welfare, and philanthropic organizations.

(d) Income tax on rentals on land and property: All rentals on land, buildings, ships, cars, and machines are liable. The rate is a flat four percent and the taxable minimum, as in August, 1948, was CNC\$20-million annually. Exemptions may be claimed under the following conditions: (1) annual total income less than CNC\$20-million; (2) buildings and property belonging to government organizations; and (3) buildings and property belonging to educational, cultural, public welfare, and philanthropic organizations.

(e) Tax on temporary incomes: Six percent is levied on the temporary incomes of all firms. Incomes less than CNC\$10-million and the earnings of hawkers were tax exempt, effective 1948.

In addition to the foregoing five categories, there is the Aggregate Income Tax. This was levied on the net incomes of individuals who made CNC\$300-million or more annually after paying the regular taxes. The rate ranged from five percent between CNC\$300-million and CNC\$500-million and all the way up to 40% on aggregate incomes exceeding CNC\$500-million.

II. EXCESS PROFITS TAX

The tax, as its name implies, applies to the most profitable businesses. For this reason, it is levied on profits that exceed 60% of the capital. Businesses falling into the following five categories are taxable:

(1) Business firms, including all dealers and firms engaged in the buying and selling of agricultural products and manufactured goods.

(2) Banking and trust businesses, including all banks and banking corporations, and trust, insurance, investment and real estate companies.

(3) Business agencies.

(4) Construction businesses, including all construction firms.

(5) All manufacturing businesses.

The rate is from 10% to 60% with the minimum taxable profit that exceeds 60% of the capital. The excess profits of enterprises of cultural, educational, public

* The sums of money used in this section are all in *fapi* (C.N.C.), as effective in 1948. These figures were converted into Gold Yuan in August, 1948, and into Silver Yuan in July, 1949.

welfare, and philanthropic organizations are exempt provided that all their profits are to be used solely for their own maintenance.

III. INHERITANCE TAX

The collection of the present Chinese inheritance tax is based on the following four conditions:—

(1) It is collected on properties within the territory of China left by Chinese or foreign nationals who die in China.

(2) It is collected on properties in China left by foreigners who die in China, and not on properties outside of China.

(3) It is collected on properties in China and in foreign countries of Chinese nationals who had resided in China before death.

(4) Property of Chinese nationals who had no residence in China before death is tax exempt.

Properties liable include the following:—

(1) Movable property: According to the Chinese Civil Code, all that is not immovable, is movable property. Thus gold, jewels, machines, and finished products are considered movable property.

(2) Immovable property: According to the Chinese Civil Code, "Immovable property consists of land and fixed objects on it. Its products not separated therefrom are also considered part thereof." Thus, land, buildings, and mineral deposits are all immovable property.

(3) All rights of the deceased that do not fall into either the movable or the immovable categories, such as trade marks, copyrights, and mining rights.

The rates, as effective in 1948, ranged from one percent on the minimum of CNC\$2-million up to 60% for sums above CNC\$100-million.

Under the present inheritance law, the following cases are tax exempt:—

(1) If the total property left by the deceased is under CNC\$1-million (August, 1948).

(2) Property left by members of the national armed forces and civil servants who die in war or as a result of injuries suffered in war, whose total valuation is under CNC\$5-million (August, 1948).

(3) Cultural, historical, and art objects and books that have been registered with the local inheritance tax collection offices by their inheritors. However, the tax will be levied should the articles change ownership through sale.

(4) Donations to government organizations.

(5) Donations to schools, hospitals, and libraries.

(6) Copyrights, patent rights, and art works of the deceased.

(7) Allowance to the children of the deceased. The allowance is limited to five percent of the total property bequeathed to each offspring and the five percent is again limited to CNC\$100,000 (August, 1948).

(8) Inherited property which had been taxed less than three years ago.

(9) Property of the deceased which had been given away or transferred to another over five years ago.

(10) The private property of dependents of the deceased, husband, wife, or children, already registered as such.

IV. SPECIAL BUSINESS TAX

This tax is levied on banking, trust and insurance businesses, stock exchange and their affiliated profit-making organizations, import trade, international and inter-provincial communication concerns, and all other competitive government or semi-government profit-making enterprises.

It is based upon the total scheme of business done or on the net profit. In the former case, the rate is $1\frac{1}{2}\%$, in the latter 4%. These rates are reduced by half in the case of government and semi-government enterprises which manufacture consumer goods. Factories and producers who have paid a factory or production tax are exempt.

Before the National Total Mobilization Act was enacted in 1947, the tax was collected monthly although it was assessed on a quarterly or semi-annual basis. Since then, it has been collected quarterly or semi-annually.

V. STAMP TAX

This tax is levied on nearly all documents, deeds, receipts, and negotiable instruments. It is also levied on a progressive scale on all sales receipts above a fixed minimum, cash and commodity receipts, bills, account books and deeds of assets, stocks and bonds, loans, credits, and mortgage deeds, and admission tickets to theaters, cinemas, athletic meets and exhibitions, at the rate of CNC\$30 per CNC\$10,000 (August, 1948).

On deeds and receipts of insurance companies, contractors, commercial orders, and brokers and agents, the rate in August, 1948, was CNC\$1,000 for sums from CNC\$100,000 to CNC\$5-million; CNC\$5,000 for sums from CNC\$5-million to CNC\$50-million; CNC\$20,000 for sums from CNC\$50-million to CNC\$500-million; and CNC\$100,000 on all sums over CNC\$500-million.

There are numerous other documents that require the affixation of stamps to make them valid. The general principle for determining the tax on each document is this: the tax shall be in proportion to the amount. If the document is only a certificate such as personal identification cards or a school diploma, the amount of the tax is fixed.

The tax stamps are easily obtainable. Besides post offices, all government banks and their branches, the Central Trust of China, provincial, municipal, and *hsien* banks, and 59 commercial banks and their branches have been authorized by the Ministry of Finance to sell them.

CUSTOMS REVENUE

China's postwar customs revenue has been limited by her import and export control policy, necessitated in both instances by her shortage of foreign exchange. Extensive smuggling in south China has been another contributing factor toward the drop in China's customs revenue.

To use her limited foreign exchange to the best advantage, China first imposed restrictions on imports early in 1946. Under these provisional measures, imports were classified into three groups: unrestricted, controlled, and prohibited goods. Exports were also divided into the unrestricted and the banned categories. Meanwhile, to promote export trade, export duties were abolished in August of the same year.

With the enforcement of the above measures, there was a marked increase in the volume of foreign trade. Customs returns likewise increased. The total value of imports of 1946 was over CNC\$1,501,165-million as compared to the previous year's CNC\$14,199-million, an increase of over a hundred-fold.

The total net worth of the year's exports was over CNC\$412,111-million, representing an increase of 90 times over the previous year's CNC\$4,484-million.

Toward the end of 1946, because of unstable economic conditions the government was forced to take drastic measures to cope with the situation. The export-import regulations enforced in March were revised in November. Quotas were introduced to control the imports.

This import quota system was in force up to October, 1948. Quotas for various imports were fixed every three months by the Import-Export Board and then allotted to importers. The quotas were in terms of U. S. currency.

The Chinese government supplied all the foreign exchange required to cover the import quotas, first at its official exchange rate and after August, 1947, at the Foreign Exchange Equalization Board's flexible open market exchange rate.

As the government supplied foreign exchange to the importers, it required the exporters to sell to it their foreign exchange earnings at a rate commensurate with the rate of foreign exchange sold to importers. This ruling proved to be an impediment to the export trade, as the government's exchange rate usually lagged far behind the realistic open market price. This not only rendered exports unprofitable, but made exporting a losing business. As a result, the government had to subsidize certain exports.

Because of limitations on imports and exports, customs revenue did not increase in the postwar period, although the government had regained not only all commercial ports lost to the enemy during the war, but those on Taiwan.

The worst enemy to China's customs income in the first two postwar years was south China smuggling. It was so rampant and extensive that in 1947 alone, over 23,000 cases of smuggling were apprehended by the authorities. Confiscated smuggled goods totalled over CNC\$300-billion, exclusive of cases still pending at the end of 1947.

The net worth of the imports in 1947 was CNC\$10,681,326,574,000 and that of exports, CNC\$6,376,504,297,000. The imports consisted mainly of cotton, machinery, tools, iron and steel, paper, gasoline, rubber, diesel oil, dyestuffs, vehicles, and tobacco leaves. The principal exports were tung oil, hog bristles, soybeans, cotton cloth, foodstuffs, vegetable oils, tea, leather products, cotton yarns, and silks.

Net imports during the first four months of 1948 totalled CNC\$18,484,776,449,000, and exports, CNC\$12,268,361,386,000.

Customs revenue totalled CNC\$2,315,470,520,000 during 1947 and CNC\$6,213,952,517,000 during the first four months of 1948. In 1946, receipts totalled CNC\$325,550-million and in 1945, CNC\$4,740-million. It is difficult to say if the revenue had actually increased in the last two years, for the value of the Chinese dollar was depreciating steadily and the revenue was from the whole of China instead of from the interior provinces only, known during the war as Free China.

To stamp out large-scale smuggling, the Chinese Government needed the cooperation of two colonial governments: Hongkong and Macao. Because of their proximity to the China mainland, these

two colonies have been used as operational bases by the smugglers. Negotiations with them resulted in two separate anti-smuggling agreements.

At the same time the Chinese customs adopted measures to strengthen its preventive service. More patrol boats of the Chinese Navy were placed at its disposal. It ordered 16 mine-sweepers and 130 patrol boats of various descriptions from the United States.

Anti-smuggling measures were adopted by the Legislative Yuan in February, 1948, which gave the Chinese customs the authority to deal with all smuggling cases.

Among products smuggled out of China are tungsten ore, tung oil, rapeseed oil, hog bristles, cotton yarn and cloth, and foodstuffs. Articles smuggled into the country are chiefly banned luxuries, controlled foreign goods, gold and foreign currencies. They include cosmetics, nylon products, woolen piece-goods, industrial chemicals, drugs, dyestuffs, paper, and cigarettes.

While the Chinese Communists' extensive smuggling activities were aimed at undermining the government's financial

**TABLE 2: CHINESE CUSTOMS
REVENUE, 1947**

Month		Total
January	CNC\$	43,981,487
February		87,288,869
March		127,990,697
April		114,741,205
May		133,684,069
June		114,675,677
July		107,844,375
August		116,920,528
September		221,892,282
October		326,762,870
November		421,598,280
December		498,090,181

Grand Total CNC\$2,315,470,520

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance

**TABLE 3: CHINESE CUSTOMS
REVENUE, JANUARY-APRIL, 1948**

Month		Total
January	CNC\$	852,432,157
February		850,527,629
March		1,619,355,968
April		2,891,636,745

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance

TABLE 4. PRINCIPAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1947

IMPORTS	EXPORTS
1. Cotton, raw	1. Oil, wood
2. Machinery and tools	2. Cotton piecegoods
3. Liquid fuel	3. Bristles
4. Paper	4. Cotton yarn
5. Iron and steel	5. Beans and peas
6. Vehicles	6. Tea
7. Gasoline	7. Silk
8. Rubber and rubber products	8. Wolfram
9. Tobacco leaf	9. Oil tea
10. Chemicals	10. Silk piecegoods
11. Oil, kerosene	11. Eggs and egg products
12. Flax, ramie, hemp, jute and their products	12. Salt
13. Timber	13. Antimony
14. Wool	14. Seed-cake
15. Rice and paddy	15. Hats, buntal fibre, hemp straw, rush
16. Aniline dyes, and other coal tar dyes	
17. Electrical fittings, fixture and materials	
18. Woolen piecegoods, blankets and rugs	
19. Sulphate ammonia	
20. Wheat flour	
21. Soda ash and caustic soda	
22. Miscellaneous metal products	
23. Railway sleepers	
24. Lubricating oil	
25. Black sulphur	
26. Telephonic and telegraphic instruments and parts (including radio sets and parts).	

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance

position, the other smugglers were in it for the profits. Despite the difference in motives both damaged the national economy.

China was one of the participating nations in the World Trade Conference held in Geneva in 1947. She was also a signatory to one of its agreements to reduce tariff on certain imports. Preliminary Chinese business reaction to China's adherence to this agreement was unfavorable, as it was contended that the country's infant industries would not be able to compete with foreign products without adequate tariff protection. The Ministry

of Finance dispelled this fear by reminding the public that in the first place, the reduction would be reciprocal, and that China would export more to foreign countries, especially to the United States. The ministry also declared that China's feeble industrial foundation was taken into full consideration before the conclusion of the tariff reduction agreement, and that other signatory countries were considerate enough to have permitted China to limit the reduction to only such imports as would affect her domestic industries the least.

**TABLE 5—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS; NET VALUE OF MERCHANDISE,
1947 AND 1948 (JAN.-APRIL)**
Unit: CNC\$1,000

	Net Imports	Net Exports	Excess of Imports
1947 TOTAL.....	10,681,326,574	6,376,504,297	4,304,826,277
January.....	150,625,438	48,475,339	102,150,099
February.....	216,888,781	81,882,144	135,006,637
March.....	430,050,012	144,985,432	285,064,580
April.....	520,461,737	210,922,464	309,539,273
May.....	521,392,762	415,131,864	106,264,898
June.....	532,461,420	266,708,150	265,753,270
July.....	721,638,348	236,961,257	484,677,091
August.....	938,510,954	478,098,595	460,412,359
September.....	1,440,528,398	286,725,778	1,153,802,620
October.....	1,746,766,278	530,040,429	1,216,725,849
November.....	1,678,770,397	1,560,524,082	118,246,315
December.....	1,783,232,049	2,116,048,763*
1948 Jan.-April.....	18,484,776,449	12,268,361,386	6,216,415,063
January.....	2,080,397,006	1,738,662,318	341,734,688
February.....	1,969,006,087	1,724,455,242	244,550,845
March.....	6,557,504,673	3,515,126,328	3,042,378,345
April.....	7,877,868,683	5,290,117,498	2,587,751,185

* Excess of exports CNC\$332,816,714,000

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance

COMMODITY TAX

In its broad sense commodity tax in China covers the consolidated tax, the tax on native tobacco and wines and the tax on minerals. In its narrow sense, it is the consolidated tax.

Commodity tax is levied on 13 items: cigars, cigarettes, processed tobacco leaves, imported liquors, wines and beer, matches, sugar and sugar products, cotton and cotton yarn, wheat flour, cement, tea, hides and furs, joss paper, beverages and cosmetics.

The consolidated tax was first introduced in 1928 as an experiment to unify the Chinese system of taxation. Prior to that a commodity was taxed at each

place it moved through by different regional tax organizations. At first the consolidated tax was applied only to cigars and cigarettes. By 1937, it had been broadened to cover five classes of goods: cotton and cotton yarn, matches, cement, wheat flour, and imported liquors, beer, processed tobacco, and alcohol.

After the outbreak of the war, when China lost almost all of her coastal cities, she also lost over 90% of her income from the commodity tax. That forced the government to expand the taxable list, which up to October, 1948 had 13 items.

The Internal Revenue Administration in the Ministry of Finance, to enlarge the sources of revenue, assessed goods not according to quantitative measurements as

before the war, but levied on an *ad valorem* basis beginning September, 1941. Early in March of the same year, government monopolies in salt, tea, cigars and cigarettes, matches, and sugar and sugar products were created as an experiment. In the following year monopoly bureaus were established in various parts of the country.

The sugar monopoly was repealed in 1944, the tobacco and match monopolies went in January, 1945. The tea monopoly was never strictly enforced although the product was collected and distributed solely by the China National Tea Corporation. The salt monopoly was abolished in January, 1945. But in Taiwan province, government monopoly of camphor, tobacco and wines continued.

The consolidated tax on tea, timber, hides and furs, chinaware and earthenware, joss paper, wheat flour, cement, alcohol, and beverages was lifted in January, 1945, but it was restored in October, 1946. Cosmetics has since been added to the listed of taxable commodities.

During the war, following the adoption of the land tax in kind in 1941, it first became possible to collect consolidated tax on cotton yarn, wheat flour, and sugar in kind. The products so collected were distributed by the Daily Necessities Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs as a way to stabilize commodity prices.

When the war ended in 1945, the collection of consolidated tax in kind was

suspended, and instead, payments were accepted in the national currency.

With a view to encouraging the influx of yarn, flour and sugar from foreign countries and Japanese occupied areas, they were exempted from import duties during the war. The levies, however, were restored in the postwar period.

Mining and mineral taxes were revised in the postwar period. Tungsten, antimony, tin, mercury, were controlled and enjoyed special tax rates during the war. Since V-J Day tin and mercury have been struck off the list. Wartime controls on saltpeter and sulfur were also lifted after the conclusion of the war, and they are not taxable as all other non-controlled minerals. Gold and gold mining are still exempted from commodity tax.

Domestic tobacco leaves, pipe tobacco and wine were subject to 40%, 20%, and 60% *ad valorem* respectively during the war. In 1946, the rates were revised to 50%, 30%, and 80% respectively.

Following the currency reform in August, 1948, commodity tax on rolled tobacco, cured tobacco leaves, joss paper, imported wine and beer, domestic wine, tobacco leaves, and pipe tobacco was raised to augment the government's revenue as a means to balance the national budget.

TABLE 6: COMMODITY TAX RATES

April to July, 1948

Tax	Category of Commodities	Rate
Commodity (Consolidated) taxes	Cotton yarn	7%
	Sugar	25%
	Matches	20%
	Rolled tobacco	100%
	Cured tobacco leaves	30%
	Imported wine and beer or Chinese imitations	100%
	Woolen yarn and thread	15%
	Hides	15%
	Cement	15%
	Carbonated water and similar beverages	20%
	Joss paper	60%
	Cosmetics	45%
Mineral taxes	Coal and iron	3%
	Others	5-10%
Domestic wine and tobacco	Leaves	60%
	Pipe tobacco	40%
	Wine	100%

TABLE 7: COMMODITY TAX RATES

August, 1948

Tax	Category of Commodities	Rate
Commodity (Consolidated) taxes	Cotton yarn	10%
	Sugar	25%
	Matches	20%
	Rolled tobacco	120%
	Cured tobacco leaves	30%
	Imported wine and beer or Chinese imitations	120%
	Woolen yarn and thread	15%
	Hides	15%
	Cement	15%
	Carbonated water and similar beverages	30%
	Joss paper	60%
	Cosmetics	45%
Mineral taxes	Coal and iron	3%
	Others	5-10%
Domestic wine and tobacco	Leaves	60%
	Pipe tobacco	40%
	Wine	100%

SALT TAX

In January, 1945, the government discontinued its salt monopoly by permitting the people to manufacture, transport, and sell salt, while reserving to itself the power of supervision.

In February, 1946 the Executive Yuan adopted an outline of "Salt Administration" in which the government's new policy with regard to salt was spelled out. In March, 1947 the "Salt Administration Regulations" superseding the old "Outline," were passed by the Legislative Yuan. Though the new and old laws were based on similar principles, the new regulations aimed at removing a number of malpractices in the Chinese salt industry and business. One of these was the age-old custom that the salt produced at each producing center could be sold only to a few distributors, and the latter could only distribute it within certain designated areas.

To ensure purity in table salt, the regulations required that first-grade salt must contain more than 90% sodium chloride; and second-grade salt, at least 85%. Salt of both grades must not contain more than 5% water. No salt containing less than 85% sodium chloride should be distributed for human consumption. Besides these two, other grades permitted by rules were salt for fishery, industrial and agricultural enterprises.

The salt taxes were reserved by the regulations to the state; the local governments were not allowed to levy them.

The rates were to be fixed by law, and were to be collected only once at the place of production.

According to law, the government supervises and coordinates the production and distribution of salt. After the Ministry of Finance fixes the annual production figure, salt administration organizations allocate the production quota to the various producing centers. Salt distribution is based on population, industrial, agricultural and fishery needs of the consumption areas.

Salt taxation has been greatly simplified in the postwar period. Before 1937, while passing from its producer to the consumer, it was subjected to taxation scores of time by both the central and local governments. At the end of 1946, taxes had been reduced to only four and all surcharges were abolished. The assessment on agricultural and fishery salt was extremely low, while that on industrial salt was removed in October, 1946.

Before the currency reform in August, 1948, the salt tax had not kept pace with commodity prices. Up to the end of that month, it was collected at the rate of CNC\$450,000 per 50 kg. After the issuance of the Gold Yuan notes*, the rate was revised to GY\$8 per 50 kg. for high-grade salt to GY\$5.60 for low-grade salt.

The revenues from salt in the first six months of 1948 totalled CNC\$8,800-billion. Administrative costs for the collection of this sum were CNC\$1,800-billion, about 23% of the total receipts.

TABLE 8: COMPARISON OF COMMODITY TAX RECEIPTS
UNIT: CNC\$1,000

Category	Name of Article	Rate	Receipts 1945	Receipts 1946	Receipts January- June, 1947
Mineral prod- ucts tax	Coal and Iron	3%
	Metallic and Non-Metallic	5%-10%	\$787,005	\$3,518,397	\$24,207,436
Commodity (Consolidated) Tax	Cigar	60%	\$17,298,308	\$441,864,517	\$656,205,386
	Cigarettes	100%			
	Cotton yarn	7%			
	Imported Liquor wine	100%			
	Matches	20%			
	Sugar products	25%			
	Cured tobacco	30%			
	Cement	15%			
	Wheat flour	2.5%			
	Furs, hides	15%			
	Tea	10%			
	Cosmetics	45%			
	Beverages	20%			
	Joss Paper	60%			
	Crackers				
	Lumber, bamboo				
	Porcelain Pottery				
	Alcohol				
Domestic tobacco and wines	Pipe tobacco	30%	\$9,182,737	\$64,006,829	\$101,277,147
	Leaves	50%			
	Wines	80%			
Miscellaneous			\$41,172	\$402,851	\$220,312
	Grand Total.....		\$27,309,222	\$509,792,594	\$781,910,281

Source: Internal Revenue Administration, Ministry of Finance

In October, 1948, the Chinese Salt Administration maintained 960 offices in various parts of the country with a staff of 13,269 members as compared with 1,408 salt tax offices and 15,339 staff members at the end of the war. During the war, when the area under the control of the National Government was much smaller, the corresponding numbers had been 1,567 and 28,231, respectively.

Salt-producing centers were divided into 15 tax administrative area: The Northeast, Changlu (in East Hopei), Shantung, Liang Hwai (both banks of the Hwai river), Shanghai, Liang Che (east and west Chekiang), Fukien, Liang Kwang (Kwangtung and Kwangsi), Chwan Kang (Szechwan and Sikang), Chwan Pei (north Szechwan), Yunnan, the Northwest, Shensi, Shansi and Taiwan. Their combined annual total production was estimated at around 3-billion kg. (60-million piculs).

**TABLE 9: SALT REVENUE—
1937 TO 1946**

Year	Total
1937CNC\$	148,830,649.49
1938	62,397,996.77
1939	113,276,254.16
1940	105,100,145.62
1941	125,362,933.38
1942	1,437,372,249.04
1943	1,668,975,232.74
1944	18,093,009,997.36
1945	61,908,917,031.94
1946	206,279,874,138.02

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance

**TABLE 10: SALT PRODUCED IN 1946
(Unit: picul)**

District	Quantity
Changlu	9,783,457.16
Shantung	2,876,430.59
Northwest	193,340.58
Shensi	137,594.56
Shansi	280,295.56
Northeast	502,999.41
Anhui	1,467,292.40
Hupei	58,954.58
Hunan	3,504.18
Northern Szechwan	1,725,826.77
Szechwan-Sikang	6,365,109.16
Chekiang	3,817,951.37
Shanghai	128,421.30
Kwangtung-Kwangsi	4,465,569.64
Fukien	1,003,496.88
Taiwan	3,836,784.46
Yunnan	843,338.93
Total	37,490,367.53

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance

* One Gold Yuan equivalent then to CNC\$3-million.

LAND TAX

In 1941, all provincial land tax was turned over to the National Government, and was collected in kind. Its rate varied from province to province.

This form of taxation was enforced to meet the armed services' food needs during the war. However, as the war continued, the government found that even this was not enough to feed the armed forces and civil personnel. Therefore in 1942, in addition to the collection of the land tax in kind in provinces where there was surplus, the government bought grains with either national currency or with Food Treasury Notes. The Treasury Food Notes were issued by the government in September 1941. They bore the names of the county and the province where they were issued in denominations of one-tenth of a picul up to 100 piculs or 5,000 kg.

After the introduction of this cash purchase program, the government found that in certain provinces like Szechwan and Chekiang, the large amount of money thus put into circulation stimulated food prices considerably. Therefore, the cash payment was discontinued in 1943. Instead, all government purchases were paid in the Food Treasury Notes. The redemption of these notes was to commence the fifth year after their issuance, and to be completed within five years.

In 1944, the payment of the Food Treasury Notes was also discontinued, and the government simply acknowledged the amount of food it had received from the farmers in addition to the land tax in kind on the receipts and promised to repay the amounts borrowed in five years.

During the war, all the grains collected or requisitioned from the farmers went to the National Government. But as the local governments also needed funds to cover administrative expenditures, the National Government authorized an additional collection of grains from 1942 until the end of the war.

After the war, the government turned over 70% of the grains it collected as land tax to the local governments, and kept for itself only 30%. It was the government's original plan to terminate early the collection of this tax. However, the communist rebellion has made this impossible. War, inflation, and soaring commodity prices also made it necessary for the government to ration grains in the major cities as a measure of stabilizing food prices.

FOREIGN LOANS

China's foreign loans may be grouped into two main periods. The first period covers all those made prior to 1927, the year of the establishment of the National Government, and the second period covers loans contracted from 1927 up to the fall of 1948.

The National Government honored all the foreign loans contracted by previous regimes, including the overthrown Manchu dynasty, and promised to make good principal and interest. Up to the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in 1937, it had cleared nearly two-thirds of the loans. Even during the early years of the war, it managed under great difficulties to continue repayments. Only when all of her main sources of revenue had been lost to the enemy in the war did it announce the suspension of repayment in January 1939, which was accepted by the creditor nations.

The war necessitated the importation of large quantities of military supplies and communication materials. Therefore, China contracted a number of foreign loans for their purchase.

The first of these was the US\$50-million Sino-Soviet Barter Credit Loan of March 1, 1938 that carried an annual interest of 3%. The complete redemption period was set at five years, beginning from October 31, 1938.

This was followed by the second and third credit loans of US\$50-million and US\$150-million each. The second loan was made on the same terms as the first, while for the third one the period of maturity was set at 10 years.

In March, 1939, the National Government, on behalf of its Ministry of Communications, contracted a British loan of £188,000 at an annual interest of 5% for the purchase of motor vehicles for use on the Yunnan-Burma highway. As stipulated in the agreement, this loan was completely repaid in 1943.

In August of the same year, a British credit loan of £2,859,000, known as the First Sino-British Credit Loan, was floated in London. Bearing an annual interest of 5%, it was to be repaid from the fifth year, and the entire sum to be cleared before the end of 1953.

The Second Sino-British Loan of £5-million was concluded in June, 1941. It bore an annual interest of 5% to be repaid from October, 1946 to April, 1951.

The two British loans were for the purchase of machinery and other in-

dustrial raw materials in the United Kingdom or other places in the sterling bloc.

Another Sino-British loan of £50-million, known as the Sino-British Financial Aid Loan, was concluded in 1944. Up to February 1948, £8,036,624 were still outstanding. The money was used to buy war supplies from the sterling bloc and to be used as security for a domestic loan.

The National Government obtained a wood-oil loan of US\$25-million from the U. S. in February, 1939. This has since been fully repaid.

In April, 1940, it obtained another sum of US\$20-million known as the Sino-American Tin Loan, to be fully repaid within seven years.

The Sino-American Tungsten Loan of October, 1940, totalled US\$25-million and was to be fully repaid within five years.

The Sino-American Metal Loan of US\$50-million was concluded in 1941, to be reimbursed within seven years.

The last wartime Sino-American loan was the Sino-American Financial Aid Loan, totalling US\$500-million.

POSTWAR FOREIGN LOANS

1. The Sino-Canadian Credit Loan: This was concluded by the governments of the two countries on February 7, 1946. The total was \$60-million in Canadian currency, bearing an annual interest of 3%. The loan should be completely repaid by the Chinese government before the end of 1977. It was agreed that \$25-million should be used for the re-imbursement of mutual-aid materials and industrial equipment bought by the Chinese government before the end of the war, and the remaining \$35-million for the purchase of reconstruction materials and various service charges. Up to the end of February, 1948, the Chinese government had drawn \$39,619,765 from this credit loan.

2. The Sino-American Cotton Loan: This, totalling US\$33-million was signed by the Bank of China and the American Export-Import Bank on March 14, 1946, and guaranteed by the Chinese government to finance the purchase of American cotton for Chinese textile industries. It bears an annual interest of 3%. It was agreed that the Chinese government could draw on this loan as its guarantor. Up to the end of July, 1947, \$32-million of the loan had been used.

3. The Sino-American Railway Supplies Purchase Loan: A loan agreement totalling US\$16,650,000 was signed between the Chinese government and the American Export-Import Bank on June 3, 1946, and subsequently amended on August 26 of the same year. It was specified in the agreement that the sum was to be used for the purchase of railway replacement parts and materials. Its funds should be exhausted by the Chinese government by the end of 1948, and its repayment should be completed before the end of 1976. The annual interest is 3% and is to be paid semi-annually, on April 1 and October 1 each year. The repayment of the principal will begin on September 1, 1951.

4. The Sino-American Lend-Lease Surpluses Transfer Contract: Although this agreement was not concluded until June 14, 1946, the transfer of such surpluses had actually begun on September 2, 1945 which was the termination date of the original Lend-Lease Contract signed by the two governments on June 2, 1942. The shipment of Lend-Lease supplies to China did not cease until some time after the expiration of the original contract. The total amount under the new contract was US\$58,900,000 at an annual interest of 2½%. The loan should be completely repaid before July 1, 1976, with the first payment due July 1, 1947. It also provided that the payment of both interest and principal may be postponed if and when the Chinese government should have financial difficulties or in the event of extraordinary circumstances.

5. The Sino-American Coal Mining Equipment Loan: This was signed by the Chinese government and the American Export-Import Bank on August 26, 1946, and its total was US\$1,500,000. As its name suggests, it was meant for the purchase of equipment needed by Chinese coal mines. The entire amount should be drawn before the end of 1947. Up to the end of January, 1948, the Chinese government had actually spent US\$825,000. The annual interest of 3% is payable semi-annually on April 1 and October 1. Repayment of the principal will begin in the fifth year of the signing of the agreement, and the entire amount should be completely repaid before 1966.

6. The Sino-American Ship Purchase Loan: This was signed by the Chinese government and the American Export-Import Bank on August 5, 1946. The total amount was US\$2,600,000. It was

agreed that the entire loan should be used before the end of 1947. It was meant for the purchase of 16 merchant ships. Up to the end of January, 1948, \$2,540,000 had been so used. The loan bears an annual interest of 3½%, and is to be paid semi-annually on April 1 and October 1. Repayment of the principal will commence in the fifth year of the loan, and the entire amount should be completely repaid before the end of 1961.

7. The Sino-American Electric Generators Purchase Loan: Totalling US\$8,800,000, it was signed by the Chinese government and the American Export-Import Bank on July 16, 1946 for the purchase of ten 5000-kw. electric generators. According to the agreement, the entire loan should be used before the end of 1947. Up to the end of January, 1948, US\$3,900,000 had been so used. It bears an annual interest of 3%, and the terms of repayment are similar to those of two foregoing loans.

TERMINATION OF THE BOXER INDEMNITY

The indemnity of 450-million taels of silver that China was made to pay to 14 foreign countries in the Boxer Protocol of 1901 finally ended with the conclusion of the new treaties in 1943 between China and Great Britain, and between China and the United States.

However, the portion due to Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and Norway nominally remained, pending the conclusion of new treaties between China and those countries.

Japan was one of the 14 nations, but by China's declaration of war on her in 1941 Japan's rights to the indemnity came to an end. Germany's and Italy's shares of the debt had been cleared before the outbreak of World War II.

Though the payment of the indemnity had terminated with China's conclusion of new treaties with its former claimant nations, several foreign loans were still secured on it.

1. The Chinese Government 23rd Year (1934) 6% Indemnity Loan: It totalled £1,500,000 and was to have been completely repaid before January 1, 1947. The payment of both interest and principal was suspended along with all other foreign loans in January, 1939 following the loss of most of China's customs

revenue to the enemy. The total amount of interest and principal outstanding then was £1,567,380.

2. The Sino-Belgian Boxer Indemnity Loan: Totalling US\$5-million, it was secured on the remaining portion of the Belgian part of the Boxer Indemnity as of the end of 1927 and was floated by the Chinese government according to an agreement concluded between the Chinese and the Belgian governments in December, 1927. It bore an annual interest of 6% and was to have been completely repaid before the end of January 1942, but since 1939, the loan services have been suspended. The total sum outstanding, both interest and principal, up to the end of 1946 was US-\$898,862.06.

3. The Sino-French Boxer Indemnity Loan: The loan totalling US\$43,893,900 was floated through the Banque Industrielle de Chine in 1925. Bearing an annual interest of 5%, both interest and principal were to have been repaid before the end of 1947. However, the repayment was suspended in January, 1939, and up to the end of 1946, the debt still outstanding totalled US\$32,097,490.

4. The Nanking-Kiangsi Railway Loan: In 1937, in order to complete the railroad between Hsuan-cheng (Anhwei) and Kweihsi (Kiangsi), the government floated a loan of CNC\$14-million which was bought by a Chinese consortium, and was secured on CNC\$18,772,200 of the British-remitted Boxer Indemnity fund, originally earmarked for the Canton-Hankow railway for 1937 to 1946. It had an annual interest rate of 6%, and was to be repaid within 10 years. Up to the suspension of its repayment in January, 1939, the total amount of interest and principal still outstanding was CNC\$17,225,200.

DOMESTIC LOANS

Up to 1936, there were 39 unmatured domestic loans totalling over CNC\$1,400-million. They were of various amounts bearing different rates of interest. The payment of these loans and interest was highly complicated.

In that year, the government decided to simplify the procedures. As a result, in January, 1936, all the loans were converted into five loans called "Consolidated Loans A, B, C, D, and E." They were to be paid out of surplus customs revenue. During the war, after the loss of nearly all customs revenue to the

enemy, the payment of these consolidated loans was suspended along with all foreign debts in January 1939. Up to August, 1948 these consolidated loans were still on the market.

In 1936, the government issued:—

1. The Reconstruction Bonds: They totalled CNC\$340-million, and their period of maturity was set at 24 years. The fund thus realized was used to improve the nation's banking and financial system and organization, balance the government's budget, and stabilize the market of government bonds.

2. The Third Railway Construction Bonds: Totalling CNC\$120-million, these were issued in three installments of CNC\$40-million each. The funds thus realized were used chiefly for the construction of the Hunan-Kwangsi and Kwangsi-Kweichow railways and for the improvement of other existing lines.

3. The Szechwan Relief Bonds: These totalled CNC\$25-million and their period of maturity was set at 15 years.

4. The Kwangtung Financial Reform Bonds: They totalled CNC\$120-million, and their period of maturity was set at 30 years.

In 1937, four other domestic loans were floated by the government. They were the Nanking-Kiangsi Railway Construction Bonds, totalling CNC\$14-million with the period of maturity set at 10 years; the Kwangtung Harbor Excavation and Dredging Bonds, totalling US\$2-million with its period of maturity set at 15 years; the Kwangsi Finance Bonds, totalling CNC\$17-million with maturity set at 22 years; the National Liberty Bonds, totalling CNC\$500-million with maturity set at 30 years; and the Short Term Government Treasury Notes, totalling CNC\$500-million.

On May 1, 1938, to finance the war against Japan, the government floated a CNC\$500-million loan known as the National Defense Bonds, secured on income tax and to be redeemed in 30 years.

Another loan composed of Customs Gold Units 100-million, £10-million, and US\$50-million was floated by the government on the same date. It was called the Finance Loan, and was used to carry on the war. Its period of maturity was set at 15 years. Surplus salt revenue, after discharging obligations of all government loans previously secured thereon, was designated as the loan's collateral.

A third loan, called the Relief Loan, was floated in 1938. It totalled CNC-\$100-million, and was secured on government tax revenue. Its period of maturity was set at 20 years. However, of the authorized total, only CNC\$30-million was actually floated.

In 1939, the Military Supplies and Reconstruction Loans, totalling CNC-\$1,200-million were floated by the government. Their periods of maturity were set at 25 years.

Two similar loans were floated by the government in 1940, totalling CNC\$1,200-million and £10-million and US\$50-million, respectively. Their periods of maturity were also set at 25 years.

These loans were again floated in 1941. The Military Supplies Loan and the Reconstruction Loan totalled CNC-\$1,200-million each. They also were to mature within 25 years. In the same year, the government also issued Food Bonds in various provinces. In terms of Chinese piculs and its sub-units, they totalled altogether 7,233,636 piculs of unhusked rice, and 2,066,667 piculs of wheat.

In 1942, the Allied Victory Loan was floated twice by the government. The first part, totalling US\$100-million, was issued on May 1, and the second one, totalling CNC\$1-billion, on July 1. Its period of maturity was set at 10 years. The Food Bonds floated the previous year were issued again in 1942. They totalled 11,380,036 piculs of unhusked rice and 1,400,000 piculs of wheat.

The Allied Victory Loan floated by the government in 1943 totalled CNC-\$3-billion. Food Bonds totalling 20,112,000 piculs of unhusked rice and 1,550,000 piculs of wheat were also floated that year.

From 1944 to the early part of 1947, no new loan was floated by the government. However, the sale of the Victory Loans was continued.

In April, 1947, with a view to stabilizing the national currency and promoting foreign trade, two bonds in U. S. currency were put on the market by the government. The first one was the Short-Term Treasury Notes, totalling US\$300-million, and the second U. S. Currency Bonds, totalling US\$100-million. Up to the end of 1947, US\$30,956,530 of the former, and US\$25,819,550 of the latter had been sold.

GOLD YUAN CONSOLIDATED LOANS A, B, AND C

Following the currency reform of August 19, 1948, the Chinese Govern-

ment on September 4 announced the issuance on October 1 of three new Gold Yuan loans to replace all previous foreign currency domestic loans. The three Gold Yuan loans were Consolidated Loans A, B, and C, totalling GY-\$523-million.

Consolidated Loan A totalled GY\$137-million, and bore an annual interest of 5%. The interest was to be paid semi-annually with the first payment due on March 31, 1949.

In the regulations governing the issuance of the three new loans, it was stipulated that Consolidated Loan A would redeem the first two issues of the 1947 Short-Term U. S. Currency Treasury Notes that had not matured on August 19, 1948.

Consolidated Loan B totalled GY\$325-million, and bore the same premium as Consolidated Loan A. Interest was also to be paid every six months, with the first payment due on May 31, 1949. It was to replace the 27th year (1938) Gold Loan of Customs Gold Units 100-million the 27th Year Relief Loan of £10-million and US\$50-million and the 31st Year (1942) Allied Victory Loan of US\$100-million, that had not matured on August 19, 1948.

Consolidated Loan C was issued to withdraw the 29th Year (1940) Reconstruction Gold Loan of US\$50-million and £10-million. Its rate of interest and its payment were similar to those of the first two Consolidated Loans with the first interest payment due on July 31, 1949.

The repayment of the principal of the three new loans is to begin from the fifth payment of the interest by drawing lots, with Consolidated Loan A to be repaid within five years; B, 10 years; and C, 20 years. Their respective dates of maturity will be March 31, 1951; May 31, 1961; and July 31, 1971.

The conversion of the old bonds into the new Gold Yuan bonds was limited to six months from the date of issuance to October 1, 1948. The conversion rates were fixed at US\$1 to GY\$4 and £1 to GY\$12.

Side by side with the announcement of the issuance of the Gold Yuan bonds as replacements for former foreign currency domestic bonds, the Chinese Government proclaimed a set of measures for the redemption of all outstanding public bonds in national currency.

There were 17 domestic bonds in the national currency, and their owners

were asked to cash them within six months beginning from October 1, 1948.

The following were the loans and their redemption scale:

Name of Bonds	Multiple of Face Value to be Paid
17th Year (1928) Long Term Finance Bonds	27,000
25th Year Consolidation A, B, C, D, and E	27,000
25th Year Reconstruction Bonds	27,000
25th Year Szechwan Relief Bonds	27,000
25th Year Kwangtung Currency Bonds	27,000
26th Year National Liberty Bonds	13,000
26th Year Kwangsi Currency Bonds	13,000
27th Year National Defense Bonds	12,000
27th Year Relief Bonds	12,000
27th Year Gold Bonds	12,000
28th Year Military Supplies Bonds (Second issue)	10,000
29th Year Military Supplies Bonds (First issue)	9,000
30th Year Military Supplies Bonds (First issue)	7,000
31st Year Allied Victory Bonds	5,000
32nd Year Allied Victory Bonds	3,000
32nd Year Provincial Bonds Readjustment Bonds	
Classes I, II, III, IV	3,000
33rd Year Allied Victory Bonds	1,000

CHAPTER 20

CURRENCY

Outstanding events in the history of the Chinese currency from 1935 to 1949 were the adoption of the *fapi*, Chinese legal tender, in 1935; the unification of the note-issue by the Central Bank of China in 1942; the currency reform of August 19, 1948, when the Gold Yuan was introduced to replace the *fapi*; and the second postwar currency reform of July 2, 1949, when Silver Dollar Notes were issued to substitute for the Gold Yuan.

FAPI—LEGAL TENDER

China's first legal tender, the *fapi*, based on a managed silver standard, was introduced in 1935 out of necessity. Japan, at that time, was bent on undermining the Chinese Government with a new aggression toward ultimately subjugating the country. In the field of currency, Japan tried to get silver dollars out of China, then the main Chinese medium of exchange. It was difficult for the Chinese Government to completely stop such an exodus.

To counteract the Japanese scheme, the Chinese Government introduced the *fapi*. Though based on the standard value of the Chinese silver dollar, the *fapi* notes were not convertible into silver dollars. It was thus a currency based on a managed silver standard.

The standard Chinese silver dollar weighs 26.697 grams, of which 88% is silver and 12% copper. Its silver content is 23.493448 grams.

After the introduction of the non-convertible *fapi* notes, the circulation of silver dollars was banned and the people were ordered to surrender them to the government in exchange for legal tender notes. *Fapi* notes were issued by the Central Bank of China, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers' Bank of China. They became government banks, and since then were referred to as the Four Government Banks. All other banks were ordered to recall their own notes from circulation within a specified period.

Prior to the issuance of the *fapi*, almost every established commercial bank issued its own notes, using the standard Chinese silver dollar as the basic unit.

In the pre-*fapi* period, China's currency situation was further complicated by provincial money notes. Each province had its own bank that issued notes for circulation within its provincial limits. Many provinces also minted their own silver dollars and subsidiary coins. Except in a few areas such as Yunnan and Sinkiang, the *fapi* gradually replaced the banknotes.

As one phase of the currency evolution in China, the *fapi* attained some success. It achieved those immediate objectives for which it was devised, and it served the country through the long war with Japan that began two years after its introduction. Many currency experts believed that if the Chinese Government had not adopted the *fapi* in 1935, it would have been exceedingly difficult to carry on its eight years of war with Japan.

When the *fapi* was first introduced, the total amount of paper money in circulation was between CNC\$1,400,000,000 and CNC\$2,000,000,000. The rate of exchange between the Chinese and U. S. dollars then was 10 to 3. The foreign exchange market was free.

The Chinese Government in 1942 aimed at further simplifying its currency by limiting the power of note-issue to the Central Bank of China alone. Thus the Central Bank of China moved closer to being the bank of banks.

The other three government banks were ordered to stop their note issue, and all their currency, those being printed as well as those in reserve were transferred to the Central Bank of China.

As the war with Japan continued, the *fapi* gradually became inflated. To mitigate the situation, the government put into use in 1942 Customs Gold Unit notes which formerly were used only by importers to pay Customs duties. Its rate of exchange with the *fapi* was pegged at

one to 20, and the C.G.U. notes were issued in addition to *fapi* notes. The two kinds of notes were the media of exchange in China during the war and remained in circulation until the currency reform of August 19, 1948, when the Gold Yuan notes were issued.

When the *fapi* notes were first issued, they were of five denominations of \$1, \$5, \$10, \$50, and \$100. Notes above the \$10 denomination were relatively rare, even as late as 1942.

At the end of the war, the largest denomination of the *fapi* notes issued was CNC\$1,000. Even up to the end of 1946, these were the largest in circulation.

The inflation, however, became much more serious in 1947. From 1948 onward, it took on a malignant character. When the currency reform was announced on August 19, 1948, the largest denomination *fapi* notes in circulation was CNC\$1,000,000. The government had already announced the printing of CNC\$5,000,000 notes that, however, were never issued.

THE GOLD YUAN

By a Presidential mandate, the Gold Yuan was introduced on August 19, 1948. As the basic unit of China's national currency, its gold content was fixed at 0.22217 grams. Although backed by 100 percent specie and other valuable reserves, the Gold Yuan was not convertible into gold. The legal tender notes called Gold Yuan notes, were of six denominations: one, five, ten, twenty, fifty and one hundred Yuan.

There were two subsidiary units, *chiao* and *fen*, (ten *fen* making one *chiao*, and ten *chiao* making one *yuan*) or five denominations, namely one *fen*, five *fen*, one *chiao*, two *chiao*, and five *chiao*. They were issued in the forms of auxiliary notes or copper, nickel, and silver coins.

The *Regulations Governing the Issuance of Gold Yuan Notes* limited the total amount of note-issue to two billion Yuan. Meanwhile, the people were ordered to convert all their *Fapi* and C.G.U. notes into the Gold Yuan notes before November 20, 1948, and their gold, silver, silver coins, and foreign currencies before September 30. The latter deadline, however, was extended to October 31, 1948.

The conversion of gold, silver, silver coins, and foreign currencies held by the people was compulsory, and both gold and silver were nationalized. The possession and circulation of foreign money were prohibited.

The conversion rate between the Gold Yuan and the *fapi* notes was fixed at one

to 3,000,000; the C.G.U. notes, one to 150,000; and U. S. currency notes, one to four Gold Yuan. Each *shih liang* (Chinese ounce, equivalent to 31.25 grams) of gold of required fineness was to be exchanged for 200 GY notes; and each *shih liang* of silver for three GY notes.

All Chinese nationals and corporate bodies likewise were required to declare and register foreign exchange and gold holdings. The foreign assets of all Chinese banks were registered with the Central Bank of China.

The regulations governing the issuance of the Gold Yuan provided that GY note issue "shall be backed by 100 percent reserve" to be composed of a minimum of 40 percent in gold, silver and foreign exchange, and the remainder in bonds and securities and government-owned properties designated by the government.

A Gold Yuan Note Issue Reserve Supervisory Commission was established for the inspection and custody of reserve of GY note issue. At the end of each month the supervisory commission was to conduct an examination of the amount of GY notes issued by the Central Bank of China and the conditions of their reserve. The findings of the inspection were to be published in the form of a monthly report.

The Gold Yuan notes and the accompanying currency reform measures were at first favorably received. During the first month after the issuance of the new currency, the people surrendered to the Central Bank of China and its appointed banks more than US\$190,000,000 worth of gold, silver, silver coins, and foreign currencies in exchange of the Gold Yuan notes.

On August 19, 1948, all commodity prices were frozen at the prevailing levels of that date. This step obviously was taken to stabilize the value of the new currency. It was this factor that three months later proved to be the pitfall in the currency reform even in spite of the government's frantic efforts to maintain the ceilings.

The August 19 price levels were maintained in Shanghai. Because of the strict enforcement of the import and foreign exchange controls, it was found that the demand for finished goods and raw materials far exceeded the supply. It soon turned out that both the wholesale and retail commodity prices were even below the actual cost of production. Manufacturers stopped producing goods. It became impossible for shops and stores to replenish their stock. There was a buying rush in the Nanking-Shanghai area, and

soon all commodities disappeared from the market. Most businesses were at a standstill.

Meanwhile, the black market was rampant. Daily necessities such as rice, flour, cooking oil, salt, and all foods became hard to get. Riots aimed at rice and other food shops broke out in many cities. The situation was desperate and demands for the abrogation of the August 19 price ceilings were heard from all quarters of the country.

Under heavy public pressure, the government lifted its price controls on November 1. But this did not change the situation markedly. It was no longer a question of price, but one of value of the Gold Yuan notes. After lifting the controls, commodities began to reappear but within a few days the prices of commodities, which had been frozen for over two months, broke all records. They jumped several times a day. If the businessmen had started the price race themselves, they soon found that the situation was double-edged. Not only was the entire economic life of the cities affected, it was also impossible to carry on business under such quicksand conditions. Again, ten days after the unfreezing of prices, business was paralyzed.

What started in the Nanking-Shanghai area soon spread to other parts until the whole nation's economy was threatened. To meet the unprecedented crisis, the government on November 11 revised the main principles of the earlier currency reform.

In the August 19 reform, gold, silver, silver coins, and foreign currencies were nationalized and banned from circulation. The Gold Yuan notes were based on a managed gold standard and were non-convertible. The revision reversed these fundamental principles. The Gold Yuan was devalued and was made convertible into Gold Yuan coins. The people were again allowed to hold gold, silver, silver coins, and foreign currencies, but only silver coins were allowed to circulate.

Consequently, the rates of exchange between the Gold Yuan and gold, silver, silver dollars and U. S. dollars were revised. The revised rates were: (1) One Chinese ounce (31.25 grams) of gold of required fineness to be exchanged for GY\$1,000; (2) one Chinese ounce of silver of required fineness for GY\$15; (3) one silver dollar for GY\$10; and (4) one U. S. dollar for GY\$20.

The conversion of Gold Yuan notes into gold and silver dollars was authorized to begin on November 22 in Shang-

hai, Nanking, Chungking, Hankow, Peiping, Tientsin, and Canton, and in 19 other cities on December 1.

There was no limitation on the conversion amount. During the initial period, Gold Yuan notes totalling over GY\$500 were to be paid in gold, those below this amount, in silver dollars. GY\$500 represented at the current conversion rate one-half of a Chinese ounce of gold. The Central Mint had been turning out gold ingots of four different weights to meet these needs: one-half Chinese ounce, one ounce, five ounces and ten ounces. As of November 11, the total Gold Yuan notes in circulation were estimated at under GY\$2,000,000,000.

THE SILVER YUAN

The Silver Yuan (dollar) was introduced on July 2, 1949 as the new national currency. With a gross weight of 26.6971 grammes and a fineness of 880/1000, the new currency has a fixed silver content of 23.493448 grammes. Silver Yuan Certificates, which are legal tender notes, are issued in five denominations, e.i., one, five, ten, 50 and 100 dollars. Backed by 100 percent reserve, they are convertible into silver coins or gold. (Conversion of Silver Yuan Certificates into silver dollars was authorized to begin in Canton on July 4, and in Chungking, Foochow, Hengyang, Kweilin, Kunming, Kweichow, Chengtu and Lanchow on or before July 15.)

Redemption of Gold Yuan notes for the silver currency—at the rate of GY\$500,000,000 to one Silver Yuan—was ordered to be completed within two months. Silver dollar notes of one dollar or higher denominations issued by various provincial banks in the spring of 1949 were ordered withdrawn immediately. Subsidiary notes (of less than one dollar) issued by these provincial banks are permitted to remain in circulation.

The Ministry of Finance authorized the Central Bank of China to readjust periodically the rates of exchange between the Chinese national currency and various foreign currencies. (The initial rates announced by the Central Bank were: US\$1 equivalent to \$1.55 in silver currency, British £1 to \$3.72 in Silver Yuan, and Hongkong \$1 to \$0.24 in Silver Yuan.) The ban on circulation of foreign currencies in China was reimposed. However, possession of foreign currencies remains legal.

Following is an English translation of the *Regulations Governing the Issuance of Silver Yuan and Silver Yuan Certificates*:

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE ISSUANCE OF SILVER YUAN AND SILVER YUAN CERTIFICATES

*Promulgated by Presidential order
on July 2, 1949*

Article 1. The national currency of the Republic of China shall be the Silver Yuan which shall have a gross weight of 26.6971 grammes with a fineness of 880/1000 and a silver content of 23.493448 grammes.

Article 2. The subsidiary coins of the Silver Yuan shall have five denominations; namely, one cent, five cents, ten cents, twenty cents and fifty cents. Weight, fineness and metallic contents of these subsidiary coins shall be fixed separately.

Article 3. The Silver Yuan and the subsidiary coins shall be minted by the Central Mint and issued by the Central Bank of China.

Article 4. For convenience of circulation, the Central Bank of China shall issue Silver Yuan Certificates and subsidiary notes. The Silver Yuan Certificates shall have five denominations; namely, one yuan, five yuan, ten yuan, fifty yuan and one hundred yuan. The subsidiary notes shall have four denominations; namely, five cents, ten cents, twenty cents and fifty cents. The legal tender quality of the subsidiary coins and subsidiary notes shall be limited to twenty yuan each time.

Article 5. The issuance of the Silver Yuan Certificates and the subsidiary notes shall have a hundred percent reserve, no less than sixty percent of which shall be silver coins, gold, and/or foreign exchange, and not more than forty percent of which shall consist of negotiable securities and warehouse receipts.

Article 6. The places where the redemption of Silver Yuan Certificates will be made shall be approved by the Ministry of Finance and announced by the Central Bank of China.

Article 7. When the supply of silver coins is inadequate, the redemption may be effected in gold, whose conversion rate against silver coins shall be announced by the Central Bank of China.

Article 8. Purchase of foreign exchange with the Silver Yuan Certificates in accordance with the provisions of the Regulations Governing Foreign Exchange Transactions shall be permitted.

Article 9. Effective from the date of the promulgation of these regulations, all public and private payments shall be on the basis of the Silver Yuan. All the tax receipts of Central and local governments

and rates of government enterprises shall in all cases be payable in Silver Yuan Certificates.

Article 10. The Central Bank of China shall make no advance to the government unless the full amount of the reserve as specified in Article 5 is duly received.

Article 11. The Central Bank of China shall report monthly the amounts of the Silver Yuan Certificates and subsidiary notes issued to the Executive Yuan and the Ministry of Finance for examination and announcement.

Article 12. The Supervisory Committee of the Central Bank of China, together with a representative of the Control Yuan, to be invited by the Executive Yuan and the Ministry of Finance, shall inspect each month the amount of the Silver Yuan Certificates issued and the reserves held there against. Any non-compliance of these regulations shall be immediately rectified.

Article 13. Provincial banks of various provinces may, upon approval of the Ministry of Finance, issue Silver Yuan Certificates and subsidiary notes. The amount of such note issues and their reserves shall be reported monthly to the Ministry of Finance for its periodic inspection.

Article 14. Counterfeits, forgeries and deliberate mutilation of silver coins, the Silver Yuan Certificates, and the subsidiary notes are strictly prohibited. Offenders are liable to punishment in accordance with regulations governing penalties against infringement of the national currency.

Article 15. These regulations shall come into effect on the date of their promulgation.

LOCAL CURRENCIES

Owing to special local conditions, the circulation of certain provincial currencies is specially permitted by the government.

Since China regained possession of Taiwan in 1945, a local currency has been in circulation in the island province. The Taiwan currency, which survived both the *fapi* and the *Gold Yuan*, underwent a reform on June 15, 1949. Now the *Hsin Taiipi* (New Taiwan Dollar) is directly pegged to the U. S. dollar (at five-to-one ratio). (For details on the Taiwan currency, see section on TAIWAN in Chapter 2.)

The province of Sinkiang also has its own currency for local circulation.

For exclusive circulation in the nine Northeastern Provinces (Manchuria), the government issued the Northeast Circulation Notes late in 1945. These notes

went out of existence toward the end of 1948 when the entire area was overrun by the communists.

COINS

The right to mint coins rests with the Central Mint. Before the introduction of the *fapi*, the mint made silver dollars and silver and alloy subsidiary coins. Later, it only turned out subsidiary coins. But this ended in 1943. The inflation of the *fapi* made the intrinsic value of the subsidiary coins much greater than their face value.

During the postwar period up to the introduction of the Gold Yuan notes, the mint turned out gold ingots of various weights. Even this job stopped when the government ceased to use gold to uphold the *fapi* at the end of 1946.

After the introduction of the Gold Yuan notes, the mint started to function again, producing the Gold Yuan coins and subsidiary coins stipulated in the *Revised Regulations Governing the Issuance of the Gold Yuan Notes*. The mint also turned out gold ingots of one-half, one, five, and ten Chinese ounces that were used in exchange for Gold Yuan notes.

GOLD AND SILVER

Private exportation and importation of gold have been banned in China. The first law to this effect was promulgated

in 1938. During the war two other sets of regulations were adopted to stop the smuggling of gold from free China into Japanese-occupied areas. However, the government permits gold to be imported if a license to do this has been issued. China's gold imports from 1943 to 1946, according to the Ministry of Finance, were: 1943, from French Indo-China, valued at 2,481,488 Customs Gold Units; 1944, from French Indo-China, 393,460 C.G.U.; 1945, from India, 14,100 C.G.U.; and 1946, from U.S.A., valued at CNC\$28,110,608,000.

Since February, 1947, commercial transactions in gold within the country have been banned by the government along with transactions in foreign currencies. Under the ban, only sale of ornamental gold under two Chinese ounces is permitted.

Because the Chinese currency was based on the silver standard in the past, a large volume of silver was imported by the country each year. In 1934, when the United States raised its price of silver, there was a disastrous exodus of silver from China. As this affected China's currency, the government first tried to check the exportation by imposing Customs duties on silver exports. In 1935, silver was nationalized with the introduction of the *fapi*, and the exportation of silver was prohibited. The ban is still in force.

CHAPTER 21

BANKING

JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE

The Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks was established in 1937. Until its dissolution on October 30, 1948, it was in control of the operations of all government banks. It was abolished in 1948.

When the *fapi* notes, China's legal tender, were issued in 1935, the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers' Bank of China were made government banks and their combined reserves placed behind the new national currency. The three banks together with the Central Bank of China were from then on referred to as the "Four Government Banks."

When the Sino-Japanese war broke out in 1937, to coordinate the activities of these four banks, it was felt that a special organization should be set up. As a result, the Joint Administrative Office was established that year in Shanghai. Its function then was mainly advisory. In the winter of 1939, to gear the country's financial activities to the requirements of the war, the government in two sets of regulations, namely, the *Outline of Measures Governing the Consolidation of National Finances* and the *Outline of Measures Governing the Strengthening of Government Financial Organizations*, gave the Joint Administrative Office complete control over the four government banks. In addition, the Central Trust of China, the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank and the Central Cooperative Bank later were similarly placed under its control.

According to its by-laws the Joint Administrative Office had the power to decide on the following matters:

- (1) Establishment of a financial network for the country.
- (2) Adjustment of note-issue and approval of note reserves.
- (3) Issuance of subsidiary notes.

- (4) Absorption of surplus capital.
- (5) Promotion of loans and discounts.
- (6) Extension of farm loans.
- (7) Approval of domestic and overseas remittances.
- (8) Investment in special wartime productive enterprises.
- (9) Adjustment of war supplies.
- (10) Collection and conversion of gold and silver into legal tender notes.
- (11) Promotion of public savings.
- (12) Control of foreign exchange.
- (13) Auditing budgetary estimates and approving receipts and disbursements of the four government banks.

In the postwar period, the main tasks of the Joint Administration Office were as follows: Approving investments in production enterprises, collecting native products for the government, promoting exports, and encouraging overseas Chinese remittances back to China through official channels.

One of the most lasting wartime achievements of the Joint Administrative Office was the unification in 1942 of the note issue in the Central Bank of China. Prior to that the four government banks as well as many commercial banks issued their own notes.

In 1947, through the banking institutions under its control, the Joint Administrative Office authorized loans totalling CNC\$4,598,900-million and Northeast Circulation Notes \$30,300-million (equivalent to CNC\$303-billion). The recipients of these loans were mining industries, communications, salt industries, food programs, trade, and government and educational organizations. Loans to farmers and farming projects granted by the office in the same year totalled CNC\$1,380-billion and Northeast Circulation Notes \$2-billion (equivalent to CNC\$20-billion).

TABLE 1.—LOANS TO MINING AND OTHER INDUSTRIES APPROVED BY THE JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Recipients	Number of Loans	Total Amount
Coal Industries.....	163	3,168
Steel Industries.....	15	1,249
Electric Industries.....	275	2,096
Chemical Industries.....	701	2,146
Textile Industries.....	315	9,574
Foods.....	508	3,256
Others.....	241	911
TOTAL.....	2,218	CNC\$22,400

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

TABLE 2.—LOANS TO COMMUNICATIONS AND PUBLIC UTILITIES APPROVED BY THE JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Recipients	Number of Loans	Total Amount
Railways.....	65	2,634
Highways.....	48	181
Airways.....	83	1,701
Public Utilities.....	185	2,181
Others.....	2	8
TOTAL.....	383	CNC\$6,705

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

TABLE 3.—LOANS TO SALT INDUSTRIES APPROVED BY THE JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Items	Number of Loans	Total Amount
Salt Production.....	18	1,887
Transportation.....	437	5,168
Storage and Transportation Facilities.....	5	157
TOTAL.....	460	CNC\$7,212

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

TABLE 4.—LOANS TO FOOD PROCUREMENT PROGRAMS APPROVED BY THE JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Items	Number of Loans	Total Amount
Food for Civilians.....	66	3,023
Food for the Armed Forces.....	8	1,713
TOTAL.....	74	CNC\$4,736

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

TABLE 5.—LOANS TO EXPORT TRADE APPROVED BY THE JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Banks	Total Amounts		
Bank of China.....	US\$16,997	£4,840	Hongkong\$6,580
Bank of Communications.....	5,850	440	
Central Trust.....	16,480	980	
Farmers' Bank.....	15,850	..	
TOTAL.....	US\$55,177	£6,260	Honkong\$6,580

Note: The totals were the foreign earnings of Chinese exports surrendered to these banks.

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

TABLE 6.—LOANS TO EXPORTABLE GOODS APPROVED BY THE JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Goods	Number of Loans	Total Amount
Hog bristles.....	92	1,093
Tung oil.....	61	943
Tea.....	28	67
Silk piece-goods.....	36	443
Minerals.....	4	60
Commodities.....	1,458	3,800
Others.....	195	494
TOTAL.....	1,874	CNC\$6,900

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

**TABLE 7.—LOANS TO GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
APPROVED BY THE JOINT ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.**

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Organizations	Number of Loans	Total Amount
Administrative Organizations.....	5	19
Military Establishments.....	12	309
Educational Bodies.....	247	939
Local Bodies.....	46	893
Cultural Bodies.....	217	933
Others.....	59	309
TOTAL.....	586	CNC\$3,402

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

**TABLE 8.—ORDINARY AGRICULTURAL LOANS APPROVED BY THE JOINT
ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.**

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Items	Total Amount
Agricultural production.....	7,320
Irrigation projects.....	581
Agricultural expansion.....	280
Village industries.....	178
Transportation.....	3,952
TOTAL.....	CNC\$12,311

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

**TABLE 9.—SPECIAL AGRICULTURAL LOANS APPROVED BY THE JOINT
ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE IN 1947.**

Unit: CNC\$100-million

Items	Total Amount
Fostering independent farmers.....	138
Land reforms.....	50
City land reforms.....	370
Re-registration of land title deeds.....	40
Re-demarcation of land.....	3
Government purchases of land.....	3
Land purchases at market prices.....	3
Village and town production units.....	3
TOTAL.....	CNC\$610

Source: Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks

THE CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA

The Central Bank of China is the bank of banks in China. Besides the exclusive right to issue notes granted it by the government in 1942, it controls every phase of the nation's banking business by order of the government. Its expansion in the postwar period has been rapid. Up to the end of 1946, it had 88 branch offices throughout the country.

The bank has a board of directors of 11 to 15, a supervisory committee of seven members, and a governor and two deputy governors.

In the head office of the bank are bureaus of banking, note-issue, treasury, and departments of the secretariat, auditing, economic research, personnel and county bank administration. The head office, formerly in Shanghai, is now in Taipeh, Taiwan.

The Central Bank was established in 1928 with a capital of CNC\$100,000, all invested by the government. In 1934, its capital was increased to CNC\$100-million of which 40% represented private capital. In 1935, following the introduction of the *fapi*, its position was further strengthened with the reserve of the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, and the Farmers Bank of China. Meanwhile, its private shares increased from 40 to 60%.

In the postwar period, the Central Bank has become the principal financial institution, as it has control of the nation's entire specie reserves and foreign exchange. The issuance of Gold Yuan notes in place of the *fapi* and Customs Gold Unit notes in August, 1948, augmented its reserves by nearly US\$200-million worth of gold, silver, and foreign currencies.

THE BANK OF CHINA

The Bank of China was established in the latter years of the Manchu dynasty, and was known then as the Ta Ching Bank. Following the Revolution of 1911, it was reorganized and given its present name. Its capitalization at the time of reorganization was CNC\$60,000, of which CNC\$40,000 represented government investment and the remainder, private shares. Its head office was then in Peking.

In 1917, a revision in the by-laws of the Bank of China authorized the private subscription to the amount of CNC\$10-million. In 1921, its paid-up capital exceeded CNC\$19-million. A large amount of government shares during this period

was converted into private shares. When its head office was moved to Shanghai in 1927 its capitalization was increased to CNC\$25-million. Its main function was the promotion of China's foreign trade. In March 1935, the Government increased its shares in the bank to match private shares which then totalled CNC\$20-million. The bank thus had a total capital of CNC\$40-million. In 1942, partly due to inflation of the *fapi*, the capital of the bank was further increased to CNC\$60-million.

Since its founding, the Bank of China had been authorized to issue banknotes. In 1935, when the *fapi* was introduced, it was one of the four government banks whose notes became the legal tender of the country. Following the unification of note-issuance in the Central Bank of China in 1942, notes previously issued by the Bank of China were all withdrawn from circulation.

Among all Chinese banks, the Bank of China has the most extensive network of branches in China and agencies abroad. Up to the end of 1946, it had 216 branches in various cities.

Because of its overseas agencies, the Bank of China has been handling more of the nation's foreign exchange transactions and foreign trade than any other Chinese bank. Actually, this has been its main function since it became one of the government banks in 1935.

It assisted in the production and transportation of such exportable products as tung oil, raw silk, tea, wool, and hog bristles. From 1945 to the end of 1946, the exports of these products increased considerably. In 1947 its efforts in this direction were thwarted, as inflation made exports a losing business. The bank has also done its part to help such production industries as textile, paper manufacturing, sugar, metal, and motor-oil.

THE BANK OF COMMUNICATIONS

The Manchu regime established the Bank of Communications in 1907 on a partnership basis. The total capitalization was fixed at 10-million *Kuping* taels of silver. Besides handling general banking transactions, the Bank of Communications was authorized to act as an agent for the collection of government revenue from railways, telegraphs, posts and navigation. It was also given the right of note issue. The head office of the bank was established in Peking. In 1914 the President of the Republic of China promulgated regulations providing that, in addition to

TABLE 10.—LOANS, REDISCOUNTS, AND DEPOSIT RESERVES OF THE CENTRAL BANK FROM 1943 TO 1946

Items	1943	1944	1945	1946
Call loans.....		CNC\$2,795,000,000.00	CNC\$134,275,649,200.00	CNC\$6,102,811,606,000.00
Rediscount.....	CNC\$109,790,000.00	CNC\$ 623,090,900.00	CNC\$ 1,886,042,600.00	CNC\$ 19,536,720,387.50
Deposit reserves.....	CNC\$594,126,172.92	CNC\$1,328,524,808.59	CNC\$ 8,964,976,094.62	CNC\$ 75,155,828,830.61

Source: Ministry of Finance.

TABLE 11.—TOTAL TURNOVER OF CLEARING HOUSES SPONSORED BY THE CENTRAL BANK
FROM OPENING TILL THE END OF 1946
Unit: CNC\$1-million

Place	Date Opened	Number of Papers Cleared	Total Amount	Difference
Chungking.....	June 1, 1942	1,119,756	CNC\$5,101,820	CNC\$ 876,398
Chengtu.....	May 25, 1943	535,089	1,096,308	266,594
Sian.....	May 16, 1944	312,185	1,479,000	423,374
Kunming.....	November 27, 1944	576,419	1,523,949	440,657
Kweiyang.....	February 19, 1945	144,894	328,328	123,017
Lanchow.....	June 15, 1945	56,578	330,527	171,550
Shanghai.....	November 1, 1945	8,834,615	45,732,586	5,443,105
Tientsin.....	January 7, 1946	3,803,409	4,759,727	753,311
Peiping.....	January 7, 1946	325,025	573,195	127,998
Nanking.....	May 1, 1946	208,572	1,015,872	438,250
Hankow.....	June 1, 1946	58,472	566,368	210,767
Canton.....	August 1, 1946	55,084	324,371	126,210
Hangchow.....	September 2, 1946	88,249	268,109	71,205
Tsingtao.....	September 2, 1946	61,563	351,263	128,060
Mukden.....	November 1, 1946	55,489	231,062	130,647

Source: Ministry of Finance.

TABLE 12.—ANNUAL STATEMENT OF THE CENTRAL BANK FROM JANUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1944.

Losses and Expenditures		Profits and Gains	
Particular	Total	Particular	Total
Expenditures.....	CNC\$1,374,813,072.94	Profit incomes	CNC\$6,644,067,668.04
Depreciation discount and others.....	2,483,469,137.29	Fees	59,416,831.03
Unlisted losses.....	137,259,473.77	Unlisted gains	1,300,487,898.04
Extra business expenses.....	3,145,557,961.52	Extra business gains	27,354,035.63
Net profit of the year.....	890,226,787.22		
TOTAL.....	CNC\$8,031,326,432.74	Total.....	CNC\$8,031,326,432.74

Source: Ministry of Finance

TABLE 13.—LOANS AND INVESTMENTS OF THE BANK OF CHINA FROM 1943 TO 1946.

Unit: CNC\$1,000

Particular	1943	1944	1945	1946
Agricultural export loans.....	CNC\$ 229,000	CNC\$ 389,068	CNC\$ 1,597,097	CNC\$ 63,965,565
Mineral exports loans.....	126,000	95,965	607,126	331,348
Industries reducing import loans.....	1,327,612	2,498,407	7,332,954	84,826,467
Trade loans.....	509,952	899,576	2,813,319	113,491,471
Ordinary production loans.....	67,650		478,500	3,541,332
Other loans.....	275,066	299,839	1,312,984	26,943,272
TOTAL.....	CNC\$2,535,280	CNC\$4,182,855	CNC\$14,141,980	CNC\$293,099,455

Source: Ministry of Finance

TABLE 14.—BUSINESS TURNOVER OF THE BANK OF CHINA, FROM 1943 TO 1946.

Unit: CNC\$1,000

Particular	1943	1944	1945	1946
Ordinary deposits.....	CNC\$ 3,599,665	CNC\$ 9,537,202	CNC\$ 48,598,140	CNC\$ 422,307,334
Ordinary savings deposits.....	308,820	626,293	2,573,763	8,839,496
Reconstruction savings deposits.....	473,314	877,638	2,027,244	3,361,161
Public welfare funds.....	..	12,799	53,824	32,623
Foreign currency and gold deposits.....	519,936	1,429,956	2,195,110	177,452
Trust deposits.....	2,680	3,531	6,835	4,983,705
Remittances delivered.....	21,367,000	63,248,250	276,720,650	1,912,901,401
Overseas Chinese remittance.....	1,206,787	741,277	682,070	61,185,115

Source: Farmers' Bank of China

general banking business, the Bank of Communications should be given the right to keep in custody special funds of the National Treasury, to act as an agent for the flotation of government bonds, and to issue banknotes.

In 1928, the National Government promulgated a set of revised regulations designating the bank as an industrial bank to finance all kinds of industries. The business franchise was fixed at 30 years. In 1930, savings and trust departments were established, each operating under separate accounts. The bank's head office was then moved to Shanghai.

In April, 1935, the Ministry of Finance again revised the regulations concerning the bank and increased the government capital. The total capitalization, fixed at CNC\$20-million, was divided into 200,000 shares, of which government capital was represented by 120,000 shares and private capital by 80,000 shares. The monetary reform of November 3, 1935, made the notes of the Bank of Communications, together with those of the Central Bank of China and the Bank of China, sole legal tender and jointly charged these three banks with the nationalization of silver, redemption of notes of other commercial and provincial banks, and stabilization of foreign exchange.

After the war broke out in 1937, the bank's head office was first moved to Hankow and then to Chungking.

The bank helped to finance the building of seven railways and highways in China. These lines included the Hunan-Kwangsi, Szechwan - Kweichow, Canton - Hankow, Szechwan - Hunan and Kweichow-Kwangsi railways and the Yunnan-Burma road and another highway in Kwangsi province. In several cases, loans were granted jointly with other government banks. The loan extended to the Canton-Hankow railway was to expedite the rescue work on the line due to repeated Japanese bombings.

The bank has either directly invested in or extended credits to economic enterprises in the Southwest and Northwest. At least 30 big units, including the China Industrial Corporation, the Kweichow Development Corporation, the Szechwan Silk Corporation, the Chungking Power Company, the Chungking Waterworks, the Ming Sung Industrial Company, the Szechwan Cement Works, the West China Industrial Corporation, and several cotton mills have been given aid by the bank. In addition, the bank gives small loans to the smaller productive undertakings.

The various heavy industries run by the National Resources Commission of

the Ministry of Economic Affairs were operated largely with money from the bank. With the functional specialization from July 1, 1942, the financing of these industries is undertaken entirely by the Bank of Communications. Its capital has been increased to CNC\$60-million.

To assist in the development of industrial and mining enterprises has been the specialized function of the Bank of Communications since it was made one of the government banks in 1935. A review of the bank's activities in recent years shows that it has faithfully adhered to its assigned sphere of operation.

Since 1943, the Bank of Communications has devoted its resources to the financing of mining and industries, communications, salt and food production, and the manufacture of daily necessities. The percentage of such loans was 56% of the total in 1944; 72% in 1943, and 74% in 1945.

Industries helped by the bank's loans included machinery, electric power, steel, mining, textile, wheat flour and chemicals, mostly for the purpose of procuring equipment, replacement and raw materials. In 1944, about 50% of all the production loans approved by the Joint Administrative Office were undertaken by the Bank of Communications. In the postwar period, it undertook about two-fifths of the rehabilitation and emergency loans in former Japanese-occupied areas. In addition it loaned Rs.2,023,000 to overseas Chinese in need of funds to re-start business.

During the four years (1943-1946) under review, the deposits in the bank increased from eight to nine times, while its remittances increased by ten times.

THE FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA

The Farmers' Bank of China was established in 1933 to assist rural reconstruction. Its capital, fixed at CNC\$250,000, was increased to CNC\$10-million in June, 1936. After January, 1936, its banknotes were made legal tender by government order. In 1941, the capital was increased to CNC\$20-million and, in the fall of 1942, further raised to CNC\$60-million.

Through the war years the Farmers' Bank of China took an energetic lead in rural reconstruction, including the promotion of agriculture and handicrafts. It issued loans at low interest rates all over the country through cooperatives.

TABLE 15.—BUSINESS OF THE BANK OF COMMUNICATIONS, FROM 1943 TO 1946.

Unit: CNC\$1,000

Particular	1943	1944	1945	1946
Loans Surpluses.....	CNC\$ 2,457,749	CNC\$ 3,985,660	CNC\$ 13,056,799	CNC\$ 241,814,313
Current loans.....	949,453	1,790,317	6,424,739	87,966,573
Fixed loans.....	527,179	614,109	958,482	28,300,035
Discount and mortgage loans.....	981,117	1,581,234	5,673,577	125,547,705
Deposits Surpluses.....	2,983,508	9,274,161	41,387,543	230,673,961
Current deposits.....	2,777,633	9,167,955	41,069,243	226,969,440
Fixed deposits.....	205,875	106,206	318,300	3,704,521
Remittances				
Delivered.....	13,821,459	35,820,848	134,102,500	2,111,646,168
Military.....	775,354	2,251,529	5,795,368	213,440,547
Commercial.....	9,042,411	19,286,233	58,989,929	1,110,055,454
Others.....	4,003,694	14,283,086	69,317,203	788,150,167
Overseas Chinese Remittances.....	80	20	6,060,859	4,552,317
Investments Surpluses.....	470,437	469,015	513,723	39,227,252
Production.....	104,517	91,066	90,446	105,614
Stocks and Bonds.....	365,920	377,949	423,277	39,121,638
Savings Accounts.....	430,938	1,050,536	4,199,947	9,189,175
Special Savings Accounts.....	1,079,520	1,256,944	2,033,135	20,640,933
Public Welfare Funds.....		15,427	36,352	15,102
Foreign Currency and Gold Deposits.....	862	921,151	1,661,311	31,020
Trust Deposits.....	84,320	650,224	1,721,855	17,591,309
Investments of Trust Department.....	2,910	128,729	261,790	991,258

Source: Ministry of Finance.

With the enforcement of functional specialization of the government banks since July 1, 1942, the Farmers' Bank of China has been entrusted solely with rural financing activities, while the right of issuing notes was transferred to the Central Bank of China. Some of the more important types of rural credits extended by the Farmers' Bank of China included agricultural production, irrigation, agricultural extension, marketing, agricultural by-products, land reform, recovered areas, war areas, and border regions loans. At the end of 1944, its total amount of outstanding loans was CNC\$3,838,361,900, thus showing an increase of 89% over 1943, approximately three times over 1940, and more than 25 times over 1937.

through the extension of loans, the total outstanding at the end of 1944 being CNC\$169,442,097. Of this amount CNC-\$97,567,590 represented land reform loans and CNC\$43,504,507 loans to aid in the fostering of independent farmers. The bank further has undertaken to issue land bonds. The total outstanding at the end of 1944 amounted to approximately CNC-\$10-million. Among other activities the bank has been promoting the welfare of the rural populace and farmers' and laborers' welfare savings.

In the postwar period, the Farmers' Bank made direct investments in agricultural enterprises. The most important of these are the China Agricultural Engineering Corporation, the Agricultural In-

TABLE 16.—OUTSTANDING LOANS OF THE FARMERS' BANK OF CHINA, FROM 1937 TO 1944

Year	Amount Outstanding	Ratio of Increase	
		1937 as basis	1940 as basis
1937.....	146,446,279	100	15
1938.....	284,564,130	194	30
1939.....	505,568,490	345	58
1940.....	943,301,101	644	100
1941.....	2,600,111,339	1,775	275
1942.....	1,012,744,203	691	107
1943.....	2,033,835,636	1,388	215
1944.....	3,838,361,900	2,621	406

Source: Farmers' Bank of China

Of the loans outstanding at the end of 1944, CNC\$3,838,361,900, agricultural loans and investments totalled CNC\$2,714,534,000. The actual amount of agricultural loans and investments extended during 1944 totalled CNC\$2,739,661,000. During the first four months of 1945 more agricultural loans and investments, aggregating CNC\$2,066,109,000, were made, and the total outstanding at the end of April amounted to CNC\$3,769,087,000.

As stipulated in the Savings Bank Law, a portion of the savings deposit is to be designated as funds for farm loans. The Ministry of Finance ruled that, beginning in 1944, all savings banks were required to turn over 20% of their savings deposits to the Farmers' Bank of China to be used as farm loans.

The bank also has assisted the Government in carrying out its land policy. Efforts have been made to help the farmers to own farms and to better themselves

surance Company, the Rural Hydraulic Power Development Corporation, the Chekiang Land Reclamation Company, the Fukien Agriculture and Forestry Company, and the Kwangsi Hydraulic Power and Lumber Company. It also assisted the cooperative banks in numerous counties and municipalities.

Another important business of the bank in the postwar period has been the establishment of a chain of storehouses for agricultural products in various provinces. Up to the end of 1946, there were 27 such storehouses in Chekiang, Fukien, Szechwan, Kiangsi, Kansu, Hunan, Kweichow, and Hupeh.

In 1946, the Farmers' Bank was authorized to issue CNC\$1-billion worth of land bonds in addition to the CNC\$100-million it had been authorized to issue during the war. The second issuance was used to pay for land bought by the government, for distribution among landless

farmers, or as loans to farmers. The period of maturity of the new bonds was fixed at seven years instead of 15 as in the case of the old ones. They were issued in CNC\$5,000, CNC\$10,000, and CNC-\$20,000 denominations.

During the postwar period, the bank has been expanding its services. Up to the end of 1946, it already had 239 branches.

to CNC\$894,463,000, which were increased to CNC\$1,670,954,539 by the end of March, 1945. By then, subscriptions to the Central Premium Savings Bonds, issued through the Central Savings Society, totalled CNC\$546,099. In addition, the Central Trust from July 1, 1944, till the end of March, 1945, issued CNC\$59,370,500 worth of Investment and Trust Securities.

**TABLE 17.—LOANS AND INVESTMENTS OF THE FARMERS' BANK
FROM 1943 TO 1946.**

Unit: CNC\$1,000

Particular	1943	1944	1945	1946
Loans & investment surpluses.	CNC\$1,527,474	CNC\$2,714,534	CNC\$5,125,567	CNC\$49,528,317
Loans surpluses.	1,441,242	2,581,108	4,923,756	49,127,193
Investment surpluses.....	86,232	133,426	201,811	401,124

Source: Ministry of Finance.

THE CENTRAL TRUST OF CHINA

The Central Trust of China was established in Shanghai in 1935 with a capital of CNC\$50-million. Its inauguration, together with the opening of the Shanghai Development and Trust Company by the Municipality of Greater Shanghai in 1932, marked the beginning of government-owned trust companies in China.

During the war, the main activities of the Central Trust included the handling of deposits and savings, underwriting of insurance, selling and purchasing commodities for the Government, and collecting products to fulfil barter agreements. Until March 1, 1945, it had undertaken the printing of banknotes. Other items printed by the trust company included the Central Premium Savings Bonds, special savings coupons, National Thrift and Reconstruction Certificates, government bonds, food treasury notes, revenue stamps, match sales permits, postage stamps, and thrift and reconstruction savings stamps. This important phase of activity of the Central Trust was suspended as of March 1, 1945, and a separate and independent unit was created under the name of the Central Printing and Engraving Works to undertake printing assignments from the government.

Deposits and Savings Operation—Savings deposits in the Central Trust totalled CNC\$3,293,135,000 at the end of 1944. Deposits in trust ranked first amounting

Insurance Underwriting — During the war, the Central Trust underwrote land war insurance including air-raid risks for investors and producers in Free China. The scope of land war insurance embraced: (1) stored commodities (limited to agricultural, industrial and mining products and goods having a value in foreign trade); (2) productive instruments and raw materials (limited to those in the possession of underwritten factories); and (3) building materials (limited to those in warehouses or in the possession of contractors and engineers during construction).

The Central Trust underwrote CNC-\$8,803,771,000 of land war insurance in 1943 and CNC\$6,718,011,691 in 1944.

In June, 1941, the Central Trust was given CNC\$10-million to write life insurance, and the maximum amount allowed for each policy was fixed at CNC-\$10,000. At the end of 1944, the policy subscriptions totalled CNC\$963,364,292.

The Central Trust also handled production insurance, marine insurance, fire insurance, and insurance against all land transportation risks. Risks on animals were underwritten by the Farmers' Bank of China.

Collection and Purchase — The Central Trust has been authorized to act as agency for various government organs for the collection and purchase of various vital materials, including daily necessities, liquid fuels, communication equipment, tele-com-

munication equipment, hardware and machinery, chemicals and medicines, and paper including newsprint. The trust company has also been authorized to handle transactions between government organs and the Universal Trading Corporation in New York by forwarding purchase applications and then arranging the actual purchases. The Universal Trading Corporation in New York was a subsidiary organ of the Ministry of Finance.

Since V-J Day, the Central Trust has continued to operate as one of the government financial establishments concentrating its efforts on trust, insurance, savings, barter transactions, and purchases. At the end of 1946, its annual balance sheet showed deposits totalling about CNC\$17-billion; loans, CNC\$4,500-million; investments CNC\$1,200-million; and stocks and bonds, US\$250,000.

Because of economic instability the Central Trust has experienced serious difficulties in its numerous activities. This has been true particularly in savings and life insurance. In 1946, it started a new system of life insurance policy on the basis of the cost of living. By the end of that year it had accepted a total of CNC\$20-billion in life insurance policies.

The Central Trust has done well in property insurance. Since 1946 its re-insurance business with CNC\$5-billion from the National Treasury as funds, has also been on the increase.

In the early part of 1945, because of the unfavorable war situation, the Central Trust's barter trade with foreign countries was almost at a standstill. After V-J Day, it took over the export business of the Foo Shing Trading Corporation, and resumed its role as the government's exporting agency. In 1946, it exported about US\$10-million worth of tung oil, hog bristles and raw silk to U.S.S.R.; £420,000 worth of hog bristles and other items to Great Britain; tung oil to the United States; and salt, raw silk and other items to Japan.

As a purchasing agency of the government, it imported large quantities of electrical equipment, metal products, and liquid fuels for military and civil branches in the government. It was also authorized by the government to take charge of all enemy property after the end of the war. These property holdings were sold by public auction in 1948.

To help solve the housing shortage in Chinese cities, the Central Trust granted loans to house-builders, and made some direct investments in real estate.

POSTAL REMITTANCES AND SAVINGS BANK

Although a postal savings bank had been in operation since 1919, the Directorate-General of the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank of China was not inaugurated until March 15, 1930. The Postal Remittances and Savings Bank commenced to exercise full control of postal remittances and savings on July 1, 1930. Up to 1937, postal deposits totalled a little over CNC\$60-million. The amount dropped to CNC\$40-million after the hostilities extended to Shanghai in August, 1937. Through promotion in the interior provinces, the total was increased to CNC\$73-million at the end of 1939, including CNC\$2-million worth of thrift savings certificates. The savings part underwent wider expansion in 1940 when various types of savings accounts were instituted, resulting in raising the total savings to CNC\$100-million at the end of that year. By the end of 1944 the total had been further increased to CNC\$4,713,978,000.

The bank's sale of thrift savings certificates registered new records in these years. Subtracting the amount of certificates registered new records in these balance at the end of 1944 was CNC\$1,187,981,000. It was increased to CNC\$1,657,238,000 at the end of February, 1945.

Postal remittances in China began more than 40 years ago. In the early years the service was restricted to big commercial ports only, with the yearly average amounting to five to six million dollars. International postal remittances were started in 1919 and overseas remittances in 1938. In 1939, total remittances handled by the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank amounted to CNC\$340-million. Total annual remittances increased steadily in the succeeding years. In 1944, for instance, CNC\$22,444,735,608 were remitted through the bank, and CNC\$4,898,732,726 more were handled during the two months of January and February, 1945. It is to be noted that these figures do not include remittances handled in Japanese invaded areas. At the end of February, 1945, Free China had altogether 12,333 offices or agents for handling remittances.

Overseas remittances handled by the bank totalled CNC\$50-million in 1939, CNC\$120-million in 1940 and CNC\$170-million in 1941. After the outbreak of the Pacific war, remittance activities in the South Seas islands were suspended. The bank has acted as agent for the New

York office of the Bank of China in handling remittances. It view of the widening disparity of value between the Chinese and the American dollars as a result of the continual climb of commodity prices, the Ministry of Finance instituted a new monetary measure, effective as of July 16, 1945, allowing a 480 percent subsidy on overseas remittances in American currency, thereby bringing the exchange rate to CNC\$500 to one U. S. dollar.

The Postal Remittances and Savings Banks began writing life insurance policies in Shanghai, Nanking and Hankow in 1935. The maximum amount of a policy was limited to CNC\$500. Although the service was later extended to all postal districts, little development was witnessed because of the small size of the policies. The amount of each policy, therefore, was increased to CNC\$5,000 in 1942 and by the end of February, 1945, the bank had written a total of 219,954 policies. Of this number, 117,500 policies were written in 1944 and 15,801 during January-February 1945.

During the postwar period, savings, small-scale domestic and foreign remittances, and simple life insurance policies continued to be the special functions of the Postal Bank. Up to the end of 1946, it had over CNC\$132-billion of deposits, transmitted CNC\$427,600-million of remittances, underwrote CNC\$240,550,000 of life insurance policies, and also had granted CNC\$45,300-million loans to essential production enterprises still outstanding.

LOCAL BANKS

At the beginning of the war the Ministry of Finance formulated a comprehensive plan for the establishment of a financial network in the southwest and the northwest. The four government banks were directed to open branches and sub-branches in order to facilitate the development of economic enterprises in the interior. The project for the southwest was virtually completed by 1942, and efforts during the next three years were directed especially to the completion of the financial network in the northwest. The program concerned two elements of the local banking system, namely, the provincial banks and the *hsien* banks.

PROVINCIAL BANKS

The chief function of the provincial banks is to assist the provincial governments in expanding local industries and fostering reconstruction projects. Pro-

vincial banks are not allowed to open new branches outside of the province. Branch offices outside of the province which have already been licensed are permitted to handle remittances in the province only.

At the outset of hostilities in 1937, China had 19 provincial banks. Some moved their head offices and branches to safer places while others had to be closed owing to continued hostilities. Seriously affected were the Kiangsu Bank, the Farmers' Bank of Kiangsu, the Min Sen Bank of Shantung, the Hopei Provincial Bank and the Honan Agricultural and Industrial Bank. The Min Sen Bank of Shantung suspended business.

At the end of June, 1945, there was a total of 21 provincial banks, including three new ones — the Kansu Provincial Bank, the Bank of Kweichow and the Suiyuan Provincial Bank. Establishment of another new bank, to be known as the Chinese Provincial Bank, was planned in July, 1945. With the assistance of the Ministry of Finance these 21 provincial banks had, by the end of June, 1945, opened 1,096 branches, sub-branches and offices. The Szechwan Provincial Bank had set up a sub-office in nearly every *hsien* in the province. The Kiangsu Bank had reestablished itself, also with help from the Ministry of Finance, while the Kwangtung Provincial Bank, after having moved to the northern part of the province from Canton, had been handling even more business than in prewar days.

Of the provincial banks, those in Kwangtung, Hunan and Szechwan are the largest, while those in Szechwan and Chekiang have opened the largest number of sub-offices.

The Szechwan Provincial Bank was reorganized from the former Szechwan Local Bank in 1935 after most of the native banks and financial agencies had collapsed. In 1940 the bank was reorganized and its capital was increased to CNC\$40-million, of which one-fourth was paid up by the Ministry of Finance and three-fourths by the Szechwan Provincial Government. Since 1938 the Provincial Bank of Szechwan has been acting as treasury of the provincial government. It now has 92 branches, a few of them being outside the province.

Aside from ordinary banking business the Szechwan Provincial Bank's main wartime tasks was to extend industrial and rural loans and to assist the government in its economic development measures, such as the purchase of foodstuffs, tung oil, bristles and silk for export.

The Szechwan Cooperative Bank is responsible for the development of the province's cooperative enterprises. At the end of February, 1945, there were 22,653 cooperatives in Szechwan with a membership of 2,083,753 persons and a share capital of CNC\$124,977,958.

Features of the provincial banks differing from ordinary banks include emphasis on the development of provincial agriculture, mining and industry, exploitation of special provincial products, promotion of local public enterprises, issuance of subsidiary notes for local circulation and the readjustment of local finance.

Loans are given to provincial governments, business, industrial and mining organizations and farmers, to help reconstruction and to rehabilitate areas where fighting had taken place. The Hunan Provincial Bank, for instance, has paid great attention to the construction of food storehouses, the granting of mortgages and small loans to industrial and business concerns, the making of long-term industrial and mining loans and the stimulating of the production of more tea, tung oil and salt. The Chekiang Provincial Bank has set up more than 100 special offices for extending rural credits alone.

In Suiyuan the local bank has helped in revitalizing the textile industry following the disruption of the Peiping-Suiyuan railway, which formerly carried Suiyuan cotton and wool to Tientsin. The Chekiang Provincial Bank has an enterprise department to handle its investments.

These provincial financial institutions were essential for carrying out many special wartime measures, such as the sale of war bonds, the rescue of materials from war areas and the purchase of gold and silver from the people. The Hupeh Provincial Bank, in cooperation with the Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks bought almost all the gold produced in the Han river valley.

Following the conclusion of the Third National Financial Conference in June, 1941, provincial banks became agents of the National Treasury in their respective provinces. Before the conference, provincial banks acted as provincial treasuries.

Under an existing government ruling no provincial bank is allowed to issue notes of any denomination for local circulation.

Hsien Banks

The first *hsien* banks were established in 1915. Because of the lack of an overall plan and shortage of trained personnel,

many *hsien* banks were forced to liquidate, while others failed. Up to the first half of 1937, *hsien* banks known to be in operation numbered only 28, of which 13 were in Chekiang province.

The government's efforts to readjust local finance and to foster farm cooperative enterprises during the war, helped to develop the *hsien* banks. The law governing the establishment of *hsien* banks was promulgated by the National Government on January 20, 1940. A month later, the Ministry of Finance ordered the provincial governments to assist the *hsien* governments in extending the program. On December 6, 1940, the ministry further announced a model *hsien* bank constitution for the reference of *hsien* governments. Since the promulgation of the *Hsien* Bank Law, Szechwan, Honan and Shensi made the biggest development in *hsien* banking. In the spring of 1945 the Ministry of Finance made revisions in the *Hsien* Bank Law as called for by changing conditions and submitted the draft of the revised law to the government for legislative procedure.

At the end of 1944, *hsien* banks registered with the Ministry of Finance numbered 249. Of these, 11 had been granted permission to increase their capital.

The number of provincial, municipal, and *hsien* (county) banks has further increased in the postwar period. Up to the end of 1947, there were 25 provincial, 16 municipal, and 488 *hsien* banks.

COMMERCIAL BANKS

Up to August 19, 1948, there were no less than 6,000 commercial banks of all sizes in China. The great majority of them were native banks called *yin hao* and *chien chuang*, functioning in many cities and towns where there were no other banking facilities. These native banks perform a useful function in the Chinese banking system.

The *yin hao* are actually first-class native banks whose capitalization is greater than that of the *chien chuang* and less than that of the modern banks. Both the *yin hao* and the *chien chuang* are local financial organizations run along conservative lines.

Up to the end of 1947, there were 190 Chinese commercial banks registered with the Ministry of Finance. Of these, 67 had their head offices in Shanghai. The oldest commercial banks were established in the late Manchu dynasty; the most recent in 1947.

TABLE 18.—PROVINCIAL BANKS (1948)

Name of Bank	Date of Establishment	Head Office
Shansi Provincial Bank.....	1919	Taiyuan
Shantung Provincial Bank.....	1914	Tsinan
Szechwan Provincial Bank.....	1935	Chengtu
Kansu Provincial Bank.....	1939	Kaolan (Lanchow)
Anhwei Provincial Bank.....	1936	Hofei
Kiangsi Provincial Bank.....	1928	Nanchang
Kiangsu Provincial Bank.....	1912	Shanghai
Kiangsu Provincial Agricultural Bank.....	1928	Chinkiang
Sikang Provincial Bank.....	1939	Kangting
Hopei Provincial Bank.....	1929	Tientsin
Honan Provincial Bank.....	1928	Kaifeng
Chinghai Provincial Bank.....	1945	Sining
Chekiang Provincial Bank.....	1923	Hangchow
Shensi Provincial Bank.....	1930	Sian
Kweichow Provincial Bank.....	1941	Kweiyang
Hupei Provincial Bank.....	1928	Hankow
Hunan Provincial Bank.....	1929	Changsha
New Futien (Yunnan) Bank.....	1932	Kunming
Ningsia Provincial Bank.....	1938	Ningsia
Suiyuan Provincial Bank.....	1941	Kweisui
Sinkiang Provincial Bank.....	1930	Tihua
Fukien Provincial Bank.....	1935	Foochow
Taiwan Provincial Bank.....	1946	Taipeh
Kwangsi Provincial Bank.....	1932	Kweilin
Kwangtung Provincial Bank.....	1924	Canton

Source: Ministry of Finance.

TABLE 19.—MUNICIPAL BANKS (1948)

Name of Bank	Year of Establishment	Head Office
Tientsin Municipal Bank.....	1930	Tientsin
Taiyuan Municipal Bank.....	1946	Taiyuan
Peiping Municipal Bank.....	1936	Peiping
Tzekung Municipal Bank.....	1946	Tzekung
Chengtu Municipal Bank.....	1933	Chengtu
Changsha Municipal Bank.....	1946	Changsha
Kunming Municipal Bank.....	1943	Kunming
Nanking Municipal Bank.....	1945	Nanking
Nanchang Municipal Bank.....	1928	Nanchang
Chungking Municipal Bank.....	1946	Chungking
Pengpu Municipal Bank.....	1945	Pengpu
Kweilin Municipal Bank.....	1943	Kweilin
Hsuchow Municipal Bank.....	1946	Hsuchow
Canton Municipal Bank.....	1927	Canton
Lanchow Municipal Bank.....	1943	Lanchow

Source: Ministry of Finance.

TABLE 20.—*Hsien* (COUNTY) BANKS

Province	Number of <i>Hsien</i> Banks	Branches
Szechwan.....	124	163
Kansu.....	5	..
Anhwei.....	44	2
Kiangsi.....	24	3
Kiangsu.....	16	..
Sikang.....	9	..
Honan.....	69	..
Chekiang.....	14	3
Shensi.....	68	4
Kweichow.....	7	2
Hupei.....	35	5
Hunan.....	9	1
Yunnan.....	38	..
Fukien.....	2	..
Kwangsi.....	12	..
Kwangtung.....	11	..
TOTAL.....	487	183

Source: Ministry of Finance.

GOVERNMENT SUPERVISION OVER BANKS

From 1942 to 1945 the government promulgated the following important measures for the supervision of banking operations.

INSPECTION OF BANKS

During the war to prevent banks from engaging in unlawful business dealings, the Ministry of Finance conducted periodic inspections of books and accounts of banks and native banks in and around Chungking and ten nearby cities. In the winter of 1942 a network of bank inspectorates covered 16 cities, namely, Chengtu, Ipin, Neikiang, Wanhhsien, Kunming, Kweiyang, Kweilin, Hengyang, Kungong, Kian, Yungan, Tunhsi, Loyang, Sian, Lanchow and Tihwa. The Ministry of Finance cooperated with the National General Mobilization Council which was charged with inspecting accounts of factories and firms operated under government loans. However, with a view to simplifying the banking structures and strengthening the supervisory power of the Central Bank of China over the financial market, the Ministry of Finance, in March, 1945, abolished all of the inspection offices and invested the Central Bank of China with the power of supervision over the operation of all provincial and commercial banks. Supervision of *hsien* banks was vested in the finance depart-

ments of various provincial governments while the Ministry of Finance retained the power of inspecting books and accounts of the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, the Farmers' Bank of China, the Central Trust and the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank. In addition, periodic inspection of the banking conditions in various localities was conducted by men sent out directly by the Ministry of Finance, and the various local branches of the Central Bank of China and the various provincial finance departments were required to report the results of inspection to the Ministry of Finance.

In the postwar period, with the exception of Nanking, Shanghai, Taiwan, and the northeast, the inspection work of banks and native banks in the country has been conducted by the Central Bank of China. The modern and native banks in Nanking and Shanghai have been supervised by appointees of the Ministry of Finance.

With the exception of Taiwan and the northeast, the Central Bank of China has divided the whole country into 29 areas for inspection as follows:

CAPITAL CONVERSION AND INCREMENT

Owing to the inflation of the *fapi*, the original capitalization of all modern and native banks in the country lost their

practical significance. While in 1945, CNC-\$50-million or CNC\$100-million meant sizeable sums, they represented little value in the fall of 1948. It meant a great loss to the National Treasury as many taxes were levied on the basis of legal capital.

Therefore, after the currency reform of August 19, 1948, the government fixed a minimum capitalization for each type of bank in terms of the Gold Yuan notes, which the latter must raise within a specified period of time or they would be ordered to liquidate.

The government measures concerning the capital augmentation of private banks divided the country into several areas, and fixed a minimum amount for each type of banks in each area. The following is a list of these areas and the corresponding minimums:

1. In Shanghai, Tientsin, and Canton:

- (a) First-class banks both limited and unlimited, minimum capital GY\$500,000

- (b) Second-class banks, unlimited 250,000

2. In Nanking, Hankow, Tsingtao, Chungking, Mukden, Sian, Kunming, Chengtu:

- (a) First-class banks, limited and unlimited, minimum capital GY\$300,000

- (b) Second-class banks, unlimited 150,000

3. Wuhsi, Soochow, Chinkiang, Wuching, Changshu, Hsuehchow, Yangchow, Hangchow, Chihhsien, Shaohsing, Yung-kia, Hsiaoshan, Yuyao, Pengpu, Wuhu, Nanchang, Kiukiang, Foochow, Amoy, Chungshan, Nanhai, Hsinhwei, Kaoyao, Toyshan, Swatow, Kweilin, Tsangwu, Changsha, Hengyang, Wuchang, Shashih, Ichang, Neikiang, Ipin, Wanhshien, Lushien, Loshan, Tzekung, Kweiyang, Tsinan, Kaifeng, Chengchow, Taiyuan, Lanchow, Paoki, Taipeh, Taichung, Penghua, Keelung, and Kaohsiung:

TABLE 21.—BANKING INSPECTION AREAS DEFINED BY THE CENTRAL BANK OF CHINA, 1948.

Name of Area and Central Bank in Charge	Area or Province Under Control
Shanghai Office.....	Counties around the city
Nanking Office.....	Kiangsu
Hangchow Branch.....	Chekiang
Wuhu Branch.....	Anhui
Nanchang Branch.....	Kiangsi
Hankow Branch.....	Hupeh
Changsha Branch.....	Hunan
Foochow Branch.....	Fukien
Canton Branch.....	Kwangtung
Tsingtao Branch.....	Shantung
Kaifeng Branch.....	Honan
Tientsin Branch.....	East Hopei
Peiping Branch.....	West Hopei
Chengteh Branch.....	*Jehol
Kalgan Branch.....	*Chahar
Kweisui Branch.....	*Suiyuan
Mukden Branch.....	*Liaoning, Liaopei and Antung
Harbin Branch.....	Sungkiang, Hokiang and Heilungkiang
Changchun Branch.....	*Kirin, Nunkiang and Hsingan
Taiyuan Branch.....	Shansi
Chungking Branch.....	East Szechwan
Chengtu Branch.....	West Szechwan
Yaan Branch.....	Sikang
Kweiyang Branch.....	Kweichow
Kunming Branch.....	Yunnan
Kweilin Branch.....	Kwangsi
Sian Branch.....	Shensi
Lanchow Branch.....	Kansu, Ningsia, and Chinghai
Tihwa Branch.....	Sinkiang

*Work suspended.

Source: Ministry of Finance.

- (a) First-class banks, limited and unlimited, minimum capital GY\$200,000
- (b) Second-class banks, unlimited 100,000
- 4. First-class banks in all cities unlisted in (1), (2) and (3), minimum capital GY\$100,000
- Second-class banks 50,000
- 5. The minimum capital for each class of native banks (*chien chuang*) will be half of that for the corresponding class of modern banks given in (1), (2), (3) and (4).

All banks were asked to meet the minimum requirement within two months after the publication of the measures. Failure would result in the revocation of their business licenses.

It should be pointed out that the minimums were half of what the government had originally fixed for the modern and native banks. However, to make it easier for them to raise the necessary sums, they were allowed to make up 50 percent of the total increase required by their assets. They were further allowed to pool their resources to meet the requirement, though in such cases they would have to operate as a single bank.

The time limit for capital increase was extended to the end of 1949 by the Ministry of Finance. These measures became inapplicable in July, 1949, when the Gold Yuan system was abolished and a new currency, the Silver Dollar or Silver Yuan, was introduced by the government in Canton.

CONTROL OF INTEREST RATE

During the war the following measures were enforced by the Ministry of Finance to regulate rates of interest:

(1) *Enforcement of Acceptance and Discount Measures*—Clearance of commercial papers or bills was first carried out in Chungking by the Central Bank of China in June, 1942. By August of the same year the total value of bills cleared was CNC\$4,315-million, the balance was CNC\$872-million and the number of bills cleared was 48,500. By June, 1944, the total value of bills cleared was increased to CNC\$9,892-million, the balance being CNC\$2,187-million and the number of bills cleared 64,500.

On April 1, 1943, regulations governing the acceptance and discount of bills during the emergency period were promulgated and enforced in 23 cities in Free China. By August, 1944, the new regulations had been extended to all of Free China.

From September, 1942 to May, 1943, the four government banks discounted CNC\$3,908-million worth of bills.

(2) *Approval of Re-discount Rate*—In the meantime, a commercial papers' re-discount examining committee was organized by the Ministry of Finance in conjunction with the Central Bank of China and the Joint Administrative Board of the four government banks. The committee approved the rate of re-discount and thereby controlled the market rates of interest.

(3) *Regulation of Interest Rates*—As of January 1, 1943, the Central Bank of China began issuing a daily bulletin on the rates of interest to be observed as the standard for interest chargeable on all bank deposits and loans. The local banks may determine the interest rates on the basis of the daily bulletin and local financial conditions, and submit them to the Central Bank of China for authorization. Extension of loans at exorbitant rates of interest was liable to punishment by bank inspectors of the district concerned.

(4) *Prohibition of Absorption of Deposits by Business Firms*—To kill the black market rates, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Ministry of Justice took joint action to outlaw the receiving of deposits by business firms. In addition, the Joint Administrative Office of the Four Government Banks tried to eliminate the disparity between the black market and official rates of interest.

After V-J Day, the government continued to supervise the bank interest rates throughout the country through the Central Bank of China. The general principle in this supervision has been that the interest rate on deposits must not be greater than the interest rate on loans, which is to be fixed by the local banking guild or association from day to day with the approval of the local branch of the Central Bank of China.

CONTROL OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE

Through the war years the government enforced the policy of absorbing foreign exchange realized from exports, encouraging overseas remittances and restricting the supply of foreign exchange and concluded a number of currency stabilization loans. To shatter the enemy's attempt to absorb the Chinese foreign exchange fund, the government restricted the sale of foreign exchange for the payment of imports.

At the outset of the war the government adopted the foreign exchange stabilization fund system in Hongkong and Shanghai to maintain the credit of *fapi* or legal tender. Early in 1941 a Stabilization Board of China was formed to control the currency stabilization fund provided by the three loans of US\$50-million from the United States, £5-million from Great Britain and US\$20-million from the government banks. Applications for foreign exchange for commercial purposes according to the official rates had to be approved by the board. Beginning from October 1941, with the promulgation of regulations restricting registered and specially authorized banks in Free China in the selling and buying of foreign exchange commercial concerns could no longer apply for foreign exchange at official rates, but new rates were established for such purposes. On January 1, 1942, the rates were revised to US\$5 for CNC\$100.

Despite the continual rise of commodity prices the official rate of exchange between the Chinese and the American dollar was maintained at the ratio of 20 to one. To make up for the disparity of value between the two currencies, the Ministry of Finance instituted a compensation measure, effective as of May 1, 1943, allowing a 50% subsidy on remittances in United States currency sent to foreign diplomatic missions, foreign civilians working in China, and families of overseas Chinese. The new measure later was extended to foreign cultural, religious, and philanthropic bodies, members of the Allied armed forces and foreign correspondents. Beginning from January 20, 1944, the subsidy was increased to 100%. The Ministry of Finance raised the subsidy on overseas remittances to 480%, effective July 16, 1945, with a view to encouraging overseas remittances.

In the fall of 1943 the Stabilization Board of China was merged into the Foreign Exchange and Assets Control Commission, then directly under the Executive Yuan. The merger was necessitated by the changing conditions on the financial front. For efficient administrative control the Foreign Exchange and Assets Commission was placed under the direct control of the Ministry of Finance in December, 1943. The Minister of Finance was concurrently chairman of the commission. In March, 1945, the Foreign Exchange and Assets Control Commission was abolished and its work transferred to the Central Bank of China.

The Ministry of Finance, in June, 1945, promulgated successively four new meas-

ures governing, respectively, application for foreign exchange by (1) government organs and business, (2) private individuals, (3) industrial and trade interests, and (4) insurance companies. Besides, a provisional measure to foster trade was instituted whereby exporters could purchase and import with the amount of foreign exchange realized from export such commodities as were needed in the country.

After the conclusion of the war, the government lifted foreign exchange controls in order to permit foreign commodities to enter the country to meet the nation's needs. Therefore in 1946 and early 1947, Chinese cities were flooded with foreign goods, especially items made in the U. S. A.

But the heavy drain on the nation's foreign exchange reserves was soon felt, and the supply of imports had to be drastically reduced. Prices of imported goods began to go up, thus affecting the value of the *fapi*. Price fluctuations came in waves. Intervals between waves during the second half of 1947 became shorter and shorter. At the same time, the amplitude of the fluctuations grew wider and wider.

To maintain the value of the *fapi*, the government recalled from circulation as much of it as possible mainly through the sale of gold and industrial materials such as cotton and cotton yarn. In the winter of 1947, the sale of gold as a means of stabilizing commodity prices, and indirectly the value of the *fapi*, reached such proportions that it became obvious that the policy could not be maintained much longer.

Therefore, the government first tightened the money market by suspending all government loans to production enterprises, at the end of November. On February 17, 1947 it announced emergency economic measures prohibiting free transactions in gold and foreign currencies and adjusting the exchange rates between the *fapi* and the U. S. dollar at CNC\$12,000 to one. The price of gold was fixed at the same time at CNC\$4,800,000 per Chinese ounce.

Prior to the introduction of these emergency measures, export trade had become impossible at the official exchange rate. Various devices, such as the 100% subsidy on exports, were used, but they failed to solve the problem. In the field of import business not only many restrictions were imposed to reduce non-essential imports and to conserve foreign exchange, but ways were also devised in the

hope to get the necessary foreign exchange. One of the expediences used was the export-import link system, which fundamentally was a way to let the exports finance imports.

After the promulgation of these emergency measures the import quota system, still in force late in 1948, was introduced. Quotas for all essential imports licensed by the government and those for which it would supply the foreign exchange needed at the official exchange rates were announced every three months.

Despite government assistance in the form of loans and subsidies, the export trade was again at a standstill. The import trade fared somewhat better with government-provided foreign exchange but the import quota system was neither fair considering the market prices of imported commodities and of industrial raw materials, nor did it provide the quantities of imports the country needed. Under such circumstances, smuggling became rampant, and the black market of foreign exchange went wild and commodity prices rose by leaps and bounds. The purchasing power of the *fapi* continued to deteriorate.

By the middle of 1948, the overall economic situation of the country became once more critical. The government was forced to give up the pegged foreign exchange rates. To make foreign trade possible, and to regain the remittances of overseas Chinese that were almost completely lost, it adopted the foreign exchange surrender certificate system, under which the official foreign exchanges became a basic rate with the difference between it and the realistic open market rate made up in the surrender certificate. The exchange rate of the foreign currency in the certificate was fixed weekly by a board of the Central Bank of China called the Foreign Exchange Equalization Board. The certificate was negotiable between exporters and importers, and its valid date was first limited to one week and later extended to one month.

Not long after the introduction of this new foreign exchange control measure, the inflation of the *fapi* took on a new viciousness. The general economic situation of the country became so unstable that to avert a general economic collapse some kind of currency reform became imperative.

On August 19, 1948, the government announced its monetary reform plan in four sets of regulations. A new currency called the Gold Yuan was introduced to replace the *fapi*. The rates of exchange between the new currency and foreign

currencies were pegged at the basic rate of four Gold Yuan to one U. S. dollar, and the price of gold was fixed at GY\$200 per Chinese ounce.

The new currency met with initial success. Commodity prices that had fluctuated for nearly two years became stable at once, and an increase in exports was registered. But due to many other factors, this success was short-lived. Two months later, a new spurt in the price spiral broke out in violence and the nation was brought face to face with a new economic crisis.

To meet the situation, the government revised the regulations of the currency reform by devaluating the buying power of the Gold Yuan, and backing it up with Gold Yuan coins. The rates of exchange between the devaluated Gold Yuan and foreign currencies were readjusted in November, 1948, at GY\$20 to one U. S. dollar. In the field of foreign trade, the export-import link system was reinstated.

Control measures continued with the adoption of the Silver Dollar currency in July, 1949.

INSURANCE

With but a short history, insurance in China has great possibilities. In Chungking, the number of insurance companies grew from a mere handful before the war to 51 companies at the end of June, 1945. Of this number only three dealt in life insurance, one was engaged in fidelity insurance and one in insurance against personal accidents, while the rest were all properly (i.e., fire and marine) insurance companies.

GOVERNMENT SUPERVISION

Coincident with this growth of new companies the Chinese Government has tightened its supervision of the insurance business by promulgating and putting into effect as of September 25, 1943, a set of regulations governing insurance enterprises. These wartime regulations were largely based on the *Insurance Law* (revised and promulgated in 1937) and the *Insurance Business Act* (promulgated in 1935). The salient points of these emergency regulations, from which government insurance enterprises were, however, exempted (Art. I), were as follows:

1. Insurance companies are not to engage in multiple lines of insurance, such as life and property insurance, concurrently; and they are not allowed to engage in undertakings other than insurance.

2. The capitalization of an insurance company shall not be less than CNC\$5-million with shares paid in cash. Existing

companies with capitalization less than the required minimum are to make up the deficit within a time limit set by the Ministry of Finance.

3. A deposit is to be made with the National Treasury at the time of registration.

4. Utilization of the capital funds and liability reserve funds of an insurance company is to be confined to the following:

- (a) Deposit with government banks;
- (b) Deposit with state-operated trust companies or savings organizations;
- (c) Life insurance policy loans;
- (d) Loans against guaranteed and marketable securities;
- (e) Loans against real estate as first lien;
- (f) Investments in government bonds and/or private corporation bonds;
- (g) Investment in productive enterprises.

It is stipulated that loans under items (c) and (d) above shall conform to government regulations for ordinary bank loans. Investments in government bonds under item (e) shall not be less than one-fourth of the total capital funds and liability reserve funds of a company. Investments under items (e) and (g) shall not exceed one-tenth of the aggregate amount of capital and liability reserve funds; and investments under item (h) shall not exceed one-fourth of the said aggregate amount.

5. Uniform basic policy conditions of the various kinds of insurances are to be prescribed by the Ministry of Finance.

6. Insurance companies are required to file monthly and periodically returns of business done and results of operations to the Ministry of Finance.

7. Insurance brokers and accessories are to apply to the Ministry of Finance for registration.

Following the promulgation of the above wartime regulations the Government made public in April, 1944, detailed rules governing their operation. Briefly they provided for the following:

(a) Insurance companies applying for registration are to pay a registration fee and a license fee on the following scale:

(1) Registration fee of CNC\$1,000 on capitalization of CNC\$5-million or less; and an additional sum of CNC\$1,000 on any amount in excess of CNC\$5-million, and/or on each CNC\$5-million in excess thereafter.

(2) License fee of CNC\$50.

(b) The deposit to be made with the National Treasury at the time of registration is to be 15% of the total amount

of paid-up capital. Where the paid-up capital exceeds CNC\$5-million, a deposit of five percent is to be made on the portion in excess, but in no case shall the total amount of deposit exceed CNC\$2-million. Deposits may be made in cash or in government securities upon approval of the Ministry of Finance.

(c) Unearned premium reserves are to be calculated on the following bases:

- (1) On fire insurance contracts of one year's duration—40%;
- (2) On marine and transportation insurance contracts—20%;
- (3) On hull policies—60%;
- (4) On other kinds of property insurance policies—50%.

GOVERNMENT INSURANCE

During the war the government was actively engaged in various lines of insurance. Outstanding were the two forms of war risk insurance, i.e., War Risk Transportation Insurance and Land War Risk Insurance, both of which were intended as wartime measures. The writing of war risk transportation insurance was begun almost immediately after the commencement of the Sino-Japanese hostilities in 1937, when the need became apparent for some protective insurance measure against the risks of war and of overland (including waterways) transportation in the wholesale removal of factories and properties to the interior. A sum of CNC\$10-million (subsequently increased to CNC\$20-million) was allocated by the Ministry of Finance as capital for this emergency project, and the administration of the scheme was entrusted to the Central Trust, which also operated a property insurance department Operation of this scheme during the eight years of war brought generally satisfactory results, both as a business venture and a fiscal project.

As the War Risk Transportation Insurance scheme was intended to cover only goods in transit, its usefulness of a general nature was, therefore, somewhat limited. Accordingly, in November, 1939, the government again initiated another war risk insurance measure, known as Land War Risk Insurance, which offered coverage against air raids and consequent fire risks to investors and producers outside of enemy-occupied areas. Its scope of coverage embraced (1) stored commodities (limited to agricultural, industrial and mining products and goods having values in foreign trade); (2) productive machineries and raw materials (limited to those in the possession of the underwritten factories); (3) construction

materials (limited to those in warehouses or in the possession of contractors and engineers in the course of construction); (4) factory buildings, government offices, school properties and other designated building structures; and (5) conveyances of transportation such as steamships, motor trucks, junks, etc. Administration of the scheme was also entrusted to the Central Trust.

Aside from the two war risk insurance schemes mentioned above, the Central Trust also has operated a property insurance department, carrying fire, marine and fidelity insurances, and a life insurance department. The property insurance department has enjoyed a tremendous growth in recent years, and in business volume it now surpasses any other private insurance company in the country. It has the added advantage of a somewhat exclusive field in government-owned properties and in the vast category of goods and commodities now under government monopoly and/or control. The life insurance department has also pushed its programs vigorously, particularly in group life insurance and general insurance to the public, requiring no medical examination. In spite of the difficulties of the currency situation which have somewhat mitigated its efforts, it has now probably the largest amount of life insurance outstanding for any single life company in the country.

The Postal Remittances and Savings Bank and the four government banks all handle insurance of various kinds. The Bank of China owns and operates the China Insurance Co., Ltd., dealing in property insurance, and also the China Life Insurance Co., Ltd., dealing in life insurance. The Farmers' Bank of China owns and operates the China Agricultural Insurance Co., Ltd., while the Bank of Communications is in control of the China Pacific Insurance Co., Ltd. The Postal Bank operates the simple life insurance.

PRIVATE COMPANIES

Up to the end of 1946, there were altogether 184 insurance companies with a total paid-up capital of CNC\$2,437,500,000. Of them 38 had branches, totaling 278. Guilds of the insurance business were established in Shanghai, Chungking, Kunming, Nanking, Tzukung, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Peiping, Hankow, Hanchow, Soochow, and Yungkia (Wenchow). Their national association was formally inaugurated on July 14, 1946.

Before the war, the major portion of the insurance business in China was in the hands of foreign insurance companies.

Besides their vast experience in the business, they were financially stronger than Chinese firms.

Before 1943 foreign insurance companies enjoyed extraterritoriality. Therefore, they were not under the control of the Chinese government as Chinese insurance companies were. Since the abolition of extraterritoriality they have been subject to the same control as the Chinese firms.

Up to the end of 1946, 50 foreign insurance companies in China had been registered with the Ministry of Finance, including 22 American, 13 British, three French, one Swiss, one Cuban, one Canadian, and seven Chinese firms. The Chinese companies classified as foreign companies had their head offices in Hong-kong.

In addition there were in China 39 branches of foreign insurance companies. Another 11 foreign companies had appointed agencies in China. The American Asiatic Underwriters alone is the agency of nine of these eleven foreign insurance firms.

Life insurance business is still in its infancy in China. Even before the war, when the economic situation of the country was comparatively stable, it lagged far behind other types of insurance. During the war, with commodity prices going up all the time business was even duller. Up to the end of 1946, there were only seven life insurance companies in China with an aggregate capital of CNC\$31-million.

In view of the vast population of China, the seven life insurance companies are obviously inadequate. The Chinese Government is cognizant of this fact.

The re-insurance business in China is controlled entirely by the Central Trust. The latter started to handle re-insurance in 1945 with a fund of CNC\$1-billion which became inadequate in the postwar period, and in March 1946, an additional CNC\$4-billion was added to it.

From September, 1945, when the Central Trust began to underwrite re-insurance business, up to the end of 1946, its total volume of business amounted to CNC\$562,200,610,000. Altogether 82 insurance companies participated in the business, and 32 had been permanent fire re-insurance underwriters, and 36 water re-insurance underwriters. The maximum amounts in different currencies reinsured during the period was CNC\$2,222,790,000, Piastre 175,000 and Singapore \$17,500 for fire, and CNC\$2,392,140,000 and Piastre 200,000 for marine. During the said period there was a net profit of CNC\$171,910,000 made by the Central Trust.

CHAPTER 22

COOPERATIVES

COOPERATIVE ADMINISTRATION

Before 1927, the cooperative movement in China was privately sponsored. The National Government took a keen interest in the movement as a means of developing rural economy. Immediately after the Northern Expedition in 1928, the Kuomintang ordered its branches throughout the country to make the cooperative movement a part of their activities.

Since then, the government has included cooperative enterprises in its administrative program. The movement is not only a device to train the people in managing their own affairs and in democratic methods but a check on usurious practices in rural districts.

A department of cooperatives was created in the Ministry of Industry in 1935. After the outbreak of the war in 1937, its functions were divided between the department of agriculture and forestry of the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Agricultural Credit Administration. These functions were taken over by the Central Cooperative Administration of the Ministry of Economic Affairs in 1939. In 1940, the C.C.A. became part of the Ministry of Social Affairs. In 1949, upon the abolition of the Ministry of Social Affairs, cooperative affairs were put again under the charge of the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Up to 1948, regional cooperative administrations had been set up in 15 provinces. Other provinces maintain cooperative bureaus either under their office of social affairs, or civil affairs or finance departments. In the *hsien* and municipalities, there are special offices in charge of cooperative administration.

In 1947 the government adopted a five-year plan for the development of cooperative enterprises, aiming at 350,651 working cooperatives and 1,464 cooperative banks.

DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVES

At the end of August, 1948, there were 170,608 cooperatives in 27 provinces and seven special municipalities, with a total membership of 23,764,000 and an aggregate capital of GY\$223,666. Of this number, 167,340 were working cooperatives, while the rest were either local cooperative federations or mutual aid or probational societies.

According to statistics of the Central Cooperative Administration, Szechwan ranked first with 26,632 cooperatives and 2,980,000 members. This was the result of eight years of promotion efforts during the war. Kiangsi had the largest membership of 2,982,000, though its number of societies was comparatively small. The poorest province, so far as the cooperative movement is concerned, was Kirin (See Table 1.)

The cooperative movement made rapid progress after 1928. From 584 societies, the number increased to 46,983 in 1937. Great increases were registered during the war years (See Table 2.)

The percentage of functional distribution can also be seen from Table 2. Credit cooperatives took the lead in pre-war years as the lack of capital funds was a prevalent condition in China's rural areas. After the outbreak of the war, the government capitalized on the cooperatives as a means to develop rural enterprises. As a result, the percentage of credit cooperatives dropped, and that of agricultural production societies increased from 5.7 percent in 1937 to 22.4 in August, 1948. The number of consumers' and marketing cooperatives has also been increased.

Agricultural cooperative societies included those engaged in the production of rice, wheat and other cereals. The industrial cooperatives largely produced textiles.

TABLE 1. DISTRIBUTION OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES
(AUGUST, 1948)

Province or Municipality	Number of Societies	Number of Members (in 1,000)	Capital (GY\$)
<i>Provinces</i>			
Kiangsu.....	2,367	674	33,244.81
Chekiang.....	8,079	1,372	1,954.03
Anhwei.....	11,151	1,080	6,426.68
Kiangsi.....	6,136	2,982	4,304.25
Hupei.....	14,192	1,359	11,628.70
Hunan.....	15,404	1,335	1,017.16
Szechwan.....	26,632	2,980	16,786.43
Sikang.....	1,396	113	496.38
Hopei.....	1,009	246	2,848.71
Shantung.....	823	201	1,814.78
Shansi.....	640	247	1,987.78
Honan.....	16,278	1,653	2,465.74
Shensi.....	7,125	1,512	1,006.08
Kansu.....	5,980	658	2,653.71
Chinghai.....	285	71	5.70
Fukien.....	8,522	774	5,792.24
Taiwan.....	585	727	94,071.21
Kwangtung.....	15,462	1,357	6,929.84
Kwangsi.....	10,659	1,199	1,200.82
Yunnan.....	8,419	629	320.26
Kweichow.....	6,021	1,031	260.90
Liaoning.....	75	28	1,221.46
Kirin.....	29	30	108.65
Jehol.....	65	28	141.07
Chahar.....	230	140	2,245.70
Suiyuan.....	863	93	1,244.14
Ningsia.....	813	84	87.63
<i>Municipalities</i>			
Nanking.....	137	153	2,996.10
Shanghai.....	139	185	2,479.71
Peiping.....	332	237	86.48
Tientsin.....	358	275	1,392.86
Tsingtao.....	239	123	9,381.30
Chungking.....	48	43	251.17
Mudken.....	115	145	4,823.19
TOTAL.....	170,608	23,764	223,666.67

Source: Central Cooperative Administration

To encourage the movement in the pacification areas (areas affected by the communist rebellion), the Central Cooperative Administration established a Cooperative Enterprises Advisory Corps, which started work in February, 1947, in northern Kiangsu, northern Anhwei, Shantung, and Hopei. Four mobile units were sent out to advise and direct the organization program. As a result of their work, 74 cooperatives were organized in 1947 in northern Kiangsu with 33,339 members, 55 in northern Anhwei with

55,035 members, 26 in Shantung with 20,558 members, and 55 in Hopei with 87,900 members.

COOPERATIVE FINANCE

The Central Cooperative Bank was established in November, 1946. It planned to set up within five years 27 provincial or municipal branches and 190 sub-branches in the various *hsien*. In June, 1948, there were nine provincial or municipal branches located in Shanghai,

TABLE 2. DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVES

1937-1948

Year	No. of Societies	No. of Members (in 1,000)	Percentage of Functional Distribution								Insurance	Credit	Others
			Agricultural Production	Industrial Production	Supply	Market- ing	Con- sumers'	Public Utilities					
1937.....	46,983	2,140	5.7	..	0.4	2.5	0.4	0.1	..	73.6	17.3		
1938.....	64,565	3,113	11.0	..	0.4	2.3	0.4	85.9	..		
1939.....	91,426	4,367	6.8	1.7	0.4	1.8	0.5	0.4	..	88.3	0.1		
1940.....	133,542	7,237	7.0	1.7	0.4	2.0	1.4	0.3	0.1	87.0	0.1		
1941.....	155,647	9,374	9.1	1.5	0.6	1.8	1.7	0.3	0.1	84.9	0.1		
1942.....	160,393	10,142	7.0	5.5	0.6	1.8	2.3	0.3	0.1	82.4	0.1		
1943.....	166,820	13,803	14.2	4.6	8.1	10.3	10.1	2.6	2.0	48.1	2.0		
1944.....	171,681	15,825	16.8	5.0	8.7	10.6	13.0	2.8	1.9	41.2	1.9		
1945.....	172,053	17,232	17.03	4.9	9.4	11.0	14.0	2.8	1.9	38.0	1.9		
1946.....	160,222	19,625	19.2	6.0	9.9	11.1	14.9	2.6	2.2	34.1	2.2		
1947.....	167,387	22,134	21.7	4.8	10.1	13.7	13.8	2.8	2.2	30.9	2.2		
1948.....	170,609	23,764	22.4	4.8	10.4	13.9	13.9	2.7	2.1	29.8	2.1		
(Aug.)													

Source: Central Cooperative Administration

Peiping, Paoting, Tsinan, Kaifeng, Wuchang, Changsha, Canton and Mukden, and 24 sub-branches.

The Central Cooperative Bank works closely with the Farmers' Bank of China in the extension of cooperative credit. After its network throughout the country is completed, it will be responsible solely for cooperative finances.

About 500 local cooperative banks have been organized during the past 15 years, but many of them have suspended business. Provincial or municipal cooperative banks in operation in late 1948 included those in Szechwan, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Kansu, Hunan and Chungking.

Outstanding cooperative loans totalled GY\$810,150 in August, 1948. The largest portion, GY\$628,668.77, was extended to agricultural production cooperatives. Marketing cooperatives, taking GY\$100,376.45 of the total, ranked second. The remaining loans were extended to: credit cooperatives, GY\$41,369.58; industrial production, GY\$14,434.19; consumers', GY\$11,001.43; public utilities, GY\$9,477.44; supply, GY\$1,263.40; and all other types of cooperatives, GY\$3,559.70.

INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVES

Industrial cooperatives were a wartime innovation. They were sponsored by a group of Chinese and foreigners in Hankow in 1938. The organ in charge is the Chinese Industrial Cooperatives. Its object was to assist in industrial production during the war period and to establish basis for small cooperative industries throughout the country. The relief of war refugees was another of its functions.

During the war years, the C.I.C. was administered by three regional offices, namely, the Northwest Headquarters, comprising Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai, Hupeh, Shansi, and Honan; the Southwest Headquarters, comprising Szechwan, Sikang, Yunnan, and Kweichow; and the Southeast Headquarters, comprising Hunan, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, and Anhwei. The C.I.C. head office was first located in Hankow and later in Chungking. In 1946 it was moved to Shanghai. At one time it controlled 1,700 industrial cooperatives. Since the end of the war, its membership has greatly decreased. At the end of 1948 there were less than 500 units.

CHAPTER 23

FOREIGN TRADE

GENERAL REVIEW

China's foreign trade has been characterized by an annual deficit. Through various measures such as imposing restrictions on imports of luxuries and non-essential commodities, adoption of import-export link system, and encouraging and aiding industries producing export goods, the government has in recent years endeavored to reduce the annual excess of imports over exports.

Foreign trade, which was greatly reduced during World War II, began to increase in volume shortly after V-J. During 1946, China's imports amounted to CNC\$1,501,165,246,000 (equivalent to US\$560,579,822 at the official rate of exchange) as against CNC\$412,111,811,000 (equivalent to US\$148,878,808) of exports. The import excess was CNC\$1,089,053,435,000 (equivalent to US\$411,701,014).

Imports during 1947 totalled CNC\$10,681,326,574,000 (equivalent to US\$480,156,756) as compared to CNC\$6,376,504,297,000 (equivalent to US\$230,523,980)

of exports, thus showing an unfavorable balance of CNC\$4,304,822,277,000 (equivalent to US\$249,632,776).

In 1948 the trade situation showed definite improvement. While in 1947 imports accounted for 63% of the combined foreign trade value and exports only 37%, imports in 1948 dropped to 53% and that of exports rose to 47%. In the first eight months of 1948, imports totalled CNC\$189,662,591,175 and exports amounted to CNC\$170,513,879,526. Following adoption of the Gold Yuan as the national currency in August, 1948, trade figures beginning August were in terms of the new currency. During the last four months of 1948, imports amounted to GY\$527,805,679, and exports to GY\$926,048,779. The favorable trade balance for this four-month period was nearly GY\$400-million. This favorable balance was largely the result of a phenomenal rise in exports in December.

The foreign trade situation from January to June, 1948, is represented in the following table. (Data for subsequent periods not yet available at the time of publication of this edition.)

TABLE 1.—CHINA'S FOREIGN TRADE, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1948
(Unit: 1,000 for C.N.C. Value)

Period	Import	Export
January.....	C.N.C.\$ 2,080,397,006 (U.S.\$ 19,473,000)	C.N.C.\$ 1,738,662,318 (U.S.\$ 16,274,000)
February.....	C.N.C.\$ 1,939,006,087 (U.S.\$ 14,078,000)	C.N.C.\$ 1,724,455,242 (U.S.\$ 12,230,000)
March.....	C.N.C.\$ 6,557,504,373 (U.S.\$ 32,328,000)	C.N.C.\$ 3,515,126,328 (U.S.\$ 17,330,000)
April.....	C.N.C.\$ 7,877,868,683 (U.S.\$ 25,051,184)	C.N.C.\$ 5,290,117,498 (U.S.\$ 16,823,001)
May.....	C.N.C.\$12,837,367,158 (U.S.\$ 30,863,581)	C.N.C.\$ 7,681,345,652 (U.S.\$ 18,467,456)
June.....	C.N.C.\$10,264,412,611 (U.S.\$ 22,587,445)	C.N.C.\$10,124,575,419 (U.S.\$ 22,281,925)

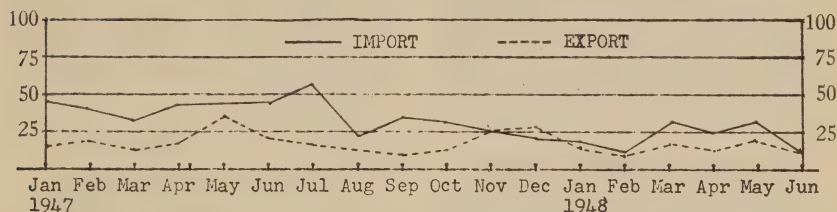
Note: Figures of U. S. dollars for January to May, 1948, were estimated on the basis of the average market rate and for June, 1948, on the Foreign Exchange Equalization Fund Committee's cover rate plus the price of the Exchange Surrender Certificate.

Source: Chinese Maritime Customs

The following chart shows the fluctuations of China's import and export trade

during the period from January 1947 to June, 1948.

CHINA'S FOREIGN TRADE, JANUARY, 1947-JUNE, 1948



Note: Figures for January to July, 1947, were estimated on the basis of the official rate of exchange; for August, 1947, to May, 1948, on the average market rate; and for June, 1948, on the Foreign Exchange Equalization Fund Committee's cover rate plus the price of the Exchange Surrender Certificate.

FOREIGN TRADE IN 1946 AND 1947 COMPARED

A comparison of China's foreign trade in 1947 with that of 1946 shows that while her imports in 1947 registered a drop of 14% her exports increased by 53%, representing a decrease of import excess by 38%. This was due to the government's policy of restricting imports and encouraging exports.

Although there was a general decrease of 14% in the import total in 1947, the importation of gasoline, liquid fuel, kerosene oil, textile machinery, sulphate of ammonia, railway sleepers, rice and wheat flour registered an increase over the 1946 figures. Raw cotton was still the most predominant commodity among 1947 imports, but the total fell below that of 1946. Other imports in 1947 that showed a decrease as compared with 1946 figures included cigarette paper, paper and newsprint, drugs, and motor tractors.

The export trade showed clear signs of revival in 1947 when important commodities such as tung oil, tea oil, hogs, fresh eggs, piece goods, silk piecegoods, cotton yarn, tungsten ore, antimony regulus, silks, green tea, cottonseed cakes, and shelled groundnuts all were sent abroad in much larger quantities than in 1946. Tung oil occupied the first place in the export list. Bristles and raw silk, important export items in prewar days, suffered setbacks in 1947 in comparison with 1946 totals.

COUNTRIES TRADING WITH CHINA

During the two years after V-J Day, the United States led the countries from

which China obtained her imports. India came second, with Great Britain third. But imports from the United States in 1947 actually registered a decline from the 1946 peak, while both India and Great Britain edged upward in China's import list.

During 1946, 57.16% of China's total import value came from the United States, 8.75% from India, and 4.59% from Great Britain. By 1947, 50.15% of the total import value came from the United States, 9.04% from India, and 6.86% from Great Britain. Next in import importance in 1946 came Hongkong and Brazil. But in 1947, Canada and Iran replaced Hongkong and Brazil as the fourth and fifth countries of importance. This was largely due to the large quantities of Canadian paper and newsprint and wheat flour and Iranian gasoline and liquid fuel China imported that year.

In her export trade during 1946, China dealt chiefly with the United States, Hongkong, and India in that order. During 1947, Hongkong occupied first place, the United States second, Great Britain third, and India sixth. The change of leading positions was mainly caused by the large quantities of tung oil, hogs, piecegoods, cotton yarn, and tea oil exported to Hongkong, far outweighing the quantities sent to the United States that year.

During 1946, China's net export to the United States constituted 38.71% of the total export value; to Hongkong, 28.25%; to India, 5.37%. During 1947, 34.18% of

the export value total went to Hongkong, 23.31% to the United States, 6.56% to Great Britain. For 1946, the U.S.S.R. and Great Britain ranked the fourth and fifth in China's export. The U.S.S.R. went to fourteenth place in 1947 while Aden and Perim and the Philippines took up the fourth and fifth positions respectively. Aden and Perim, situated at the southern tip of the Arabian peninsula, served as the largest marketing centers for China's cotton shirtings and sheetings in 1947.

KEY PORTS OF FOREIGN TRADE

Among the key ports of foreign trade in China, Shanghai retained its position of first importance during the period under review. During 1946, Shanghai accounted for 85.33% of the entire import value and 61.95% of the entire export value. In 1947, Shanghai handled 74.77% of China's total imports and 60.39% of her total exports.

The chief trading port in north China south China were Canton and Kowloon. Canton was second only to Shanghai in the import trade in 1946. But by 1947, Kowloon assumed the leading position in both imports and exports in south China due to the reopening of the Canton-Hankow railway as the main trade artery to central China. During 1946, imports through Kowloon represented only 2.51% of the total foreign trade while exports represented only 2.02%. By 1947, Kowloon accounted for 7.84% of China's entire import value and 14.17% of the total export value.

The chief trading port in north China during 1946 and 1947 was Tientsin. Its import trade during 1946, 3.05% of the national total, was next only to that of Canton while its export trade, 11.15% of the total, was next to that of Shanghai. During 1947, Tientsin's import, 4.23% of the national total, elevated it to second place in importance but its export, 7.93% of the total, fell behind Kowloon. The drop was due to the unstable situation in north China.

CHIEF IMPORTS

According to the returns of China's foreign trade prepared by the Chinese Maritime Customs, the commodities imported are classified into 32 groups, under which are listed 483 different kinds. The outstanding imports to China after the war are included in 15 groups which in 1947 constituted 96% of the total import value. They are, in order of importance, as follows:

1. Raw Cotton, Cotton Yarn, and Cotton Thread
2. Candles, Soap, Oils, Fats, Waxes, Gums, and Resins
3. Machinery and Tools
4. Metals and Ores
5. Books, Maps, Paper and Wood Pulp
6. Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals
7. Sundries
8. Vehicles and Vessels
9. Dyes, Pigments, Paints, and Varnishes
10. Miscellaneous Metal Manufactures
11. Wool and manufactures thereof
12. Timber
13. Cereals and Flour
14. Tobacco
15. Flax, Ramie, Hemp, Jute, and manufactures thereof.

RAW COTTON, COTTON YARN, AND COTTON THREAD

The importation of this group of commodities into China during 1947 accounted for 18.5% of the total import value, heading the list of the entire import trade. Among these commodities, raw cotton was predominant, totalling 1,212,357 quintals and constituting 99% of the import value of the whole group. But, in comparison with the import of raw cotton in 1946 which totalled 2,813,716 quintals, the 1947 figures showed a marked decrease.

Raw cotton was imported from the United States, India, Brazil, Egypt, the Union of South Africa, Rumania, British East Africa, Burma and Mexico in that order of importance. During 1947, raw cotton imported from the United States amounted to 615,317 quintals, 50% of China's total import in quantity and 44% in value of this group: from India, 395,871 quintals, 33% in quantity and 37% in value; and from Brazil, 154,151 quintals, 12% in quantity and 14% in value.

CANDLES, SOAP, OIL, FAT, WAXES, GUMS AND RESINS

There are 20 items included in this group. The total in this group accounted for 15.5% of the entire import value for 1947. Most outstanding import items in this group were oils including liquid fuel, gasoline, kerosene oil, lubricating oil, coconut oil, linseed oil, and codliver oil. But liquid fuel, gasoline, kerosene oil and lubricating oil constituted the bulk of the import.

Liquid fuel, with an import total of 1,207,140 tons, came from Iran, the United States, Aden and Perim, and Saudi Arabia in that order of importance. The import total of gasoline was 542,619,112 liters, purchased from the United States. Iran, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, and Aden and Perim. Kerosene oil, the import total of which amounted to 379,822,154 liters, came mainly from the United States and Iran. Lubrication oil totalled 63,608,886 liters, about 99% of which came from the United States.

MACHINERY AND TOOLS

Included in this group of import are 18 items which represented 8.3% of the total import value for 1947. Among them, textile machinery and parts, machinery and parts n.o.r. (not otherwise recorded) and prime movers and parts were most outstanding. During 1947, there were 112,076 quintals of textile machinery and parts imported from the United States, Great Britain, and Switzerland. Machinery and parts not otherwise recorded totalled 178,274 quintals, mainly purchased from the United States and Great Britain. Prime movers and parts amounted to 43,271 quintals, mainly purchased from the United States, Great Britain, Switzerland and France.

METALS AND ORES

There are 46 items in this category, with a total import value of 7.4% of the national total. The most outstanding items included iron and steel rails; structural iron or steel, fabricated for use; ungalvanized iron and steel n.o.r.; iron and steel bars; aluminum; tinned iron plates; copper wire; and zinc. Imports under this group were mainly ordered from the United States, Belgium, Great Britain and Canada.

BOOKS, MAPS, PAPER AND WOOD PULP

The total import value of this group which consists of 22 items accounted for 6.1% of the national total for 1947. The principal items were ordinary printing paper and newsprint; cigarette paper; drawing, document, bank-note, and bond paper; wood pulp; parchment, glascine, pergamin and grease-proof paper; printing paper (free of mechanical wood pulp); printed, engraved, or manuscript books and music (incl. newspapers and periodicals); and paperware and all articles made of paper, n.o.r. Imports under this group mainly came from the United States, Canada, Norway, and Sweden.

CHEMICALS AND PHARMACEUTICALS

The total import value of this group which consists of 25 items accounted for 5.9% of the entire import value for 1947. The most outstanding items included chemicals and chemical compounds n.o.r.; sulphate of ammonia; caustic soda; medicines, drugs, etc.; chemical or artificial fertilizers, n.o.r.; and chlorate of potash. Imports under this group came mainly from the United States, Great Britain, Canada, Hongkong, and Belgium.

SUNDRY

The total import value of this group which consists of 46 items represented 5.5% of the entire import value of 1947. The most outstanding items in this group included old, waste, and crude India-rubber and guttapercha; rubber pneumatic tires for motor vehicles; miscellaneous goods and sundries, n.o.r.; rubber boots and shoes (including soles and heels); photographic plates, paper, and films; asbestos and manufacturers thereof; and building materials, n.o.r. Imports under this group came mainly from the United States and Singapore.

VEHICLES AND VESSELS

The total import value of this group which consists of 12 items represented 5.3% of the entire import value for 1947. The most outstanding items were motor tractors, trailers, and trucks (including chassis); locomotives and tenders; motor cars and buses (including chassis); motor-car parts and accessories (not including tires and tubes); and aircraft and accessories (including those for military use). Eighty percent of the total import of this group came from the United States, the rest from Great Britain and France.

DYES, PIGMENTS, PAINTS AND VARNISHES

The total import value of this group which consists of 33 items represented 4.6% of the entire import value for 1947. The important items in this group included aniline dyes and other coal tar dyes n.o.r.; sulphur black; printing inks; pigments, n.o.r.; and artificial indigo. Imports under this group came mainly from the United States, Great Britain and Switzerland.

MISCELLANEOUS METAL MANUFACTURES

The total import value of this group which consists of 32 items represented 4% of the entire import value for 1947. Important items included telephonic and

telegraphic instruments and parts (not including radio sets and parts); scientific instruments or apparatus, and parts or accessories, n.o.r.; radio sets and parts; insulated wire; electrical appliances, n.o.r.; electrical fittings, fixtures, and materials, n.o.r.; accumulators and dry cells, n.o.r.; and lamps and lampware. More than 67% of the import of this group came from the United States, the rest from Great Britain and France.

WOOL AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

The total import of this group which consists of 20 items represented 3.6% of the entire import value for 1947. The outstanding items included wool, carded or combed wool, and waste wool; pure or mixed woolen piece goods, n.o.r.; overcoatings, tweeds, and homespun; yarn and cord (incl. Berlin wool); and serges. Imports under this group came mainly from the United States, Great Britain and Australia.

TIMBER

The total import value of this group which consists of 10 items accounted for 3.3% of the entire import value for 1947. The three most prominent items were railway sleepers, sawn softwood, and softwood hewn rough and in round logs. Fifty-seven percent of the total import value of this group came from the United States while Japan sent 30%.

RICE AND FLOUR

The total import value of this group consisting of seven items in all represented 3.3% of the entire import value for 1947. The most outstanding items were rice and paddy and wheat flour. Rice and paddy imported mainly from Burma and Siam constituted 57% of the total import value of this group while wheat flour accounted for 42%, mainly imported from Canada and the United States.

TOBACCO

The tobacco group consist of five items. Its total import value for 1947 constituted 2.8% of the entire import total. The most important item in this group was tobacco leaf which accounted for 90% of the import total of this group. The main supplier of tobacco leaf was the United States. Other import items of this group included tobacco, n.o.r.; cigarettes, prepared tobacco in tins or packages; and cigars.

FLAX, RAMIE, HEMP, JUTE AND MANUFACTURES THEREOF

There are nine items in this group, consisting of 2.1% of the total import value for 1947. The important items were new gunny bags, mainly imported from India and accounting for 60% of the total import value of this group; raw jute; goods made of flax, ramie, hemp, or jute, n.o.r.; sheer linen; and hessian cloth.

A quantitative comparison of various principal imports in 1946 and 1947 is summarized in Table 2 on page 507.

CHIEF EXPORTS

Chinese exports to foreign countries are divided into 31 groups of 356 different items according to the Chinese Maritime Customs. The most outstanding Chinese exports are included in 12 groups which constituted 89% of the total export value for 1947. They are listed in their order of importance as follows:

1. Oils, Tallow, and Wax
2. Animals and Animal Products
3. Piecegoods
4. Yarn, Thread, and Plaited and Knitted Goods
5. Ores, Metals, and Metallic Products
6. Textile Fibers
7. Beans and Peas
8. Tea
9. Sundries
10. Chemicals and Chemical Products
11. Hides, Leather, and Skins (Furs)
12. Other Textile Products

OILS, TALLOW AND WAX

Oils, tallow and wax including 11 items accounted for 19.2% of the total export value for 1947. Among these items, tung oil took the leading position followed by tea oil. The tung oil export totalled 352,638 quintals in 1946 and 805,373 quintals in 1947. During 1947, the total export value of tung oil constituted 79.3% of the total export value of this group. During the same year, the export of tea oil, 153,403 quintals in total, accounted for 13.5% of the total export value of this group. Other exports in this group included vegetable oil, n.o.r.; bean oil; and groundnut oil. In point of quantity, the best customers of China's tung oil were Hongkong, 408,087 quintals or 51% of the total; the United States, 248,366 quintals or 31% of the total; Great Britain and the U.S.S.R., in that order of importance. In point of value, the United States which accounted for 44% of the total export value occupied the leading position followed by

Hongkong, 37% of the total value, Great Britain and the U.S.S.R. It should be mentioned that most of the tung oil listed as exports to Hongkong was actually re-exported to the United States. During 1947, tea oil was chiefly exported via Hongkong, totalling 135,855 quintals. After Hongkong, the United States, the Netherlands, and Italy were also good customers of Chinese tea oil.

ANIMALS AND ANIMAL PRODUCTS

The export of this group which consists of 33 items constituted 18.7% of total export value for 1947. The most important items of this group were hog bristles and hogs, followed by fresh eggs (incl. frozen eggs), poultry, moist and frozen whole eggs, casings, and duck feathers. During 1947, the total export

**TABLE 2.—QUANTITATIVE COMPARISON OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS
BETWEEN 1946 AND 1947**

Article	1946	1947
Raw Cotton.....	2,813,716 quintals	1,212,357 quintals
Gasoline.....	355,754,000 liters	542,619,000 liters
Liquid Fuel.....	330,659 m. tons	1,207,140 m. tons
Kerosene Oil.....	292,918,000 liters	379,822,000 liters
Lubrication Oil.....	63,564,000 liters	63,609,000 liters
Textile Machinery and Parts.....	29,631 quintals	110,076 quintals
Machinery and Parts, n.o.r.*.....	27,638 quintals	43,271 quintals
Prime Movers and Parts.....	76,796 quintals	178,274 quintals
Iron and Steel Rails.....	106,610 quintals	388,709 quintals
Structural Sections or Building Forms of Iron or Steel, fabricated for use.....	144,748 quintals	196,245 quintals
Common Printing and Newsprinting Paper.....	530,376 quintals	516,062 quintals
Cigarette Paper.....	4,240,000 kg.	3,258,000 kg.
Chemicals and Chemical Compounds, n.o.r.*.....	259,574 quintals	265,025 quintals
Sulphate of Ammonia.....	39,858 quintals	292,561 quintals
Caustic Soda.....	113,258 quintals	109,804 quintals
Medicines, Drugs, etc., n.o.r.*.....	6,119,000 kg.	1,445,000 kg.
Old, Waste, and Crude India-Rubber and Gutta-Percha.....	208,289 quintals	387,569 quintals
Rubber Pneumatic Tires for Motor Vehicles.....	96,660	246,968
Miscellaneous Goods and Sundries, n.o.r.*.....	11,527,000 kg.	12,364,000 kg.
Motor Tractors, Trailers, and Trucks....	9,801	5,295
Motor Cars and Buses.....	2,036	5,234
Locomotive and Tenders.....	39	97
Aniline Dyes, and other Coal Tar Dyes, n.o.r.*.....	20,291 quintals	37,230 quintals
Sulphur Black.....	22,662 quintals	36,382 quintals
Telephonic and Telegraphic Instruments and Parts.....	117,000 kg.	329,000 kg.
Wool, Carded or Combed Wool, and Waste Wool.....	4,053,000 kg.	6,514,000 kg.
Railway Sleepers.....	365,639	1,926,638
Sawn Softwood.....	134,342 cu. m.	129,729 cu. m.
Softwood Hewn Rough and in Round Logs.	86,244 cu. m.	217,012 cu. m.
Rice and Paddy.....	192,343 quintals	1,148,370 quintals
Wheat Flour.....	546,780 quintals	981,154 quintals
Tobacco Leaf.....	12,307,000 kg.	18,813,000 kg.
New Gunny Bags.....	125,739 quintals	172,730 quintals

*"n.o.r." stands for "not otherwise recorded."

Source: Chinese Maritime Customs

of bristles amounted to 4,435,207 kg., and accounted for 47% of total export value of this group. The best customers of Chinese bristles were the United States which purchased 2,580,347 kg. from China; and Great Britain, 1,135,000 kg.

During 1947, the total export of hogs amounted to 476,557 heads, constituting 22% of the total export value of this group. Over 95% of hog export went to Hongkong.

Fresh eggs were mainly exported to Hongkong and the Philippines, poultry to Hongkong and Macao, moist frozen whole eggs to Great Britain and Belgium, casings to Belgium, the United States, and the Netherlands, and duck feathers to the United States and Hongkong.

PIECEGOODS

The total export of this group consisting of 14 items accounted for 16.9% of the entire export value for 1947. The most outstanding items were cotton shirtings and sheetings, totalling 57,416 quintals and constituting 67% of the total export value of this group, with Aden and Perim, Hongkong, Abyssinia, and the Netherlands East Indies as the main customers.

Next in importance were cotton piecegoods, n.o.r. and natural and artificial silk piecegoods. The buyers of the former were Hongkong, the Philippines, and Aden and Perim; and the customers for the latter included India and Hongkong.

YARN, THREAD, PLAITED AND KNITTED GOODS

The total export of this group consisting of nine items constituted 8.3% of the total export value for 1947. Among these items, the most outstanding one was cotton yarn, totalling 34,842 quintals and constituting 79% of the total export value of this group. Most of the exports went to Hongkong and Siam, while other customers included Singapore, Aden and Perim.

Ranking in second importance in this group of exports included cross-stitch work and embroideries other than silk, yarn and thread, n.o.r. The best customers for the former were the United States and Hongkong, and for the latter, Hongkong, Singapore, and India.

ORES, METALS, AND METALLIC PRODUCTS

The total export of this group consisting of 19 items accounted for 5% of the total export value for 1947. The most

important item of this group was tungsten ore, which totalled 61,086 quintals and constituted 53% of the total export value of this group. The principal buyers were the United States, Hongkong, the U.S.S.R., France and Sweden.

Next to tungsten ore were antimony regulus and tin ingots and slabs. The total export of antimony regulus during the year amounted to 85,249 quintals, mostly purchased by the United States, Hongkong and the U.S.S.R. Tin ingots and slabs, the export of which totalled 41,150 quintals, mostly went to Hongkong, Burma and the United States.

According to the estimate made by the Export Minerals and Metals Division of the National Resources Commission, while the export of tungsten, antimony, and tin registered a general increase during the period from 1945 to 1947, it actually fell far below the prewar level. In 1947, these mineral products constituted about 11% of the total value of China's exports.

According to the same source, there is no home market for tungsten concentrate in China while the domestic consumption of antimony and mercury amounts to approximately 10% of the respective annual production.

Before World War II, China supplied about 50% of the world's requirements of antimony and tungsten, and 6% of the world's requirements of tin. Before 1937, a large portion of tungsten and antimony produced in China went to Germany in exchange for industrial and military equipments. Beginning 1937, a series of loans were arranged with Soviet Union half of the principals and interests to be repaid with the minerals and metals in question. In 1940 and 1941, the National Government obtained several loans from the United States also to be repaid from the sales proceeds of Chinese tungsten, antimony and tin. Despite the enemy blockade of the coast during the years 1941-45, these minerals were delivered partly by air to the Soviet Union and the United States. By February, 1948, the loan obligations to the United States had been met while only a small portion remained to be repaid to U.S.S.R.

Tables 3 and 4 show the production and export of tungsten, antimony, tin, and mercury both before and after the war (see pages 509-510).

TEXTILE FIBRES

There are 27 items in this group of exports which constituted 4.7% of the total export value for 1947. The most important item was steam filature white and raw silk, the export of which totalled

TABLE 3.—EXPORT OF TUNGSTEN, ANTIMONY, TIN AND MERCURY, 1945-47

Mineral	1945		1946		1947	
	Quantity (Metric Ton)	Value	Quantity (Metric Ton)	Value	Quantity (Metric Ton)	Value
Tungsten Concentrate.....	2,976	US\$5,132,138.96	3,873	US\$4,708,792.08	6,129	US\$ 9,241,123.86
Antimony Metal.....	1,657	371,485.08	4,425	2,512,108.81	8,991	5,889,036.36
Refined Tin.....	1,730	1,448,179.77	1,669	2,115,917.14	2,608	4,292,127.52
Mercury.....	20	88,833.34	50	142,063.91
TOTAL.....	..	US\$7,040,657.15	..	US\$9,478,881.94	..	US\$19,422,287.74

Source: National Resources Commission

TABLE 4.—PRODUCTION AND EXPORT OF TUNGSTEN CONCENTRATE, ANTIMONY METAL, REFINED TIN, AND MERCURY—1936-1947
(in metric ton)

Year	Tungsten Concentrate		Antimony Metal		Refined Tin		Mercury	
	Production	Export	Production	Export	Production	Export	Production	Export
1936	8,806	2,489	14,597	11,115
1937	11,926	11,604	9,463	5,609
1938	12,556	7,255	12,017	4,709	1,840	208	169	..
1939	11,509	7,805	8,469	823	16,497	4,107	91	136
1940	9,542	2,919	7,989	7,123	6,994	6,552	120	128
1941	12,392	14,328	3,510	88	8,037	5,114	163	195
1942	11,897	7,687	428	..	4,418	7,260	118	96
1943	8,973	10,320	204	..	1,570	6,443	103	88
1944	3,225	7,704	..	1,567	1,878	1,730	63	20
1945	..	2,976	426	4,425	..	1,669	28	50
1946	2,362	3,873	1,473	8,991	1,470	2,608
1947	6,402	6,130

Note: In June, 1946, the government issued orders decontrolling tin and mercury. The figures for production and export of tin in 1946 and 1947 represent respective figures from the Yunnan Consolidated Tin Cooperation and the Ping-Kwei Mining Administration, both partly owned by the National Resources Commission.

Source: National Resources Commission

390,937 kg. and constituted 54% of the total export value of this group. About half of the export went to the United States, with the remainder to India and Great Britain.

Secondary exports in this group were silk waste, sheep's wool, cotton waste, and goats' wool. The principal buyer of silk waste was France; of sheep's wool, the United States; of cotton waste, Belgium, the Netherlands, Great Britain, and the Netherlands East Indies; and of goat's wool, Great Britain and the United States.

BEANS AND PEAS

The total export of this group consisting of 10 items accounted for 3.7% of the total export value for 1947. Heading the list was soybean, the export of which totalled 604,158 quintals and constituted 52% of the total export value of this group. Of the total quantity, 185,438 quintals went to Great Britain and 160,476 quintals went to Italy. Other buyers included the Netherlands, Sweden, Japan, Singapore and Hongkong.

Next to the soybean was the broad bean, the export of which totalled 154,227 quintals. Over 60% of the export went to the Netherlands, while the rest to Belgium and Italy.

TEA

There are 10 items in this group which accounted for 3.6% of the total export value for 1947. The principal export of this group was green tea, the export of which amounted to 93,198 quintals and constituted 74% of the total export value of this group. The main buyers were Morocco, Hongkong, the United States and Great Britain.

Second to green tea in 1947 export of this group was black tea, the export of which amounted to 53,479 quintals. The best customers were Hongkong, the United States, Great Britain and Iran. Other exports in this group included green brick tea which mostly went to the U.S.S.R. and Burma, and black brick tea which was solely sold to Hongkong.

SUNDRY

There are 44 items in this group of exports which constituted 3.1% of the total value of exports for 1947. The most outstanding items included hemp fiber hats; hair-nets, made of human hair; buntal fiber hats; sundries, n.o.r.; fire-crackers and fireworks; and kittysols. The biggest customer of hemp fiber hats was

the United States, which took up 85% of the total, the rest going to Australia, Hongkong, and Canada. The United States was also the biggest buyer of hair-nets, made of human hair. Other customers included Great Britain, Hongkong, Australia and Canada. About 95% of buntal fiber hats went to the United States, while Australia and France took up the rest. Canada was the most outstanding buyer of sundries, n.o.r. and Australia came next. About 99% of the export of firecrackers and fireworks went to Hongkong, while Burma and the United States purchased the rest. Eighty percent of the export of kittysols went to Hongkong, with the rest taken up by the Philippines and Siam.

CHEMICALS AND CHEMICAL PRODUCTS

The total export of this group consisting of 11 items accounted for 1.9% of the value of total exports for 1947. The principal item was salt, the export of which totalled 1,671,159 quintals, constituting upwards of 80% of the total value of the export of this group. Japan was almost the sole buyer of this item.

Next to salt came menthol crystals which were mainly exported to the United States, Hongkong and Great Britain.

HIDES, LEATHER, AND SKINS (FURS)

This group consists of 32 items of merchandise, constituting 1.9% of the total export value for 1947. The most important items in this group included dressed or undressed kid skins, dressed or undressed lamb skins, undressed goat skins, dressed or undressed weasel skins, dressed or undressed kolinsky skins, and kid crosses. About 93% of the exports of this group went to the United States, with the rest taken up by Hongkong and Canada.

OTHER TEXTILE PRODUCTS

There are 17 items included in this group constituting 1.7% of the total export value for 1947. Most outstanding items in this group were woolen carpets (incl. wool and cotton carpets and floor rugs); clothing and articles of personal wear, n.o.r.; towels; handkerchiefs, other than silk; cotton blankets and counterpanes; and fish-nets. The exports of this group mainly went to Hongkong, the Philippines, and Siam.

A quantitative comparison of the various principal exports in 1946 and 1947 is summarized in Table 5.

**TABLE 5.—QUANTITATIVE COMPARISON OF PRINCIPAL EXPORTS
IN 1946-1947:**

Articles	1946	1947
Tung Oil.....	352,638 quintals	805,373 quintals
Tea Oil.....	397 quintals	153,403 quintals
Bristles.....	4,759,000 kg.	4,435,000 kg.
Hogs.....	78,833 heads	476,557 heads
Fresh Eggs.....	14,542,000	139,867,000
Cotton Shirtings and Sheetings.....	97 quintals	57,416 quintals
Cotton Piecegoods, n.o.r.*.....	1,001 quintals	25,700 quintals
Natural and Artificial Silk Piecegoods.....	73,798 quintals	325,507 quintals
Cotton Yarn.....	1,421 quintals	34,842 quintals
Tungsten Ore.....	49,330 quintals	61,086 quintals
Antimony Regulus.....	47,329 quintals	85,249 quintals
Steam Filature White and Raw Silk.....	626,817 kg.	390,937 kg.
Yellow Beans.....	57,044 quintals	604,158 quintals
Broad Beans.....	646 quintals	154,227 quintals
All kinds of Green Tea.....	20,765 quintals	93,198 quintals
All kinds of Black Tea.....	44,130 quintals	53,479 quintals
Hemp Fiber Hats.....	1,450,000	2,652,000
Salt.....	2,237,866 quintals	1,671,159 quintals
Dressed or Undressed Kid Skins.....	1,711,000	1,232,000
Woollen Carpets (incl. Wool and Cotton Carpets and Floor Rugs).....	4,154 quintals	5,974 quintals
Cotton Seed-cakes.....	5,131 quintals	131,734 quintals
Medicinal Substances, n.o.r.*.....	66,196 quintals	57,215 quintals
Shelled Groundnuts.....	14,094 quintals	103,170 quintals

*"n.o.r." stands for "not otherwise recorded."

Source: Chinese Maritime Customs

EXPORT-IMPORT BOARD

The Export-Import Board was first established as the Board for the Temporary Regulation of Imports under the Supreme Economic Council in November, 1946, to issue import licenses and to co-ordinate the work of various organizations concerned. On August 17, 1947, with the promulgation of the Foreign Trade Regulations, the board was renamed the Export-Import Board and placed under the Executive Yuan. In March, 1949, it was abolished and its functions were taken over by the Ministry of Finance.

The board was set up at a time when a serious drain on Chinese foreign exchange reserve was felt as a result of unfavorable balance of trade. Its main object was to reduce non-essential imports to the minimum while maintaining a sufficient volume of essential imports to feed and improve China's industries, mines and communication systems, and at the same time to extend the greatest facilities and encouragement to exports.

According to its organic law, the board was composed of nine to 11 members including the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Economic Affairs, the chairman of the National Resources Commission, the governor of the Central Bank of China, and other members as might be appointed by the Executive Yuan.

The chairman and the two vice-chairmen of the board were appointed by the Executive Yuan from among members of the board. Administrative departments were established, the functions and constitutions of these departments determined by the board itself. The departments were:

(1) The Allocation Department—This department fixed the quotas of goods to be imported under Schedule II. The usual procedure was for the department to submit the quotas to the respective trades with the direction that each trade apportion its own quota among importers who were registered with the Board in respect of that trade. The apportionment, however, was subject to approval by the

department. In the event of the importers in any trade failing to agree upon apportionment among themselves, such apportionment should be determined by the allocation department.

(2) The Foreign Exchange Examination Department of the Central Bank of China—This department was authorized to consider applications of goods to be imported under Schedule III. This department was superseded on April 1, 1947 by the Non-quota Department.

(3) The Import Licensing Department—This department issued licenses in respect of the importation of goods under Schedules I and II and some items under Schedule IIIA.

In addition to these departments, two committees were established by the Board: the Executive Committee and the Appeal Committee. The former was composed of the governor of the Central Bank of China, the director of the Import Quota Allocation Department, and the director of the Non-quota Department and the chief of the secretariat. The Executive Committee was responsible to the board and had a secretariat to coordinate the work of various departments concerned.

The Appeal Committee was appointed by the board to handle complaints or questions arising out of the registration of imports, licensing of goods for importation and similar issues.

The board was authorized to establish regional offices or sub-offices at all ports, if necessary. The functions and construction of such regional offices were formulated by the board. Pending organization of such regional offices, matters pertaining to the control of imports and exports should be transmitted to the local office of the Central Bank of China to be dealt with as directed by the board.

FOREIGN TRADE CONTROL MEASURES

All the foreign trade control measures introduced by the government since V-J Day have been designed to attain a favorable balance of trade. Inflation, shortage of raw materials, and communist uprisings, account for the numerous foreign trade regulation measures.

TEMPORARY REGULATIONS GOVERNING IMPORT AND EXPORT TRADE

On February 26, 1946, in order to abolish all wartime restrictions on foreign trade, the Chinese Government adopted a set of Temporary Regulations Governing Import and Export Trade intro-

duced by Dr. T. V. Soong, then the President of the Executive Yuan. These regulations were promulgated on March 1, 1946.

According to these regulations, imports were divided into three categories, free imports, licensed imports, and prohibited imports including passenger motor cars, sugar, tobacco leaf, kerosene oil, and undeveloped movie film. The importation of such luxury articles as watches, wines and spirits, cigarettes, cigars and tobacco, jewelry and ornaments, n.o.r., pearls, precious stones was permitted through payment of a luxury surtax of 50% over the existing tariff rates and acquisition of special licenses. The total number of prohibited imports was only 22.

The regulations required all exporters, prior to declaration at the customs, to submit to the customs for examination the certificate issued by the appointed banks certifying that foreign exchange would be realized from the commodities to be exported.

REVISED TEMPORARY FOREIGN TRADE REGULATIONS

On November 17, 1946, the government announced the adoption of the Revised Temporary Foreign Trade Regulations, superseding the control regulations which had been promulgated on March 1, 1946, to facilitate the importation of machinery and capital goods, while discouraging the importation of non-essentials.

Since V-J Day, non-essential goods had been flooding the Chinese market. The revised control regulations were to serve as a brake on the importation of such goods.

The salient points of the Revised Temporary Foreign Trade Regulations were as follows:

1. Except for nine prohibited items, all may be freely exported upon presentation to the customs of an invoice containing a certificate in a form prescribed by the Central Bank of China and signed by an appointed bank stating that it purchased the foreign exchange derived therefrom.

2. All imports, with the exception of prohibited items and goods which required no foreign exchange or valued under US\$50, should be subjected to license and could only be permitted in accordance with the provisions of these regulations.

3. A board for the purpose of administering the system of import licenses and of coordinating the work of the organizations concerned should be established under the Supreme Econo-mical Council (see section on Ex-port-Import Board).

4. Only applications for licenses by importers registered with the board would be considered. Importers should be registered in accordance with the particular trade, or trades, in which they are engaged.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EXPORT BOARD

On February 7, 1947 the Executive Yuan announced the inauguration of the Board for the Development of Exports, and also the granting of a 100% bonus to all export goods. The bonus scheme, however, was discarded in the set of emergency measures announced on February 6, 1947 to deal with the deteriorating economic situation. The Government raised the official exchange rate of the U. S. dollar from CNC\$3,350 to CNC-\$12,000.

To assure the promotion of exports, 17 sub-committees were organized under the promotion department for (1) silk and silk piecegoods, (2) cotton piecegoods, knitted goods and cotton, (3) embroidered goods, laces and human hair nets, (4) tung oil, (5) tea, (6) eggs and egg products, (7) sheep and goat wool and carpets, (8) goatskins and hides, (9) skins and furs, (10) vegetable products, ramie, peanuts and peanut oil, (11) animal products, (12) straw hats, (13) medicinal products and camphor, (14) bristles, (15) mineral ores, (16) beans and (17) sundries.

FOREIGN TRADE REGULATIONS

The new Foreign Trade Regulations designed to boost exports and tighten the control on imports were officially announced on August 17, 1947, cancelling the Revised Temporary Foreign Trade Regulations which had been promulgated on November 17, 1946 and the Regulations of the Board for the Development of Exports issued on February 7, 1947.

Highlights of the new regulations were:

1. Proceeds from exports and inward remittances may be sold to the appointed banks at the open market rate.

2. The import licensing system was to be maintained. Imports, except daily necessities and essential commodities the exchange requirements of which would be provided by the Central

Bank of China at the official rate, were required to meet their foreign exchange needs by purchasing from the appointed banks at the market rate.

3. A Foreign Exchange Equalization Fund to be established was to regulate the demand and supply of foreign exchange arising from the import and export trade and other legitimate dealings in an effort to stabilize the market rate of exchange.

4. The regulations concerning the prohibition of speculation on gold and the circulation of foreign currency notes would remain in force.

(For the full text of the Foreign Trade Regulations, see Foreign Trade Laws and Regulations at the end of this chapter.)

CBC CIRCULAR NO. 134

On May 31, 1948, the Central Bank of China promulgated the Circular No. 134, putting into effect a new surrender certificate system, which was designed to promote exports, to curtail profits from imports by applying the same exchange rate for both imports and exports, and to attract overseas remittances.

This system had the following effects:

1. The short-lived and much criticized Circular No. 131 would be superceded by the new regulations.

2. The exporters and importers and others selling exchange to an appointed bank at the open market or the fund's rate would receive an Exchange Surrender Certificate equal in value to the exchange sold. On the other hand, importers and others entitled to buy exchange from an appointed bank at the open market rate would be required to deliver to an appointed bank Exchange Surrender Certificates equal in face value to the amount of their licensed import as a condition for the purchase of the required exchange.

3. Essential commodities such as rice, wheat and flour, cotton and fertilizer and any other exchange requirements specially designated by the government would be excluded from this condition and would continue to be settled at the open market or the fund's rate.

4. Surrender Certificates may be traded by endorsement between exporters and importers with a return additional to the fund's rate. This extra cost would be paid by the importers. In order to prevent undue fluctuations in the price of Surrender Certificates, the Central Bank on instructions from the Fund Committee

would intervene in the market by selling and buying Certificates. Exchange which hitherto had been made available at the official rate would be provided at the fund's rate.

5. The modification in the present system would give more flexibility and, by affording exports and incoming foreign exchange a more realistic rate, facilitated the export trade and increased exchange receipts.

(For the full text of regulations governing the use of the Exchange Surrender Certificates by importers and exporters and the procedure in handling Exchange Surrender Certificates, see Foreign Trade Laws and Regulations at the end of this chapter.)

NEW REGULATIONS GOVERNING IMPORTS ISSUED AFTER EMERGENCY ECONOMIC REFORM

In co-ordination with the Emergency Economic Measures promulgated on August 19, 1948, the Export-Import Board promulgated on October 26, 1948 a set of rulings in five articles and another set of six articles governing the clearance of applications for the importation of purchases from abroad already paid for prior to August 19, 1948, as approved by the Executive Yuan. On the same day, the board was also authorized to promulgate the revised regulations and procedural rulings pursuant to the regulations governing applications for imports paid with foreign exchange abroad belonging to overseas and other Chinese nationals for investments in domestic productive enterprises. In addition, on October 27, the board promulgated provisions in six articles, permitting foreign-owned productive enterprises in China to apply for the import of equipments and replacement and extension accessories, in accordance with the proviso of Article 4 of the aforementioned revised regulations.

(For the full texts of these regulations, see Foreign Trade Laws and Regulations at the end of this chapter.)

EXPORT-IMPORT LINK SYSTEM

On November 21, 1948 the Ministry of Finance announced a new export-import link system. General principles of the link system are as follows:

1. Foreign exchange proceeds of export shipments shall be transferred in full to the Central Bank or its appointed banks for a Foreign Exchange Clearance Certificate of a like amount.

2. Foreign exchange accruing from overseas Chinese remittances and other foreign currency remittances from abroad shall be turned in to the Central Bank or its appointed banks in full exchange for a Foreign Exchange Clearance Certificate of a like amount, or may, at the option of the beneficiary, be sold directly to the Central Bank or its appointed banks.

3. Foreign Exchange Clearance Certificates may be applied for for paying imports under an authorized import license or for meeting non-import foreign exchange requirements approved by appropriate authorities.

4. Holders of Foreign Exchange Clearance Certificates may use them for their own needs in accordance with the provision of paragraph 3 hereof or transfer them to a third party. The validity of the certificates shall not exceed two months from the date of issue.

5. Imports shall be classified according to their nature into two categories: (a) quota imports and (b) non-quota imports. Quota imports shall be allocated to importers and manufacturers and non-quota imports shall be granted according to a priority rating based on the urgency of domestic requirements.

6. "The Revised Temporary Foreign Trade Regulations" and schedules attached thereto and "The Revised Temporary Regulations With Regard to Foreign Exchange Transactions" shall be separately amended in accordance with the general principles herein stated.

CHANGES IN CUSTOMS TARIFF

China's postwar customs tariff began to undergo a revision with the promulgation of Temporary Foreign Trade Regulations on February 26, 1946 which divided the tariffs into different schedules, namely, importation without any restriction (capital goods), licensed imports, and imports under ban. On February 6, 1947 the government announced a surcharge on imports and a subsidy for exports. Not having a chance to be enforced, these measures were replaced ten days later by the Emergency Economic Measures maintaining the Temporary Foreign Trade Regulations after making a few minor changes in the schedules.

China participated in the International Trade Conference held at Geneva on October, 1947, at which a general agreement on tariffs and trade was concluded.

The protocol of provisional application of the agreement was signed on April 2, 1948, and became effective on May 21, 1948.

On August 2, 1948, the government promulgated an entirely new set of import tariff schedules in which a thorough revision of the 1934 tariff was made.

The 1948 tariff represents a substantial increase ranging from double to three times, in accordance with channels of consumption and the degrees of processing. This was designed to protect the Chinese industry, which is still in its infancy, from competition. An analysis of the tariff grades shows that while the old tariff ranged from free of duty to 80% with 13 grades, the 1948 tariff has a range from free of duty to 200% with the grades doubled. (For the full text of Customs Tariff, *see* Foreign Trade Laws and Regulations at the end of this chapter.)

SECTION I

FOREIGN TRADE REGULATIONS

Revised on August 17, 1947

by the State Council

The Revised Temporary Foreign Trade Regulations promulgated on November 17, 1946 and the Organic Regulations governing the Board for the Development of Exports promulgated on February 7, 1947, are hereby annulled upon the promulgation of these Regulations.

I. EXPORTS

Article 1.—All exports except those listed in Schedule V annexed hereto may be freely exported.

Article 2.—Exporters in applying for clearance of an export or re-export shipment shall present to the customs for examination a certificate signed by an appointed bank stating that it has purchased or contracted to buy the foreign exchange derived therefrom at the prevailing market rate, further endorsed by the Export-Import Board verifying that the value of the shipment agrees with the amount of foreign exchange purchased by the bank; provided however that such a certificate is not required in the case of a shipment valued at less than US-\$25.00 or equivalent value and not for commercial purposes.

Article 3.—The Export-Import Board may, in accordance with the government economic policy, adopt necessary procedures for regulating and developing the export trade.

II. IMPORTS

Article 4.—With effect from the date of promulgation of these regulations the importation of all goods, except those otherwise provided for, shall be subject to import license to be applied for in accordance with the provisions of these regulations.

Article 5.—All goods imported into China are hereby classified into the following categories with various commodities in each category listed in detail under each Schedule annexed to these regulations:

(1) Machinery and other Capital Goods—under Schedule I

(2) Raw Materials for Industries—under Schedule II

(3) Miscellaneous Commodities—under Schedule IIIa

(4) Temporarily Suspended Imports—under Schedule IIIb

(5) Prohibited Imports—under Schedule IV

Article 6.—Goods or classes of goods under various schedules enumerated in the foregoing Article may, upon approval of the Executive Yuan, be transferred by the Export-Import Board from the schedule to another as circumstances so require. Public announcement of such transfers shall be made by notifications in the Press.

Article 7.—Prior to importation of goods from abroad, the importers shall submit to the Export-Import Board for its examination applications for import licenses to cover the importation.

Article 8.—Importers shall, upon obtaining import licenses, be entitled to apply for purchase of necessary foreign exchange at an appointed bank to meet the requirement of importation.

Article 9.—Importers prior to their obtaining import licenses shall not be permitted to complete purchase of, or to ship, goods from abroad.

Article 10.—The importation of goods in Schedule II shall be subject to quota allocation. Quotas in respect of these goods shall be fixed quarterly in a year and shall be proposed by the Export-Import Board and announced in the Press when they are approved by the Executive Yuan.

The Export-Import Board may, according to circumstances, directly allocate quotas to manufacturers in a trade or to importers for supply, to and/or account of, manufacturers or dealers.

Article 11.—Importers having obtained business licenses from the authorities, shall, in accordance with the particular trade, or trades in which they are engaged, be registered with the Export-Import Board, and when registered by the board as qualified, shall be entitled to file applications for import licenses.

Provisions governing registration of importers in the preceding paragraph shall apply to manufacturers directly applying for importation of goods from abroad.

Article 12.—Government-operated enterprises applying for importation of goods shall be subject to the same requirements in licensing procedure as the privately-owned firms.

Article 13.—The Export-Import Board shall issue general import licenses:

(1) To UNRRA for goods for relief and rehabilitation

(2) To the Board of Supplies for goods under the terms of the China-U.S.A. Surplus War Property Sales Agreement; Supplies through Lend-Lease; and governmental purchase through foreign loan and credit arrangements.

Article 14.—The importation of goods by governmental departments for official use shall require the prior approval of the Executive Yuan, which, when granted, shall be deemed to constitute an instruction for issue of import license by the Export-Import Board.

The procedure and standard for screening the aforementioned applications shall be separately provided for by the Executive Yuan.

Article 15.—The importation of goods required for official use of foreign embassies, legations, consulates in China or for personal use of their diplomatic personnel, may be permitted under special licenses issued by the Export-Import Board provided that the use of such imports is certified by the ambassadors or ministers concerned.

Article 16.—Importations by philanthropical, religious and educational institutions either as donations from abroad for relief, religious and educational purposes or for meeting requirements of the institutions themselves for which no foreign exchange is required shall also be permitted under special licenses issued by the Export-Import Board; provided that the goods are not for the use of the individual members of these institutions and that goods in Schedule IV are excluded.

Article 17.—Goods for which no foreign exchange is required, such as per-

sonal gifts, and samples of no commercial value may be imported into China without an import license: Provided that the value of such goods does not exceed U.S.\$50.00 or equivalent value, and that they are not intended for sale. The exemption does not apply to goods in Schedule IV.

III. ORGANIZATION

Article 18.—For the purpose of coordinating imports with exports through a system of control and development, an Export-Import Board is hereby created under the Executive Yuan.

Article 19.—The board shall be composed of from nine to eleven members consisting of the following:

(1) Minister of Finance

(2) Minister of Economic Affairs

(3) Chairman of the National Resources Commission

(4) Governor of the Central Bank of China

(5) Other members as may be appointed by the Executive Yuan.

Article 20.—The board shall have one chairman and two vice-chairmen to be appointed by the Executive Yuan among the members of the board.

Article 21.—The board shall establish various departments whose functions and constitution shall be determined by sets of organic regulations separately provided for.

Article 22.—The board may create various sub-committees as are required by circumstances in the discharge of its functions.

Article 23.—The board may appoint from two to three advisers to be chosen by the board from among persons of recognized merit, standing and general experience.

Article 24.—The board shall establish a committee on appeals to take charge of cases of complaints from import or export merchants.

Article 25.—The board may establish regional offices or sub-offices at import and trading ports in China for the purpose of attending to all functions of control and development of local import and export trade. Organic regulations governing such regional offices or sub-offices are to be separately promulgated.

At the ports where no regional offices or sub-offices are established, the Central Bank of China in these localities may be delegated with the authorities to perform the functions of the board.

IV. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Article 26.—For the purpose of facilitating the enforcement of these regulations the board may establish rules and procedures and design *pro-forma* papers

and report them to the Executive Yuan for record.

Article 27.—These Foreign Trade Regulations shall take effect upon the date of promulgation.

SCHEDULE I**CAPITAL GOODS**

<i>Tariff No.</i>	
244	Agricultural Machinery, and parts thereof.
245a & b	Electrical Machinery for Power Generating and Transmission, such as Dynamos, Motors, Transformers, Converters, etc., and parts thereof.
246 & 247	Machine Tools and Machine Shop Tools and parts thereof.
252	Machinery N.O.P.F. (i.e. Pumping, Printing, Paper-making, Textile Machinery, etc.) and parts thereof.
255 (part)	Steamers, complete, and parts or materials thereof, N.O.P.F.
248	Prime Movers, i.e. Gas Engines, Oil Engines, Steam Engines, Hydraulic Turbines, Steam Turbines, Turbo-generator Sets and other Prime Movers, combined with Generators or not, and parts thereof.
181, 188	Railway and Tramway Supplies.
257 a, b, c, and 588	Steam Boilers, Economisers, Super-heaters, Mechanical Stokers, and other Boiler-room Accessories, and parts thereof.
249	Motor Tank Lorries and Motor Tank Tractor Trailers.
256(a) (part)	Aircraft and aircraft parts.
253	

SCHEDULE II

656 (part)	Cinematographic Films, developed.
532 & b	Kerosene Oil.
256b (part)	Passenger Motor Cars (other than those on the Prohibited List) and chassis thereof.
387	Sugar.
423 & 425	Tobacco Leaf and Stalk, Dust, Sifting and Refuse.
482	Aniline Dyes, and other Coal Tar Dyes, N.O.P.F.
440	Ammonia, Sulphate of.
130	Artificial Silk Floss and Yarn.
618	Cement.
603a & b, 607	Coal and Coke.
71	Cotton, Raw.
426 to 432 ;	Chemicals.
434, 438 to 439 ;	
441, 443 to 446 ;	
448, 451, 454, 455	
to 460, 463 ;	
465, 467 to 479 ;	
480 (part)	
<i>Tariff No.</i>	
450	Fertilizers, Chemical or Artificial, N.O.P.F.
357	Flour, Wheat.
520 a & b	Gasoline, Naphtha and Benzine, Mineral (including similar motor fuels, N.O.P.F.)
108	Gunny Bags, New.
109 (part)	Gunny Bags, Old.
521	Grease, Lubricating, Wholly or partly mineral.
498	Indigo, artificial.
644a, c & d	India-rubber and Gutta-percha, and manufactures thereof.
98	Jute, raw.
529a & b	Liquid Fuel (Fuel Oil).

SCHEDULE II (Continued)

<i>Tariff No.</i> 563 & 649	Leather Machine Belting and Hose other than those made of Rubber.
147 to 172; 173 (part); 174 to 180; 182 to 187; 189 to 214; 216 to 225; 227 to 238; and 240.	Metals.
541	Oils, Fats and Waxes, N.O.P.F.
634a & b	Oils, lubricating.
545 to 556; 558 to 560	Paper and Wood Pulp.
461, 464 and 481	Pharmaceuticals.
398 (part)	Grape Sugar, medicinal.
672 (part)	Plasters, adhesive, medicinal.
384a & b	Rice and Paddy.
663	Starch.
510	Sulphur, Black.
511	Tanning Extracts, Vegetable, N.O.P.F.
580 to 587; 589 to 590	Timber.
395	Wheat.
112 & 113	Wool and Wool Waste.
114a & b	Woolen Yarn and Thread, Pure or Mixed.

SCHEDULE III(A)

<i>Tariff No.</i> 274	Agar-Agar, in bulk.
629 (a-f)	Asbestos and manufactures thereof.
542	Books, Printed or Manuscript, Bound or Unbound (not including note-books, ledgers, and other office, school and private stationery).
338	Barley, Buckwheat, Maize, Millet, Oats, Rye, and Grain, N.O.P.F.
630	Barometers, Thermometers, Drawing, Surveying, Medical, Nautical, Optical, Surgical, Dental, and other Scientific Instruments or Apparatus, and parts or accessories thereof.
258 (part)	Bicycles, and parts thereof.
342	Bran.
631	Building Materials N.O.P.F.
543	Charts and Maps (including Outline Maps, Relief Maps, Globes, and Models, and Charts for Educational purposes, such as the teaching of anatomy, etc.).
433, 435, 436, 437, 442, 447, 449, 453, 466, 480 (part)	Chemicals.
262	Coal-burning, Oil-burning and Spirit-burning Stoves, Cookers, Radiators, Steam Heaters, and similar Appliances, and parts thereof.
103	Canvas and Tarpaulin, of Hemp and/or Jute, mixed or not mixed with cotton.
76a, b & c	Cotton Thread.
672 (part)	Dextrin.
483 to 497	Dyes, Pigments, Colours, Tans and Tanning
502 to 509; 512 to 517	Materials, and Paint Materials.
518 (part)	Paints and Varnishes, N.O.P.F.
263a	Bulbs-Specified as from 100 to 120 volts or from 210 to 230 transmission, and Distribution.

SCHEDULE III(A) (Continued)*Tariff No.*

263b & c	Electrical Materials, Fixtures, and Fittings for Wiring, Transmission, and Distribution.
264	Electric Cookers, Fans, Flash-lights, Irons, Lampware, Radiators, Toasters, and other Similar Electric Appliances and parts thereof.
265	Electric Accumulators, Batteries, Condensers, and parts thereof.
620	Emery and Glass Powder.
636a & b	Emery Cloth.
254	Fire Engines, Hydrants, and other Fire Extinguishing Appliances and parts thereof.
285	Fish, Herring, salt.
288	Fish, salt, N.O.P.F.
104	Flax Piecegoods, White, Plain, Mixed or not Mixed with Cotton.
105	Flax Piecegoods, Mixed or not Mixed with Cotton, N.O.P.F.
266 (a to d)	Files of all kinds.
358	Flours and Cereal Products, N.O.P.F.
267	Gas Burners, Cookers, Heaters, Lamps, Ranges, Water-heaters, and other similar Gas-burning Appliances, and parts or accessories thereof.
268	Gas-meters, Water-meters, and other similar Measuring Instruments.
613	Glass, Window, Common (weight required).
640	Glue.
522 to 528	Gums and Resins.
642	Gypsum.
126b	Hat Bodies, of Felt.
106	Hessian Cloth.
365	Hops.
501	Inks of all kinds.
452	Insecticides and Disinfectants.
672 (part)	Ivory Nuts (vegetable ivory) for making buttons, etc.
594	Kapok.
564	Leather, Sold.
565	Leather, N.O.P.F.
372	Malt.
373	Medical Substances, Vegetable (Crude) N.O.P.F.
243 & 273 a & b	Metalware, N.O.P.F. and Metal Manufactures, N.O.P.F.
323	Milk and Cream, Evaporated or and Sterilized.
325	Milk, Food (including Dried Milk, Lactogen, Glaze, etc.)
324	Milk Condensed.
396	Molasses.
256(b) (part)	Motor Cycles.
256 (c)	Motor Vehicles and parts and accessories thereof.
269 a & b	Needles, Sewing and Machine.
544 a & b	Newspapers and Periodicals.
326	Oil, Cod-Liver.
531	Oil, Coconut.
533	Oil, Linseed.
146	Ores of all kinds.
617 (part)	Optical Lenses, polished and unpolished, and Spectacle Frames, and parts thereof.
561	Paperware and all articles made of paper, N.O.P.F.
381 a & b	Paper, in Bulk.
605	Pitch and Asphalt.
659	Printing and Lithographic Materials, N.O.P.F.
598a, b & c	Rattans.
401	Saccharine.
536	Stearine.
250	Sewing and Knitting Machines and parts thereof.
139	Silk Bolting Cloth.

SCHEDULE III(A) (Continued)

Tariff No.	
672 (part)	Silkworm Eggs.
599a	Straw, Panama Straw and the like.
664 b	Synthetic Resins and other Plastics (such as Celluloid, Bakelite Galilith, etc.) including Lumps, Bands, Bars, Rods, Plates, Sheets, Tubes, Powder, etc., i.e. not as finished articles.
606	Tar, Coal.
271b	Telephonic and Telegraphic instruments and parts thereof.
272a & b	Tins, Empty, for Kerosene Oil.
537a & b	Turpentine.
78 & 101	Teine and Cordage (including rope).
251	Typewriters, Automatic Sales Machines, Calculating Machines, Cash Registers, Copy Presses, Cheque Perforators, Dating Machines, Duplicating Machines, Numbering Machines, and similar office Machines for Clerical or Accounting Purposes, and parts thereof.
538 to 540	Wax, Bees, Yellow, Paraffin, and Vegetable.
600 (a to h)	Wood.
601 (b, g, h, i, k, & l)	Woodware.
124	Woollen Blankets and Travelling Rugs, pure or mixed.
127	Woollen Clothing, and all other woollen articles of personal wear and parts or accessories thereof, N.O.P.F.
123	Woollen Felt and Felt sheathing.
119	Woollen Piecegoods for technical purposes, pure or mixed, such as Roller Cloths, Paper Mill Blanketing, etc.
567a (part)	Weasel Tail.
656 (part)	Photographic Equipments
	Special Camera for Photo Engraving
	Lenses
	Filters; Shutters; View Finders and Engraved Screen (fitting into the Camera)
	Plates
	Roll Films, Film Packs (including Cut Films)
	Photo-Flashlight, Exposure Metres
	Paper, Sensitised, Terro-Prussiate, etc., (used in Photo-Process, as Blue Print Paper, etc.)
	Printing Frame, Electrically operated; Blue Print Machines for Reproducing Plans; Photo-Copying Machine; Photo-lithographic
	(Camera) Equipment; Photo-mechanical Equipment; Step and Repeat Printing Down Machine, etc.
	Cinematographic Equipment
	Cine Cameras, 35mm., Cine Cameras, 16 mm.
	Lenses for Cine-Cameras
	Cine-Camera Parts, others (These including Supply Spool Spindle; Take-up Spindle; Supply Spool; Take-up Spool; Film Loops; Aperture Plate; Film Gate Tension; Lens Hood; Lens Plate; Diaphragm Ring; View Finder Sights; Sprocket Rollers; Sprocket; Foolage Register Lever; Exposure Start Lever; Footage Register; and Exposure Guide, etc.)
628 (part)	Animals, living (for improvement of breed and for dairy farm).
573c (part)	Rabbit Hair.
575	Manure, animal.
625 (part)	Graphite Crucibles.
646 (part)	Mining Lamps and Parts thereof.
614 (part)	Wire Glass (for factory use).
562a	Hides, Cow and Buffalo.
646 (part)	Hurricane Lanterns.
353	Cinnamon.
383	Putchuck.
347	Cardamons, inferior.
348	Cardamons, superior.

SCHEDULE III(A) (Continued)

<i>Tariff No.</i>	
654 (part)	Pen Nibs.
652 b (1)	Organ Reeds.
391	Seeds.
657	Seedlings.
261 a (part)	Alarm Clocks and Watchman's Clocks.
360a	Copra.
662 (part)	Sporting Requisites, N.O.P.F.; Balls, Base; Balls, Cricket; Balls, Tennis; Balls, Golf; Balls, Hockey; Bowls, Lawn, Balls, Pole; Bats, Baseball; Bowling Alley; Complete with Bowls; Foils, Fencing; Golf Clubs; Rowing Machine; Sticks, Fencing; Sticks, Hockey; Sticks, Polo.
626 a (part)	Fused Silica Ware; Chinaware and Earthenware Fittings and Fixtures, for bath-rooms or lavatories as Bathtubs, Water tanks, Commodes, Wash-basins, etc.
579a	Elephant's Tusks, whole or parts thereof.
97	Hemp, raw.
271 a (part)	Radio Sets and Parts: (1) Hard Rubber or Composition Dials, Litzendraft Wire, Grid Leak, Microphones, Headphones, Loud Speakers and Loud Speaker Units, Crystals, Transmitting Vacuum Tubes, Intervalve Audio Frequency Transformers, Receiving and Transmitting Condensers (except variable type) of all kinds, Resistors, Volume controls, Potentiometers, Rheostats, (2) A.B.C. Battery Eliminators of Rotary Converter and Vibrator types, Sockets, Receiving Vacuum Tubes, (3) Switches, Commercial Receivers.
173 (part)	Copper Cable, Bars, Stranded, High Tension.
537 b (part)	Soaps, Industrial (Referring to Alkali Compounds of fatty substances but not including compounds of Alkali with higher fatty acids).

Materials for use in manufacturing processes, and parts specifically required for repairs and for replacement purposes, n.o.p.f. in Schedules I, II, and III(A).

SCHEDULE III(B)

This Schedule includes all goods other than those classified in Schedule I, II, III(A) and IV. Pending further notification the importation of goods in this Schedule is temporarily suspended.

SCHEDULE IV**ARTICLES THE IMPORT OF WHICH IS PROHIBITED**

<i>Tariff No.</i>	
275 a, b & c	Awabi.
299	Asparagus.
256 b (part)	Automobiles with 7 passenger capacity or less whose net f.o.b. factory cost to dealer exceeds US\$1,200 or equivalent, and chassis thereof.
276a, b & c	Becho de Mar.
303	Birds' Nests.
304	Caviar.
312	Confectionery
633	Curios and Antiques.
634	Damascene ware, Satsuma ware, and Lacquer ware.
635	Decorative or ornamental materials or products, N.O.P.F. (including spangles, tinsel and wire, metallic trimmings, etc.)
77	Imitation gold or silver thread, on cotton.
136	Imitation gold or silver thread, on silk, pure or mixed.
645	Jewelry, and ornaments, N.O.P.F.
80, 102, 115 & 137	Lace, trimmings, embroidered goods, and all other materials used for decorative or ornamental purposes; and all products made wholly thereof. (Cotton; flax; ramie; hemp; jute; wool; silk).

SCHEDULE IV (Continued)*Tariff No.*

650	Manicure sets and parts thereof; powder puffs and cases and vanity cases.
579 c (part)	Manufactures of tusks.
576	Musk.
653	Pearls, real or imitation.
655 (part)	Perfumery; Cosmetics.
664 a (part)	Plastic Raincoats.
658b	Precious and Semi-Precious Stones, Real or Imitation (not including uncut and unpolished), and manufactures thereof.
669 (part)	Plastic Hand-bags and Satchels.
296	Shank fins.
296, 297a, b & c	
138	Silk knitted tissue, pure or mixed.
140	Silk velvets, plushes and all other pile cloths, pure or mixed.
142 (a to h)	Silk piecegoods, pure or mixed, N.O.P.F.
144	Silk clothing and all other articles of personal wear and parts and accessories thereof N.O.P.F.
145	Silk goods and silk mixtures, N.O.P.F.
567 a (part)	Skins (furs) and articles made wholly or chiefly of skins (furs)
b and 568	N.O.P.F.
665	Thermostatic containers.
33a & b	Tea.
668	Toys and games.
667	Toilet equipments (such as combs, brushes, etc.)
670 a & c	Umbrellas and Sunshades:—(a) With handles wholly or partly of precious metals, ivory, mother-of-pearl, tortoise shell, agate, etc. or jewelled, (c) With all other handles, silk and silk mixtures.
125	Woollen carpets, carpeting and all other floor coverings, pure or mixed.

SCHEDULE V**ITEMS WHOSE EXPORT IS PROHIBITED UNLESS PERMISSION IS GRANTED BY THE GOVERNMENT THROUGH CUSTOMS**

1. Mineral products subject to special government regulations, namely, the metallic ores and smelted metals of wolfram, antimony, bismuth, molybdenum, uranium and thorium.
2. Silver coins, silver bullion, gold bullion, subsidiary coins of nickel and metal alloy, copper cash and coins and copper re-melted therefrom.
3. Salt.
4. Wild animals and birds, alive, of all kinds (including game).
5. Birds' skins (i.e. skin with feathers on) and feathers of wild birds held together by small portion of the skins.
6. Antiques.
7. Original writing of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, ancient Chinese books and archives of government departments.
8. Rice, paddy, wheat, wheat flour, and manufactures thereof.
9. Cotton Yarn and cloth.

SECTION II**REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE USE OF THE EXCHANGE SURRENDER CERTIFICATES BY IMPORTERS AND EXPORTERS****(Effective From May 31, 1948)**

1. Exporters on selling exchange to an appointed bank, either against letter

of credit or a consignment will receive an Exchange Surrender Certificate ("Certificate") equal to 100% of the exchange sold. In the case of a consignment, the certificate will only be issued by an appointed bank when the exchange proceeds are actually realized and sold in cash to the appointed bank. The certificate will only be issued if the sale of exchange is

made within the time limits specified in the Central Bank of China circular No. 85.

2. Importers holding licenses for the import of goods other than rice, wheat and flour, cotton and fertilizer, when applying for the purchase of exchange from an appointed bank will be required, in addition to the existing requirements to surrender to the appointed bank certificates equal in face value to the amount of their import license.

3. The authorized holder of a certificate may transfer his certificate to a qualified holder of an import license or other person authorized to buy exchange from an appointed bank, for a consideration which is to be determined by agreement between seller and buyer.

4. Certificates are transferable only by endorsement between appointed banks, exporters, importers and others authorized to purchase exchange from an appointed bank. Transfer to unqualified persons invalidates the certificate.

5. The validity of a certificate for the purchase of exchange from an appointed bank shall not be more than seven days. The validity date of a certificate will in no circumstances be extended.

6. C. B. C. Circular No. 131 has been cancelled.

PROCEDURE IN HANDLING EXCHANGE SURRENDER CERTIFICATES

1. The cover rate of exchange of all foreign currencies will be determined, as heretofore, by the Foreign Equalization Fund Committee (the "Fund") on behalf of the Central Bank of China and all foreign exchange transactions including transactions involving the Exchange Surrender Certificate, (the "Certificate") shall only be done at rates calculated on the bases of the fund's cover rate.

2. The exporter shall as heretofore, be required by the Chinese Maritime Customs (CBC 8a revised) issued by an appointed bank before the export shall be permitted to pass customs.

3. The appointed bank is hereby authorized to issue such export certificate (CBC 8a revised) under the following conditions:

(a) To the best judgment of the appointed bank, the declaration made by the exporters regarding the quantity, quality, and foreign exchange value of the relative export is true and correct and in accordance with the rules of the Central Bank, the Export-Import Board (the "Board") and the Chinese Maritime Customs.

(b) In the case of a shipment under a letter of credit, the exporter shall have made a cash sale to the appointed bank of the declared amount of foreign exchange; and in the case of a consignment, the exporter shall give an undertaking to the appointed bank to surrender the declared amount of foreign exchange within the time limit required by the Central Bank's circular No. 85, and in turn the appointed bank shall be considered to have committed to the Central Bank to the same effect.

4. The appointed bank after having made a cash purchase of foreign exchange, being the proceeds of an export shipment against a letter of credit or on consignment, may on behalf of the Central Bank issue a certificate to the exporters (Note: in the case of a consignment shipment, the appointed bank may only issue a certificate when the export is sold abroad and foreign exchange proceeds thereof is actually realized and sold in cash to the appointed bank).

5. In the case of a consignment shipment, the certificate may only be issued not later than the time limit specified in our circular No. 85, against the actual delivery of foreign exchange to an appointed bank by the exporter. If the delivery of exchange is later than the said time limit, no certificate shall be issued there against.

6. The appointed bank after issuing a certificate to an exporter on behalf of the Central Bank shall deliver to the Central Bank on the day the certificate is issued the duplicate copy of the certificate together with the following supporting documents:

(a) A copy of the relative export certificate (CBC 8a revised) duly signed by the exporter and certified by the appointed bank.

(b) The appointed bank's exchange purchase contract (or memo) evidencing a cash purchase of foreign exchange by the appointed bank of the total amount of foreign exchange proceeds of the export shipment.

7. The Central Bank may, at its discretion, cancel its authorization to any appointed bank to act as its agent in issuing certificates on its behalf.

8. The appointed bank may accept remittances (including remittances from overseas Chinese, foreign governments, missionaries, philanthropical organizations, etc.) and foreign currency notes in China, (provided such currencies are convertible to U. S. dollars or pounds sterling). Such remittances shall be made payable:

(a) Only by an appointed bank in China, and

(b) With the qualifying clause "payable in Chinese National Currency at the appointed bank's buying rate, plus a remittance premium ruling on the date of payment."

9. The agent of an appointed bank may accept remittances in Chinese National Currency on the basis of the fund's rate, plus a remittance premium to be determined in accordance with the provisions under paragraph 21.

10. The appointed bank may also buy banker's draft, traveller's cheque and traveller's letter of credit issued by a foreign bank, which is not an agent of any appointed bank.

11. Upon delivery of foreign exchange under inward remittance and banker's drafts by the appointed bank to the Central Bank, the Central Bank shall issue to the appointed bank the relative special Exchange Surrender Certificate in the name of the appointed bank. Such special certificates may be sold to qualified importers, and others authorized to buy exchange from the appointed banks.

12. The appointed bank may not issue to itself certificates in respect of foreign exchange bought under the bank's draft and inward remittance.

13. The appointed bank acting as an agent for the Central Bank in handling foreign exchange remittance shall be required to register with the Central Bank its branches and correspondents who are to be agents of the appointed bank in handling such remittances.

14. The agent of an appointed bank abroad shall give an undertaking to the appointed bank that it will not accept remittances on behalf of the appointed bank in contravention to the provisions of this circular letter.

15. The agent of an appointed bank abroad shall keep the following records of all remittances, namely (a) the daily total, by foreign currencies, of the remittances, (b) the exchange rate, the remittance premium, bank charges (if any) and (c) the monthly total of remittances on the different import paying centers.

16. The Central Bank may, at its option, require the appointed bank on behalf of the Central Bank for the surrender of foreign exchange under export shipments. Such certificates shall bear the signatures of a senior officer of the Central Bank and of two senior officers of the appointed bank.

17. There shall be two kinds of certificates:

(a) The ordinary certificate to be issued by the appointed bank on behalf of the Central Bank for the surrender of foreign exchange under export shipments. Such certificates shall bear the signature of a senior officer of the Central Bank and of two senior officers of the appointed bank.

(b) The special certificate to be issued by the Central Bank for the surrender of foreign exchange under (a) banker's draft and inward remittance, (b) to the debit of a certificate account of an Appointed Bank or (c) under the instruction of the fund. Such special certificate shall bear two signatures of senior officers of the Central Bank.

18. A certificate is transferrable only by endorsement and only to an importer holding an import license or other person authorized to purchase exchange from an appointed bank. Once being transferred to an unqualified person, the certificate is invalidated.

19. The validity of a certificate for the purchase of foreign exchange shall not be more than seven days from the date of the certificate. The validity shall under no circumstance be extended.

20. The owner of a certificate may transfer his certificate to a qualified importer or other person authorized to purchase exchange from an appointed bank for a consideration to be determined by agreement between seller and buyer.

21. Since by handling inward foreign exchange remittances, the appointed bank shall receive special certificates, and since the appointed bank may sell the said certificates for a consideration, the remittance premium that the appointed bank shall quote to the remitter and subsequently pay to the beneficiary of the remittance should be in line with the certificate price that the appointed bank receives.

22. The appointed bank shall be required to open in the books of the Central Bank a certificate account in its name. A certificate deposited by an appointed bank to its certificate account may be withdrawn in special certificates at the request of the appointed bank to the debit of its account.

23. The appointed bank and the foreign exchange broker may assist their client in the sale and purchase of certificate provided they are satisfied that the buyers of the certificate are qualified persons, that is, appointed banks; persons with a valid import license; or other persons authorized to purchase exchange from an appointed bank.

24. The foreign exchange broker may not buy and sell certificates for his own account. The appointed bank may buy and sell certificates for its own account to help its clients to adjust the amount of their certificate to the amount of their import license or special authorization. Certificates in the hands of an appointed bank, at the end of a business day, shall be delivered to the Central Bank for deposit to its certificate account.

25. The balance on the certificate account of an appointed bank at the end of any business day shall not exceed US\$1-million or its equivalent. The validity period in respect of the balance on a certificate account shall not be limited.

26. The amount of the certificate to be issued shall be 100% of the amount of foreign exchange surrendered. This ratio between the certificate and the amount of foreign exchange surrendered shall be determined, from time to time, by the fund, and is subject to change without notice.

27. The Central Bank, or appointed bank may, at the request of the owner of the certificate, divide the certificate into a number of certificates without any change in the total amount, date of expiry and other particulars, provided that such division by an appointed bank may only be made in respect of a certificate originally issued by it, and that the former certificate is cancelled and surrendered immediately to the Central Bank.

28. The importer applying for the purchase of foreign exchange from an appointed bank under an import license issued by the board shall, in addition to the existing requirements, be required to surrender to the appointed bank a like amount of certificate; except that import licenses issued for the importation of rice, wheat, flour, fertilizer, cotton and such other commodities as are designated by the authorities shall not be required to procure a certificate.

29. The possession of a certificate shall not be a prerequisite for the application for an import license; nor its possession oblige the board to issue an import license.

30. The appointed bank shall make a daily report of foreign exchange sold at the fund's rate under import license or for other authorization to purchase exchange. Such reports shall be accompanied by the original copies of the relative certificates whenever such a certificate is required. Such used certificates shall be clearly marked in ink with the word "cancelled" before being handed over to the Central Bank.

31. Any provision in the circulars of the Central Bank to the appointed banks which is at variance with the provisions of this circular is superseded and cancelled.

SECTION III

PROCEDURAL RULINGS PURSUANT TO THE REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE APPLICATION FOR IMPORTS PAID WITH FOREIGN EXCHANGE ABROAD BELONGING TO OVERSEAS CHINESE NATIONALS FOR INVESTMENT IN DOMESTIC PRODUCTIVE ENTERPRISES

I.—These procedural rulings are hereby issued in pursuance of the regulations governing the application for imports paid with foreign exchange abroad belonging to overseas Chinese nationals for investments in domestic productive enterprises.

II.—In accordance with the provisions of Articles II, V and VI of the regulations, the applicant, before making application for imports, shall fill out in triplicate on the prescribed form the project and prospectus relative to the construction of new, or expansion of existing, enterprises and shall submit two copies to authority in charge for examination and one copy to the Export-Import Board for their files. The authority in charge shall complete the examination within 15 days from the date of the receipt of the application and, where field survey is deemed necessary, such survey and examination of the application shall be completed within two months. When the application is approved in accordance with the provisions of the Articles II, IV, and VI of the regulations, one copy shall be retained for record and another copy forwarded to the Export-Import Board which shall decide on the kind and quantity of imports and notify the applicant to file application for import license according to the existing rules and procedures relative thereto. On the issuance of the import license, the board shall notify relative authorities in charge accordingly.

III.—The authorities in charge as referred to in the preceding article, shall, according to the nature of the enterprises, be classified as follows:—

Ministry of Industries and Commerce: in charge of industries, handicrafts, mining, public utilities (water, electricity and gas).

Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry: in charge of agriculture, forestry, fishery, animal husbandry, fabrication of agricultural products.

Ministry of Communications: in charge of communications.

Ministry of Water Conservancy: in charge of water conservancy.

Export-Import Board: in charge of exports.

Where by their nature the enterprises concern more than two governmental bodies, the project and the prospectus shall be examined jointly by the authority in charge with the authority concerned.

IV.—Applicants filing application to the Export-Import Board for import license are required to produce documentary certification on the status of the overseas Chinese as owner of the overseas funds by the respective consular authorities or by one special commissioners' offices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the respective localities and approved by the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission.

V.—In accordance with the proviso of Article IV of the regulations, with respect to direct application to the Export-Import Board for license to import accessories and parts for replacement purposes, such applications shall be made in accordance with the existing procedure and shall be accompanied by documentary certification on the status of the overseas Chinese as owner of the overseas funds as provided for in the preceding article.

VI.—In accordance with the sub-paragraph (2) of Article II of the regulations, the removal to China of enterprises hitherto operated by Chinese overseas shall require the prior approval of the authorities in charge before applications to the Export-Import Board for import license may be made.

VII.—Imports provided for under sub-paragraphs (1), (2), (3) and (4) of Article IV of the regulations shall be limited to those listed in Schedules I, II and IIA of the Foreign Trade Regulations only.

VIII.—The time-limit specified for the shipment of imports and for the completion of construction work shall be fixed in accordance with sub-paragraphs (1) and (2) of Article III of the regulations. However, when due to *force majeure* and/or acts of God, shipment or completion cannot be effected within the specified time limit, application for extension may be made.

IX.—When imports under application are ordered and purchased through the in-

termediary of importers, it shall be limited to registered qualified importers only, if for the commodity under application there is registration of qualified importers and the importers shall counter-sign the application as provided for in Article X of the regulations.

X.—With respect of supervision as provided for in Article XI of the regulations, the Export-Import Board shall, together with other governmental bodies concerned, organize a supervisory committee for the purpose of control and supervision of which detailed procedures shall be drafted separately.

XI.—As provided for in Article VII of the regulations, upon approval of the kind and quantity of imports by the Export-Import Board, the applicant shall arrange to sell the goods to direct users and shall submit the sale contracts together with the application for import license, to the Export-Import Board for approval.

XII.—Until further notice, the sale agencies as provided for in sub-paragraph (2), Article VII of the regulations, shall be the Bank of China, the Bank of Communications, the Farmers' Bank of China, the Central Trust of China, the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank, the Central Cooperative Bank of China and business organizations designated by the authorities in charge. The sale proceeds shall within three days be deposited by the sale agencies with the government banks, to be payable in accordance with the stages of the approved project. The sale agencies shall report to the Export-Import Board on the sale contracts, date of sale and prices and may, at the request of the applicant, effect sales by installments according to the approved schedules of payments.

XIII.—In accordance with the proviso of Article VIII of the regulations, overseas Chinese nationals in applying for license to import goods purchased abroad shall submit documentary certification by respective consular authorities or special commissioners' officers of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, on foreign exchange restrictions effective in the localities where these Chinese nationals reside, together with applications for import license to the Export-Import Board for scrutiny and approval.

XIV.—These procedural rulings shall come into force upon the approval of the Executive Yuan.

**REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE
APPLICATION FOR IMPORTS PAID WITH
FOREIGN EXCHANGE ABROAD
BELONGING TO OVERSEAS CHINESE
NATIONALS FOR INVESTMENT IN
DOMESTIC PRODUCTIVE
ENTERPRISES**

Article I.—The term "productive enterprises" as herein used shall include manufacturing industries, mining, agriculture, forestry, fishery, animal husbandry, water conservancy, public utilities, transportation and communication, processing farm products for export and handicrafts

Article II.—The repatriation of foreign exchange of overseas Chinese nationals for the construction of new, or extension of existing, productive enterprises, shall comply with the following conditions:

(1) The productive enterprises are actually needed in China or their production will increase exports.

(2) Over one half of the principal raw materials required by such productive enterprises shall be obtainable in China.

The foregoing limitation shall not apply to the removal to China of productive enterprises hitherto operated by Chinese overseas.

Article III.—Applications for import licenses made under the preceding article hereof shall comply with the following conditions:

(1) The shipment of the capital goods under application shall be effected within eighteen months from the date of the issuance of the import license.

(2) The construction work of the enterprises concerned shall be completed within twenty-four months from the date of the issuance of the import license.

(3) The total value of capital goods, raw materials and equipment for new enterprises shall not be less than US\$10,000 or its equivalent in other foreign currencies.

Article IV.—Applicants for imports permitted hereunder for the construction of new, or extension of existing, enterprises, shall submit the whole project and prospectus of construction or extension to the respective authorities for approval and, upon approval, apply to the Export-Import Board for import license, which shall authorize the importation of the following only:

(1) Capital goods (Schedule I of the Foreign Trade Regulations) actually for the applicant's own use.

(2) Necessary accessories of the aforementioned capital goods or supplies required for their installation.

(3) Equipment required for the project, which is unobtainable in China, and must be purchased from abroad.

(4) Raw materials needed for the project and strictly for the applicant's own use, not exceeding the quantities required for six-months' production.

However, for the maintenance of existing productive enterprises and for the continuance of their production, the applicant may apply direct to the Export-Import Board for license to import accessories and parts for replacement purposes with the foreign exchange of overseas Chinese nationals.

Article V.—Overseas Chinese nationals making investments in existing domestic productive enterprises may, when approved by the respective authorities-in-charge, apply to the Export-Import Board for license to import various articles in accordance with Article 4 of these regulations.

Article VI.—Where Chinese national currency is required in the construction of new, or extension of existing enterprises financed by overseas Chinese funds, or in other forms of investment in existing enterprises, the applicant may, upon the approval of the respective authorities, apply to the Export-Import Board for license to import goods falling under categories specified by the government. The Export-Import Board shall announce from time to time the categories of goods allowed to be imported hereunder in the light of domestic requirements.

Article VII.—Goods imported under the preceding article hereof may be disposed of by either of the following methods:

(1) Upon the prior approval of the Export-Import Board, the applicant may sell direct to productive enterprises requiring such goods, or

(2) The applicant may request the government-designated agency or agencies to sell for his account with the proceeds to be deposited with government-designated bank or banks for meeting Chinese currency payments in accordance with the stages of the approved projects.

Article VIII.—Where overseas Chinese nationals can not repatriate their funds owing to the foreign exchange restrictions being enforced in the localities where they reside, they may apply to the Export-Import Board for license to import commodities (as listed in the schedules of permissible imports) up to and not more than US\$10,000 or equivalent in value which will be dealt with in accordance with the proviso of Article 7 hereof.

Article IX.—The status of overseas Chinese, as owner of overseas funds, shall be certified in writing by their respective Consular authorities or Special Commissioners' Offices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and approved by the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission.

Article X.—When goods to be imported hereunder are ordered and purchased through importers, the application for import license shall be countersigned by the importer.

Article XI.—With respect to the construction of new, or extension of existing, enterprises, the applicant shall report monthly in writing to the respective authorities and the Export-Import Board on the progress of the work, the use of storage of supplies and raw materials under the project. When necessary, checking and inspection may be made by the authorities.

Article XII.—In case of re-sale for profit of the goods imported under Articles IV and V hereof, the applicant shall be subject to the penalty of permanent suspension of new material quotas and shall also be denied the privilege of applying for any other imports.

Article XIII.—Overseas Chinese nationals reporting for registration and transferring of their funds either totally or partially to the Central Bank of China or its appointed bank in accordance with the provisions of the regulations governing registration of foreign exchange deposits and assets abroad belonging to Chinese nationals, may apply to the Export-Import Board for license to import various commodities under the rulings governing the disbursement of foreign currency and exchange deposit with the Central Bank of China or its appointed banks.

Article XIV.—These regulations shall take effect on the date of their promulgation.

IMPORTS LISTED

Further, in accordance with the proviso of foregoing Article VI commodities allowed for importation in light of domestic requirements are specified as hereunder:

Rice, wheat, flour, cotton, wool, jute and gunny bags, hemp, India-rubber, crude rubber and rubber tires for motor vehicles, timber and railway sleepers, fertilizers, gasoline, fuel oil, lubricating oil, coal and coke, paper and wood pulp, coconut oil and raw materials for special pharmaceuticals.

RULING GOVERNING CLEARANCE OF APPLICATIONS FOR IMPORTATION OF PURCHASES FROM ABROAD, ALREADY PAID FOR PRIOR TO AUGUST 19, 1948

I.—Applications for importation of contracted purchases already paid-for prior to August 19, 1948, with foreign assets abroad owned by either manufacturers, individuals, institutions or bodies, shall be filed with the Export-Import Board before December 31, 1948—over which time limit no such applications will be accepted for consideration.

II.—Various categories of purchases to be imported under these rulings shall be limited to those commodities which are defined as permissible imports under the rulings governing the disbursement of foreign currency and exchange deposit with the Central Bank of China or its appointed banks.

III.—The applicant under these rulings shall, in submitting an application for importation to the Export-Import Board, attach thereto a certifying letter on payment from his paying-bank abroad, or otherwise, a receipt voucher from his supplier if the payment has been made direct to the supplier abroad.

IV.—When a purchase abroad is only partially paid-for prior to August 19, 1948, it shall be allowed to be imported, provided, however, that the unpaid balance of the cost is to be paid in accordance with the provisions of the rulings governing the disbursement of foreign currency and exchange deposit with the Central Bank of China or its appointed banks.

In the event that the paid and the unpaid portions of a purchase can not be separated, the purchase in total shall not be allowed to be imported.

V.—These rulings shall come into effect upon approval by the Executive Yuan for promulgation.

PROVISIONS PURSUANT TO THE RULINGS GOVERNING CLEARANCE OF APPLICATIONS FOR IMPORTATION OF PURCHASES FROM ABROAD, ALREADY PAID FOR PRIOR TO AUGUST 19, 1948

I.—Applications for imports under the rulings need not be sent through the agency of the appointed banks but may be directly addressed to the Import Licensing Office, if in Shanghai and, if in other ports, to the regional offices or sub-offices of the board.

II.—The applicants may obtain blank forms of application in quadruplicate (the

original copy to be returned to the applicant when signed as approved to serve as import license, the duplicate and the triplicate copies to be sent respectively to the secretarial department of the Board and the Customs for checking and the quadruplicate to be retained for the file of the Import Licensing Office), fill in the particulars thereon and forward them to the Import Licensing Office.

III.—In sending an application for imports the applicant should attach thereon the following documents besides a letter certifying payment by the paying bank abroad or a payment receipt voucher from a foreign supplier.

(a) Invoice or evidences of contracted purchases.

(b) If the unpaid portion of a purchase is to be paid in accordance with the provisions of the "rulings governing the disbursement of foreign currency and exchange deposit with the Central Bank of China or its appointed banks" certification by the depositing bank is required.

IV.—When the unpaid portion of a purchase is not to be paid in accordance with the provisions of "the rulings governing the disbursement of foreign currency and exchange deposit with the Central Bank of China or its appointed banks," the purchase shall be dealt with in either of the following ways:

(a) If the units of a purchase are separable, the paid-for units shall be allowed to be imported while the unpaid-for units shall not be.

(b) If the unpaid-for and the paid-for portions of a purchase can not be separated (i.e. a piece of machinery), the purchase *in toto* shall not be allowed to be imported.

V.—When importation is desired of one lot of purchase consisting of assortment of goods falling under Schedules I, II, IIIa and IIIb, they need only be covered by one single application properly filled in and submitted to the Import Licensing Office.

VI.—Applications for imports under the rulings when approved to serve as import license shall bear the mark "PU" and be chop-stamped "Paid up Case."

PROVISIONS GOVERNING THE APPLICATION FOR IMPORTS BY FOREIGN-OWNED PRODUCTIVE ENTERPRISES IN CHINA

I. Existing productive enterprises owned by foreign nationals in China applying for imports of equipments and accessories for replacement or extension purposes for their own use with their own foreign exchange abroad in accordance with the proviso of Article 4 of the regulations governing the application for imports paid with foreign exchange abroad belonging to overseas Chinese nationals for investments in domestic productive enterprises shall be governed by these provisions.

II.—The term "productive enterprises" as herein used shall include manufacturing industries, mining, agriculture, forestry, fishery, animal husbandry, water conservancy, public utilities, transportation and communication, processing farm products for export, handicrafts and other related productive enterprises.

III.—Equipment and accessories for replacement or extension purposes to be imported under these provisions shall include articles in the nature of equipment falling under Schedules I, II, IIIa of the Foreign Trade Regulations.

IV.—The applicant-firm in submitting an application for imports shall produce a letter from their head office abroad certifying that the imports have been paid for and are for their own use, duly approved by their Chamber of Commerce or Consulate Office in China.

Applications for imports as referred to in the preceding paragraph should be submitted directly to the Export-Import Board in Shanghai and will not be accepted by the regional or sub-offices of the board in other ports.

V.—Applications for imports under these provisions shall be dealt with in the usual manner as ordinary applications for imports.

VI.—In the case of re-sale for profit of the goods imported under these provisions, the applicant shall be subject to the penalty of being permanently denied the privilege of applying for any imports.

CHAPTER 24

AGRICULTURE

GENERAL REVIEW

Chinese agriculture is generally divided into two main types; namely, grazing and arable farming.

On the plateaus and steppe lands where temperature is low, growing seasons short and rainfall scanty, grazing on natural grasses is the fundamental type of agriculture. Cultivation is limited to small regions where favorable natural conditions prevail. This type of agriculture is found in the western part of Hsining, northern Jehol, northern Chahar, northern Suiyuan, northern and western Ningxia, Sinkiang, western Sikang and Tibet.

Arable farming can be divided into four regions:

(1) *The Spring Wheat Region.*—Extends through Kirin, Sungkiang, Hokiang, Liaoning, Liaopei, Antung, southern Nunkiang, eastern Heilungkiang, southern and eastern Jehol, southern Chahar, southern Suiyuan, northern and western Kansu, southern and eastern Ningxia, northern Shansi, northern Shensi, eastern Chinghai, northwestern Szechwan and northern Sikang.

(2) *The Winter Wheat Region.*—Extends over Hopei, Shantung, northern Kiangsu, northern Anhwei, Honan, southern Shansi, southern Shensi, southern and eastern Kansu, northern Szechwan, southern and eastern Sikang, and northwestern Yunnan.

(3) *The Wheat and Rice Region.*—Stretches over the southern part of Kiangsu, northern Chekiang, southern Anhwei, all except the southern tip of Hupeh, eastern and central Szechwan, central Yunnan and northern Kweichow.

(4) *The Rice Region.*—Covers the southern part of Chekiang, Kiangsi and Hunan, the southern tip of Hupeh, Fukien, Kwangtung and Kwangsi, southern Kweichow and southern Yunnan.

The spring wheat region is the only arable farming area in China where no

winter crops can be planted because of the low winter temperature. Crops must be started in the spring or early in the summer. One crop a year is the rule, with spring wheat as the chief crop. Barley, oats, millet, proso millet, peas, beans, hemp, flax and kaoliang are also cultivated. Throughout this region, livestock raising is an important undertaking. Wool production is widespread, but cotton is grown only in the Liaotung peninsula.

Roughly, the region extends from the northeast to the northwest. The northeastern section is often referred to as the "soybean-kaoliang region" inasmuch as these are its principal crops.

Winter wheat covers the most acreage, hence the name "winter wheat region." Barley is the main supplementary cereal. Other popular crops are kaoliang, millet, corn, cotton, tobacco, peanuts, beans and sweet potatoes. Double cropping is possible, but not common. Cattle and donkeys are raised as labor animals.

The wheat and rice region forms a transitional boundary between northern and southern agriculture. Rice is the most important summer crop in this region, while wheat is the principal winter crop. Other products are beans, peas, kaoliang, sweet potatoes, cotton, barley, rapeseed and oats. Cattle and water buffaloes are raised as farm animals. Since there is a surplus of cereals, productive animals (as contrasted with labor animals) are also raised.

Wheat growing is limited in the rice region, but two rice crops usually are grown a year, by interplanting or by double cropping. The former practice means planting late rice between the rows of early rice, while double cropping means planting late rice after the harvest of early rice. All kinds of labor and productive animals and citrus fruits can be found in this region.

Rice is the staple food for the people in the central and southern provinces of Szechwan, Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Yunnan, Fukien, Chekiang and Kiangsu, while wheat is eaten largely by those in the northern provinces of Hopei, Honan, Shantung, Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia and Chinghai. During the Sino-Japanese War, the production of rice in Free China was more than adequate while that of wheat, corn, millet, barley, kaoliang and soybeans fell short of demands. The differences, however, were made up by restricting non-essential uses of cereals, such as the manufacture of wine.

PRODUCTION

The following is a comparative study of China's agricultural production during the prewar and the war years:

Rice, wheat and barley were the chief crops in China. When the war broke out in 1937, 22 provinces produced a total of 1,600-million piculs of unhusked rice, wheat and barley. The estimated yearly production of other important crops may be itemized as follows:

TABLE 1.—ESTIMATED YEARLY PRODUCTION OF IMPORTANT CROPS DURING PREWAR PERIOD

Crop	Production (Million Piculs*)
Unhusked rice	1,000
Wheat and barley	600
Sweet potatoes	400
Kaoliang	140
Millet	140
Corn	140
Soybeans	140
Field peas	60
Broad beans	60
Peanuts	60
Rapeseeds	60
Proso Millet	20
Oats	20
Sesame	20
Cotton	20
Tobacco	20
Total	2,900

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

* One picul equals 110 lbs.

The estimated yearly production of livestock is shown below:

TABLE 2.—ESTIMATED YEARLY PRODUCTION OF LIVESTOCK DURING PREWAR PERIOD

Kind of Livestock	Number (Millions)
Labor Animals:	
Water buffaloes and cattle	30
Horses, donkeys and mules	20
Productive Animals:	
Poultry	300
Hogs	60
Sheep and goats	30
Total	440

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

During the war, 60% of the agricultural and livestock production of the country was carried out in Free China. This included 80% of all the rice produced; 40% of all the wheat; 70 to 80% of the kaoliang, millet, proso millet, soybeans, oats and cotton, and from 50 to 60% of the total yield of peanuts, sesame, corn and barley. Other crops were: field peas, broad beans, rapeseeds, sweet potatoes and tobacco.

Eighty percent of the water buffaloes were found in Free China provinces. Horses, mules, donkeys, goats and sheep were largely concentrated in the occupied and war areas, while hogs, chickens, ducks and geese were raised mostly in the hinterland.

Taking 1931-1937 as the prewar standard, the acreage of the winter and summer crops registered an increase of 1% in 1939, 2% in 1940, 3% in 1941, 6% in 1942, 8% in 1943, 9% in 1944, and 8% in 1945. While the acreage of the winter crops increased during these years, that of summer crops decreased by 1%.

Crop production registered an increase of 6% in 1938, 10% in 1939 and 2% in 1940, but it showed a decrease of 1% in 1941, and 2% both in 1942 and 1943. An increase of 8% was registered in 1944. In 1945, the production showed a drop of 1%.

Livestock production declined with the outbreak of the war in 1937. Taking 1937 as a base, 1938 registered a decrease of 3%, 1939, 1%; 1940, 7%; 1941, 10%; 1942, 13%; 1943, 16%; 1944, 15%; and 1945, 18%.

The following tables were compiled from reports of the National Agricultural Research Bureau, showing the acreage and production of six winter and 12 summer crops, and the raising of 11 kinds of livestock during 1945, 1946 and 1947.

TABLE 4.—ACREAGE OF IMPORTANT CROPS IN 15 FREE CHINA PROVINCES

Acarege (In 1,000 shih mow)									
Crops	1931-1937 Average	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Winter Crops									
Wheat.....	110,023	111,029	114,742	118,870	125,069	133,420	140,963	146,735	147,790
Barley.....	51,604	51,210	50,312	50,298	51,552	53,721	55,345	55,708	54,712
Field Peas.....	33,815	31,831	33,018	33,154	33,198	33,986	34,367	33,900	32,758
Broad Beans.....	29,249	30,048	29,805	29,568	29,633	30,493	30,936	30,606	30,308
Rapeseeds.....	42,494	43,740	46,401	54,469	56,489	56,008	59,976	61,458	59,645
Oats.....	2,341	2,282	2,399	2,310	2,358	2,381	2,388	2,337	2,280
SUB-TOTAL.....	269,526	270,140	276,677	288,669	298,299	310,019	323,975	330,744	327,493
Summer Crops									
Rice.....	210,868	206,341	207,048	198,714	198,258	202,689	199,095	200,955	196,267
Glutinous Rice.....	19,898	17,788	17,146	15,757	14,056	13,204	12,081	11,597	11,156
Kaoliang.....	16,491	16,076	15,700	15,634	15,661	15,675	15,183	14,983	14,431
Millet.....	17,283	16,274	15,311	14,487	14,371	14,520	14,887	14,455	14,449
Proso Millet.....	7,254	7,135	7,127	6,843	6,835	6,964	7,267	7,125	7,201
Corn.....	29,065	32,879	33,094	33,965	35,179	35,901	36,955	36,287	35,797
Soy Beans.....	23,818	22,368	22,468	23,328	22,868	22,611	22,080	21,335	21,061
Sweet Potatoes.....	22,314	25,193	25,616	27,469	28,941	29,800	30,906	31,708	32,385
Cotton.....	18,169	17,602	18,055	21,514	21,216	20,296	21,565	23,619	25,058
Peanuts.....	9,247	9,160	9,463	10,062	10,197	10,256	10,382	10,704	10,713
Sesame.....	9,294	9,057	9,771	10,505	10,183	9,803	10,030	10,538	10,798
Tobacco.....	6,174	6,057	6,187	6,626	6,124	5,892	5,930	5,890	5,943
SUB-TOTAL.....	389,875	385,930	386,986	384,904	383,889	387,611	386,361	389,196	385,259
GRAND TOTAL.....	659,401	656,070	663,663	673,573	682,188	697,630	710,336	719,940	712,752

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 5.—CROP PRODUCTION IN 15 FREE CHINA PROVINCES

	Production (in 1,000 piculs)								
Crops	1931-1937 Average	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Winter Crops									
Wheat.....	169,160	202,911	198,188	201,110	105,120	209,729	199,169	248,264	215,991
Barley.....	83,553	90,338	91,534	85,831	73,797	89,363	81,042	92,387	79,877
Field Peas.....	41,295	43,694	47,172	43,064	37,548	42,217	37,295	43,675	37,975
Broad Beans.....	44,120	47,644	52,359	47,715	41,906	47,617	43,871	49,135	40,061
Rapeseeds.....	36,642	35,846	43,111	48,539	45,630	44,140	48,527	49,650	39,245
Oats.....	2,961	3,118	3,375	3,048	2,877	3,094	2,916	2,911	2,323
WEIGHTED AVERAGE.....
Summer Crops									
Rice.....	726,315	747,569	763,649	618,863	643,519	635,299	609,488	674,715	586,017
Glutinous Rice.....	62,802	58,932	56,589	43,347	40,634	36,940	33,273	34,303	32,170
Kaoliang.....	32,506	33,997	34,299	31,264	29,665	24,044	28,055	27,467	29,449
Millet.....	25,137	23,814	23,990	21,171	20,706	14,754	17,915	17,456	20,909
Proso Millet.....	10,069	9,269	9,645	8,631	10,108	9,589	11,288	9,342	8,310
Corn.....	59,527	70,371	71,293	67,039	66,533	58,496	64,899	67,304	72,631
Soy Beans.....	39,518	36,470	37,646	38,576	34,714	29,406	33,334	32,950	33,773
Sweet Potatoes.....	216,049	276,550	248,662	256,404	277,096	242,606	290,284	303,431	306,397
Cotton.....	4,831	4,688	5,833	6,078	5,381	4,534	5,676	5,100	7,273
Peanuts.....	19,956	21,901	22,420	22,799	22,848	20,147	21,384	21,777	22,018
Sesame.....	6,911	5,451	8,008	8,221	7,351	4,840	6,752	7,036	8,168
Tobacco.....	9,277	8,934	9,811	10,269	8,516	7,564	8,259	8,345	8,070
WEIGHTED AVERAGE.....
WEIGHTED AVERAGE (Winter and Summer Crops)...

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 6.—LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION IN 15 FREE CHINA PROVINCES

		Number of Livestock (Unit: 1,000 Heads)								
		1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
Labor Animals										
Water Buffaloes.....		9,218	8,538	9,337	8,170	8,079	7,664	7,655	7,893	7,656
Oxen.....		13,613	13,717	13,736	12,929	12,727	12,695	12,074	12,114	11,881
Horses.....		1,631	1,508	1,560	1,512	1,410	1,284	1,275	1,262	1,110
Mules.....		1,068	870	1,015	988	835	692	710	693	638
Donkeys.....		2,480	2,192	2,403	2,199	2,103	1,997	1,923	1,954	1,733
WEIGHTED AVERAGE.....	
Productive Animals										
Goats.....		8,121	8,055	7,100	7,437	7,171	6,715	6,590	7,019	6,837
Sheep.....		5,048	4,882	4,711	4,834	4,210	4,056	4,027	4,048	3,889
Hogs.....		39,759	39,646	38,444	38,720	37,740	35,826	32,971	32,994	32,666
Chickens.....		142,687	144,949	142,775	135,244	126,941	116,936	115,834	117,129	108,536
Ducks.....		39,693	37,976	40,914	39,047	36,405	33,437	32,886	35,098	33,481
Geese.....		6,528	5,066	4,767	5,721	5,247	4,284	3,887	4,310	4,188
WEIGHTED AVERAGE.....	
WEIGHTED AVERAGE (Labor and Productive Animals..	

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 7.—ACREAGE OF WINTER CROPS, 1945
(Unit: 1,000 *Shih Mow*)

Province	Wheat	Barley	Field Peas	Broad Beans	Rape-seeds	Oats
Chahar.....
Suiyuan.....
Ningsia.....	375	127	357	26	14	23
Chinghai.....	2,433	1,391	703	406	830	572
Kansu.....	8,742	1,433	981	328	1,375	676
Shensi.....	19,472	2,648	2,030	297	1,815	93
Shansi.....
Hopei.....
Shantung.....
Kiangsu.....
Anhwei.....
Honan.....	29,355	4,604	2,633	153	1,232	..
Hupeh.....	14,915	7,803	2,659	3,865	4,206	104
Szechwan.....	23,930	12,862	10,369	8,016	8,452	812
Yunnan.....	5,923	2,344	1,792	5,293	2,802	..
Kweichow.....	4,366	3,274	1,286	1,183	2,909	..
Hunan.....	5,563	2,054	2,115	4,093	9,796	..
Kiangsi.....	5,941	2,890	1,702	2,755	13,190	..
Chekiang.....	8,966	5,171	961	1,636	5,019	..
Fukien.....	7,990	2,640	768	209	2,399	..
Kwangtung.....	4,273	2,457	1,074	739	1,578	..
Kwangsi.....	5,546	3,014	3,328	1,309	3,028	..
TOTAL.....	147,790	54,712	32,758	30,308	58,645	2,280

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 8.—PRODUCTION OF WINTER CROPS, 1945
(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

Province	Wheat	Barley	Field Peas	Broad Beans	Rape-seeds	Oats
Chahar.....
Suiyuan.....
Ningsia.....	510	242	581	41	15	33
Chinghai.....	2,652	1,670	663	451	515	532
Kansu.....	7,580	1,282	769	271	731	465
Shensi.....	18,232	2,585	1,445	197	711	52
Shansi.....
Hopei.....
Shantung.....
Kiangsu.....
Anhwei.....
Honan.....	44,497	6,576	3,421	194	727	..
Hupeh.....	21,872	10,199	2,862	4,241	2,285	54
Szechwan.....	52,153	26,041	16,794	13,596	7,431	1,187
Yunnan.....	9,623	3,694	2,200	8,470	1,864	..
Kweichow.....	6,921	4,805	1,260	1,206	1,843	..
Hunan.....	6,057	1,998	1,136	3,813	4,640	..
Kiangsi.....	8,803	3,455	1,291	3,178	9,526	..
Chekiang.....	12,353	6,875	821	1,951	3,524	..
Fukien.....	11,664	3,936	637	249	1,665	..
Kwangtung.....	5,249	2,571	688	792	1,335	..
Kwangsi.....	7,825	3,948	3,407	1,411	2,433	..
TOTAL.....	215,991	79,877	37,975	40,061	39,245	2,323

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 9.—ACREAGE OF WINTER CROPS, 1946
(Unit: 1,000 *Shih Mow*)

Province	Wheat	Barley	Field Peas	Broad Beans	Rape-seeds	Oats
Chahar.....	2,077	1,360	621	485	664	2,542
Suiyuan.....	2,626	546	866	944	1,034	3,811
Ningsia.....	373	149	371	24	15	23
Chinghai.....	2,374	1,303	661	408	853	553
Kansu.....	9,090	1,315	994	305	1,502	707
Shensi.....	19,590	2,708	2,201	302	2,058	99
Shansi.....	16,800	2,834	2,195	634	1,337	4,307
Hopei.....	22,228	2,631	599	331	876	364
Shantung.....	43,764	4,030	1,550	121	425	49
Kiangsu.....	32,711	16,404	3,509	4,404	4,026	869
Anhwei.....	18,768	6,131	2,735	1,158	3,872	148
Honan.....	55,895	8,787	3,808	288	2,004	30
Hupei.....	18,865	12,297	3,551	4,757	5,327	145
Szechwan.....	24,796	12,525	10,840	7,991	9,541	706
Yunnan.....	5,862	2,508	1,777	5,300	3,107	..
Kweichow.....	4,484	3,371	1,336	1,261	4,018	..
Hunan.....	6,062	2,127	2,300	4,554	9,877	..
Kiangsi.....	5,991	2,948	1,786	2,618	13,977	..
Chekiang.....	13,009	5,595	1,402	4,657	7,651	..
Fukien.....	8,046	2,522	786	222	2,565	..
Kwangtung.....	4,406	2,357	1,070	755	1,565	..
Kwangsi.....	5,598	3,183	3,332	1,261	3,612	..
TOTAL.....	323,415	97,631	48,290	42,780	79,906	14,353

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 10.—PRODUCTION OF WINTER CROPS, 1946
(Unit: 1,000 *piculs*)

Province	Wheat	Barley	Field Peas	Broad Beans	Rape-seeds	Oats
Chahar.....	2,555	1,306	533	679	418	3,559
Suiyuan.....	2,967	480	727	1,001	641	4,421
Ningsia.....	403	219	505	32	10	29
Chinghai.....	3,908	2,015	959	702	620	688
Kansu.....	11,070	1,674	1,225	393	1,110	750
Shensi.....	24,868	3,997	2,507	263	1,361	81
Shansi.....	20,496	3,401	2,480	590	842	2,283
Hopei.....	27,118	3,210	749	351	543	255
Shantung.....	66,084	6,367	2,031	102	349	38
Kiangsu.....	53,319	26,246	4,983	6,474	3,342	547
Anhwei.....	24,211	7,786	3,091	1,077	2,517	223
Honan.....	64,642	10,138	3,985	252	1,102	29
Hupei.....	29,575	17,310	3,722	4,969	3,996	85
Szechwan.....	49,785	23,679	15,572	13,788	9,261	1,075
Yunnan.....	10,114	4,094	2,410	10,359	2,291	..
Kweichow.....	8,773	5,902	1,700	1,678	2,970	..
Hunan.....	9,600	3,084	1,876	6,258	8,564	..
Kiangsi.....	7,824	3,344	1,335	2,711	10,024	..
Chekiang.....	17,398	7,403	1,027	4,785	4,875	..
Fukien.....	9,648	3,239	608	249	1,615	..
Kwangtung.....	4,247	2,141	614	645	971	..
Kwangsi.....	6,116	3,259	3,295	1,406	2,582	..
TOTAL.....	454,721	140,294	55,934	58,764	60,004	14,063

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 11.—ACREAGE OF WINTER CROPS, 1947
(Unit: 1,000 *Shih Mow*)

Province	Wheat	Barley	Field Peas	Broad Beans	Rape-seeds	Oats
Chahar.....	2,056	1,251	621	485	664	2,542
Suiyuan.....	2,521	530	831	887	1,055	3,620
Ningsia.....	388	149	385	24	15	23
Chinghai.....	2,325	1,302	690	413	928	614
Kansu.....	9,170	1,273	982	307	1,602	712
Shensi.....	19,785	2,686	2,180	304	1,959	103
Shansi.....	16,128	2,834	2,239	621	1,270	4,307
Hopei.....	21,783	2,631	599	331	823	339
Shantung.....	42,889	3,869	1,550	121	425	49
Kiangsu.....	32,711	16,076	3,579	4,404	3,865	860
Anhwei.....	17,830	6,008	2,571	1,181	3,988	148
Honan.....	55,890	8,440	3,699	295	1,953	29
Hupeh.....	18,872	12,412	3,513	4,709	5,534	150
Szechwan.....	25,189	12,447	10,589	7,839	10,647	641
Yunnan.....	5,916	2,507	1,644	5,457	3,266	..
Kweichow.....	4,391	3,170	1,378	1,371	4,431	..
Hunan.....	6,171	2,045	2,437	4,580	10,544	..
Kiangsi.....	6,121	2,815	1,788	2,753	14,124	..
Chekiang.....	13,326	5,514	1,413	4,796	7,045	..
Fukien.....	8,360	2,638	784	232	2,684	..
Kwangtung.....	4,433	2,300	1,187	861	1,577	..
Kwangsi.....	5,815	3,118	3,391	1,274	3,677	..
TOTAL.....	322,070	96,015	48,050	43,245	82,076	14,137

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 12.—PRODUCTION OF WINTER CROPS, 1947
(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

Province	Wheat	Barley	Field Peas	Broad Beans	Rape-seeds	Oats
Chahar.....	3,063	1,751	789	888	525	4,143
Suiyuan.....	2,496	525	781	816	528	3,511
Ningsia.....	484	275	680	41	12	29
Chinghai.....	4,064	2,270	1,098	787	812	791
Kansu.....	9,020	1,309	992	336	1,081	693
Shensi.....	25,449	3,683	2,081	248	945	68
Shansi.....	12,580	2,154	1,478	435	445	1,981
Hopei.....	20,694	2,973	581	318	518	247
Shantung.....	57,471	5,262	2,000	109	332	58
Kiangsu.....	61,497	29,258	5,011	7,355	3,363	1,135
Anhwei.....	27,102	9,012	3,368	1,476	3,789	223
Honan.....	76,842	10,927	4,371	322	958	31
Hupeh.....	32,949	20,065	4,376	5,861	3,943	97
Szechwan.....	58,068	27,111	17,429	14,435	12,421	1,052
Yunnan.....	9,278	3,660	1,794	6,782	2,034	..
Kweichow.....	9,156	6,084	1,967	2,063	3,889	..
Hunan.....	9,994	2,972	2,150	6,778	9,594	..
Kiangsi.....	9,018	3,575	1,500	3,287	12,431	..
Chekiang.....	20,586	8,581	1,396	6,478	5,650	..
Fukien.....	11,347	3,984	625	278	1,776	..
Kwangtung.....	4,527	2,215	793	935	1,091	..
Kwangsi.....	7,254	3,832	3,878	1,526	3,425	..
TOTAL.....	472,939	151,478	59,138	61,554	69,562	14,059

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 13.—ACREAGE OF SUMMER CROPS, 1945
(Unit: 1,000 *Shih Mou*)

Province	Rice	Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang	Millet	Proso-Millet	Corn	Soy-beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
Chahar.....
Suiyuan.....	116	57	91	180	471	28	38	..	8	..	2	..
Ningsia.....	292	214	11	23	15
Chinghai.....	2,009	3,698	1,665	569	163	306	1	10	288
Kansu.....	69	19	1,224	3,229	2,164	3,409	704	350	3,719	154	674	336
Shensi.....	891	142	1,211
Shansi.....
Hopei.....
Shantung.....
Kiangsu.....
Anhui.....
Honan.....	2,590	416	3,862	4,376	117	4,684	3,133	4,897	2,463	704	4,335	913
Hupeh.....	9,817	638	1,600	1,848	56	2,506	1,677	1,423	5,168	630	1,988	155
Szechwan.....	29,131	1,676	5,035	613	185	12,205	4,055	8,919	4,882	2,022	1,705	1,443
Yunnan.....	9,783	726	241	160	32	4,199	1,700	369	305	117	32	344
Kweichow.....	6,551	742	227	252	100	2,690	1,247	419	561	192	150	686
Hunan.....	24,459	678	314	150	26	647	1,244	2,338	2,154	369	185	667
Kiangsi.....	24,098	1,583	101	397	9	155	2,440	1,682	2,658	1,619	1,134	283
Chekiang.....	14,380	1,491	121	212	14	1,054	1,522	1,344	1,882	206	139	115
Fukien.....	12,940	822	22	181	21	26	893	2,891	75	588	57	133
Kwangtung.....	41,450	1,078	77	262	39	316	648	5,762	58	2,484	69	163
Kwangsi.....	19,992	1,088	305	288	55	2,202	1,168	1,828	819	1,627	318	402
TOTAL.....	196,267	11,156	14,431	14,449	7,201	35,797	21,061	32,385	25,058	10,713	10,798	5,943

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 14.—PRODUCTION OF SUMMER CROPS, 1945
(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

Province	Rice	Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang	Millet	Proso-Millet	Corn	Soy-beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton (Lint)	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
Chahar.....
Suiyuan.....	127	57	161	285	748	45	60	2	..
Ningsia.....	280	276	11	26	..	3	26
Chinghai.....	146	32	1,502	2,263	4,080	2,292	560	800	67	1	5	250
Kansu.....	2,230	321	1,529	3,866	2,435	4,202	710	2,538	723	218	297	327
Shensi.....
Shansi.....
Hopel.....
Shantung.....
Kiangsu.....
Anhui.....
Honan.....	7,060	1,001	7,371	7,859	148	7,722	3,838	65,354	698	1,424	3,737	1,332
Hupeh.....	31,693	1,793	3,364	2,904	45	5,209	3,202	13,343	1,943	1,526	1,535	235
Szechwan.....	106,300	5,729	13,393	1,008	207	32,425	8,260	68,775	1,452	4,477	1,274	2,216
Yunnan.....	29,382	2,150	405	248	43	5,483	3,216	2,994	67	202	24	358
Kweichow.....	17,028	1,822	528	445	133	7,582	2,669	3,502	147	524	88	1,357
Hunan.....	59,116	1,393	435	159	14	1,003	1,718	17,297	568	589	93	618
Kiangsi.....	74,851	4,552	117	492	17	223	3,449	15,017	816	4,027	745	328
Chekiang.....	41,644	5,019	119	260	20	1,656	1,944	13,268	628	389	88	213
Fukien.....	44,204	2,699	18	177	20	68	1,376	36,544	16	1,237	25	171
Kwangtung.....	125,004	2,893	85	332	50	510	1,101	56,335	9	4,642	41	299
Kwangsi.....	47,232	2,709	422	331	74	4,200	1,644	10,630	136	2,762	214	340
TOTAL.....	586,017	32,170	29,449	20,909	8,310	72,631	33,773	306,397	7,273	22,018	8,168	8,070

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 15.—ACREAGE OF SUMMER CROPS, 1946
(Unit: 1,000 *Shih Mow*)

Province	Rice	Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang	Millet	Proso-Millet	Corn	Soy-beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
Chahar.....	215	2,451	3,737	1,888	243	598	21	9
Suiyuan.....	996	1,287	2,193	176	388	5	31	80
Ningsia.....	114	56	91	170	466	27	38	2	15
Chinghai.....	274	248	11	26	285
Kansu.....	72	20	1,238	2,100	3,800	1,696	593	164	322	1	10	339
Shensi.....	920	144	1,164	3,325	2,141	3,111	743	358	4,130	159	713	339
Shansi.....	80	48	5,336	11,692	4,057	3,986	1,278	216	2,307	78	432	364
Hopei.....	706	500	11,615	16,980	3,013	14,419	4,025	2,194	8,384	3,411	2,435	343
Shantung.....	191	154	15,893	15,320	2,329	7,737	17,963	3,828	4,963	4,314	2,006	839
Kiangsu.....	25,367	3,713	5,131	1,265	370	7,001	13,090	2,285	8,653	2,126	1,446	60
Anhui.....	14,869	1,406	5,246	385	80	949	4,687	1,538	2,201	836	1,732	359
Honan.....	2,775	551	11,696	14,214	1,715	10,159	8,466	7,554	7,596	2,730	6,921	1,051
Hupeh.....	18,360	1,521	1,774	1,977	69	2,498	2,216	1,691	6,531	909	2,674	207
Szechwan.....	28,437	1,613	5,176	635	185	12,043	4,138	9,097	5,088	2,091	1,798	1,478
Yunnan.....	9,498	682	239	164	32	4,200	1,664	364	308	119	32	354
Kweichow.....	7,106	783	215	239	98	2,784	1,185	404	532	199	138	752
Hunan.....	25,199	644	330	151	27	681	1,338	2,454	2,153	389	181	696
Kiangsi.....	23,894	1,565	101	391	9	154	2,464	1,642	2,436	1,700	1,145	290
Chekiang.....	23,437	2,639	144	288	25	1,293	2,816	1,646	2,196	247	171	282
Fukien.....	12,834	821	23	186	21	26	895	3,084	82	613	57	140
Kwangtung.....	40,581	1,047	77	254	39	312	596	6,018	58	2,407	64	187
Kwangsi.....	20,512	1,097	317	271	56	2,265	1,202	1,864	804	1,612	308	432
TOTAL.....	255,167	19,004	69,253	75,275	22,861	75,771	70,409	46,427	58,751	23,941	22,296	8,562

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 16.—PRODUCTION OF SUMMER CROPS, 1946
(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

Province	Rice	Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang	Millet	Proso-Millet	Corn	Soy-beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton (Lint)	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
Chahar.....	303	..	2,598	4,036	2,209	345	592	54	6	10
Suiyuan.....	129	61	946	1,248	2,632	209	415	19	1	96
Ningsia.....	179	258	731	48	69	..	2	25
Chinghai.....	428	490	16	49	391
Kansu.....	159	38	2,000	3,153	5,791	3,038	838	1,103	95	1	7	364
Shensi.....	2,416	352	1,774	4,244	2,383	4,310	865	3,075	908	276	352	462
Shansi.....	82	48	8,800	20,461	5,761	7,534	1,764	2,637	715	185	359	442
Hopei.....	1,101	1,025	16,261	25,810	3,555	23,070	5,394	23,958	2,096	8,186	1,997	1,795
Shantung.....	168	191	33,216	30,793	3,866	13,076	23,352	47,161	1,539	11,389	2,126	..
Kiangsu.....	95,091	12,847	11,596	2,226	629	15,332	24,347	33,978	3,029	6,038	1,142	97
Anhui.....	55,964	4,387	9,443	347	72	2,297	8,155	12,489	682	1,781	1,403	431
Honan.....	8,468	1,247	21,067	23,455	1,834	14,594	10,597	91,196	1,848	6,312	5,479	1,468
Hupei.....	59,205	4,330	3,903	3,058	72	4,673	3,830	16,558	2,238	2,442	1,935	351
Szechwan.....	99,507	5,231	13,602	1,018	201	30,374	7,733	70,215	1,375	4,926	1,209	2,386
Yunnan.....	28,621	2,038	373	226	42	5,519	3,527	3,302	73	242	27	396
Kweichow.....	22,533	2,297	435	447	132	6,087	2,400	3,996	142	543	91	1,569
Hunan.....	95,425	2,033	538	188	23	1,339	2,254	23,434	610	813	100	788
Kiangsi.....	77,513	4,279	164	511	18	222	3,221	15,124	634	4,042	731	378
Chekiang.....	79,036	9,099	187	335	33	2,187	3,798	18,969	655	522	100	442
Fukien.....	43,840	2,762	25	239	25	66	1,367	39,424	17	1,284	23	230
Kwangtung.....	136,766	3,596	95	297	47	510	872	61,474	8	3,768	41	347
Kwangsi.....	54,941	3,006	430	335	70	4,161	1,578	13,562	117	2,396	202	430
TOTAL.....	861,268	58,867	127,632	123,113	30,616	139,007	107,017	481,728	16,783	55,146	17,331	12,898

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 17.—ACREAGE OF SUMMER CROPS, 1947
(Unit: 1,000 Shih Mow)

Province	Rice	Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang	Millet	Proso-Millet	Corn	Soy-beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
Chahar.....	219	..	2,255	3,662	2,058	236	582	21	9
Suiyuan.....	956	1,236	2,215	172	372	5	31	80
Ningsia.....	114	57	92	173	435	23	39	..	7	..	2	15
Chinghai.....	267	245	11	27
Kansu.....	70	19	1,209	2,046	3,675	1,675	588	161	340	1	11	309
Shensi.....	943	154	1,148	3,177	1,996	3,230	724	332	4,317	159	684	323
Shansi.....	78	49	4,990	10,523	4,037	3,906	1,201	210	2,146	76	419	368
Hopei.....	741	500	10,570	17,659	3,134	14,275	4,065	2,260	8,300	3,377	2,386	333
Shantung.....	189	156	14,622	15,473	2,422	7,969	17,963	2,285	5,013	4,228	1,986	847
Kiangsu.....	24,752	3,527	5,080	1,189	348	7,001	13,483	2,855	8,740	2,083	1,475	56
Anhui.....	14,996	1,350	5,508	381	80	977	4,687	1,507	2,245	869	1,836	416
Honan.....	2,864	555	11,010	14,091	1,646	9,552	8,393	7,685	7,894	2,619	6,917	1,219
Hupeh.....	18,241	1,468	1,771	1,918	67	2,507	2,239	1,709	6,728	881	2,709	213
Szechwan.....	29,807	1,545	4,873	567	165	11,552	4,178	8,467	5,292	2,089	1,761	1,479
Yunnan.....	9,270	669	236	158	32	3,998	1,634	354	330	121	31	405
Kweichow.....	6,966	737	205	239	94	2,702	1,123	419	573	185	136	951
Hunan.....	24,714	613	294	149	711	1,409	1,409	2,548	2,281	397	182	670
Kiangsi.....	24,166	1,533	99	374	9	155	2,432	1,611	2,640	1,726	1,156	287
Chekiang.....	23,408	2,698	147	251	27	1,356	2,869	1,590	2,305	241	172	274
Fukien.....	13,142	810	23	154	21	26	873	3,075	81	607	55	139
Kwantung.....	41,221	1,006	76	241	38	296	571	6,098	58	2,428	69	165
Kwangsi.....	21,047	1,039	316	270	54	2,309	1,209	1,819	781	1,663	305	414
TOTAL.....	256,948	18,485	65,480	74,198	22,844	74,639	70,661	46,099	60,071	23,750	22,323	8,972

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 18.—PRODUCTION OF SUMMER CROPS, 1947
(Unit: 1,000 piculs)

Province	Rice	Glutinous Rice	Kaoliang	Millet	Proso-Millet	Corn	Soy-beans	Sweet Potatoes	Cotton (Lint)	Peanuts	Sesame	Tobacco
Chahar.....	329	...	3,225	4,285	2,614	340	557	76	12
Suiyuan.....	126	56	1,157	1,149	2,569	157	357	27	5	90
Ningsia.....	143	270	696	43	70	..	2	..	1	..
Chinghai.....	361	388	10	45	27
Kansu.....	123	25	1,561	2,441	4,376	2,952	683	1,053	69	1
Shensi.....	2,773	395	1,578	3,858	1,950	4,924	810	2,695	1,031	288	387	343
Shansi.....	51	31	3,892	9,155	3,002	3,242	721	1,504	365	93	168	337
Hopei.....	1,564	790	17,335	35,495	4,388	28,122	5,650	29,538	2,656	9,050	1,957	416
Shantung.....	155	165	26,173	28,625	3,730	11,874	24,789	34,817	1,103	9,132	1,311	1,533
Kiangsu.....	93,384	12,062	8,382	1,486	390	13,792	24,269	24,541	2,535	4,603	974	54
Anhui.....	49,460	4,212	12,173	522	88	2,071	9,046	11,875	674	1,938	1,304	666
Honan.....	7,548	1,108	17,415	20,700	1,770	12,576	10,243	79,220	1,657	5,423	4,645	1,606
Hupch.....	56,666	3,991	3,590	3,055	62	4,906	4,054	15,197	2,574	2,363	2,045	310
Szechwan.....	122,923	5,844	12,787	1,005	204	29,516	8,851	61,716	1,645	5,088	1,273	2,499
Yunnan.....	28,677	2,008	363	234	44	4,760	3,196	3,025	74	176	27	488
Kweichow.....	20,726	2,034	424	439	141	6,007	2,053	3,811	151	519	99	1,969
Hunan.....	90,179	1,863	522	171	24	1,297	2,405	24,938	685	808	100	692
Kiangsi.....	80,744	4,593	148	542	21	250	3,696	16,424	758	4,251	805	372
Chekiang.....	74,682	8,393	174	307	39	2,364	3,976	16,062	748	443	100	478
Fukien.....	47,134	2,762	21	183	25	75	1,358	39,853	18	1,191	23	218
Kwangtung.....	136,505	3,120	99	323	49	544	998	66,840	9	4,593	48	350
Kwangsi.....	59,960	2,982	463	350	72	4,651	1,755	15,337	117	2,962	236	380
TOTAL.....	873,709	56,434	111,625	114,956	26,642	134,473	109,582	448,549	16,871	52,922	15,514	13,175

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 19.—NUMBER OF LIVESTOCK, 1945
(Unit: 1,000 head)

Province	Water Buffaloes	Oxen	Horses	Mules	Donkeys	Goats	Sheep	Hogs	Chickens	Ducks	Geese
Chahar.....
Suiyuan.....	..	31	10	5	36	130	282	39	188	6	1
Ningsia.....	..	32	24	19	51	189	350	66	226	9	2
Chinghai.....	2	570	96	88	516	1,332	2,464	585	2,464	116	19
Kansu.....	2	813	87	113	229	297	188	758	2,488	146	15
Shensi.....
Shansi.....
Hopei.....
Shantung.....
Kiangsu.....
Anhui.....	..	1,342	93	104	717	584	254	1,302	7,193	566	52
Honan.....	22	855	129	55	69	751	9	2,510	4,934	627	22
Hupeh.....	1,800	969	113	71	33	1,664	73	7,836	14,507	4,609	471
Szechwan.....	402	550	245	126	53	542	224	1,962	4,317	460	39
Yunnan.....	359	429	89	13	1	170	14	1,078	3,095	736	49
Kweichow.....	1,028	1,427	46	15	4	367	..	3,953	12,091	5,450	403
Hunan.....	637	1,268	30	7	9	58	6	3,205	15,229	6,103	1,096
Kiangsi.....	209	636	2	1	1	210	2	1,748	8,098	937	237
Chekiang.....	242	333	8	5	7	189	6	1,569	5,439	2,520	297
Fukien.....	1,474	1,360	16	3	3	280	10	3,083	15,313	6,207	1,188
Kwangtung.....	1,185	1,266	122	13	4	74	7	2,972	12,954	4,989	297
Kwangsi.....
TOTAL.....	7,656	11,881	1,110	638	1,733	6,837	3,889	32,666	108,536	33,481	4,188

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 20.—NUMBER OF LIVESTOCK, 1946
(Unit: 1,000 head)

Province	Water Buffaloes	Oxen	Horses	Mules	Donkeys	Goats	Sheep	Hogs	Chickens	Ducks	Geese
Chahar.....	..	51	29	27	71	142	289	105	607	20	4
Suiyuan.....	..	259	95	24	77	454	919	229	796	2	1
Ningsia.....	..	28	6	4	36	102	296	27	136	4	1
Chinghai.....	1	34	23	22	44	202	396	62	199	7	1
Kansu.....	2	535	100	98	469	1,356	2,064	611	2,354	112	22
Shensi.....	2	788	89	127	252	326	189	725	2,409	164	14
Shansi.....	3	441	74	153	383	1,397	1,432	429	2,963	36	4
Hopei.....	12	1,002	200	445	814	885	514	3,043	10,311	387	34
Shantung.....	9	2,216	205	434	1,381	816	710	2,851	16,335	1,852	242
Kiangsu.....	719	1,088	69	58	486	1,039	215	4,080	14,069	4,990	484
Anhwei.....	628	891	128	104	446	342	88	2,278	12,110	2,881	988
Honan.....	35	2,302	183	250	1,344	1,010	590	2,316	14,184	929	107
Hupei.....	473	1,727	192	83	224	1,258	24	3,928	11,480	1,450	115
Szechwan.....	1,818	1,033	115	78	35	1,820	106	8,184	15,606	4,907	721
Yunnan.....	408	555	251	136	57	605	204	2,189	4,611	415	43
Kweichow.....	405	519	99	16	2	132	23	1,292	3,507	722	80
Hunan.....	940	1,283	52	19	12	368	12	3,447	12,242	5,272	503
Kiangsi.....	707	1,204	18	6	4	118	4	2,939	14,511	5,945	1,098
Chiang.....	272	796	3	5	6	277	3	2,284	11,623	1,001	258
Fukien.....	223	320	9	6	3	194	5	1,445	5,140	2,137	192
Kwangtung.....	1,387	1,472	19	1	1	336	1	3,527	16,523	6,146	1,384
Kwangsi.....	1,136	1,284	96	18	3	70	3	2,558	13,268	5,279	202
TOTAL.....	9,180	19,828	2,055	2,114	6,150	13,249	8,087	48,549	184,984	44,658	6,498

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 21.—NUMBER OF LIVESTOCK, 1947
(Unit: 1,000 head)

Province	Water Buffaloes	Oxen	Horses	Mules	Donkeys	Goats	Sheep	Hogs	Chickens	Ducks	Geese
Chahar.....	..	48	23	23	53	62	162	195	601	10	4
Suiyuan.....	..	210	48	23	93	472	858	262	782	6	..
Ningsia.....	..	19	5	2	29	77	238	32	119	4	1
Chinghai.....	1	34	25	24	49	200	352	75	239	9	1
Kansu.....	9	639	112	100	568	1,566	2,472	685	2,279	129	40
Shensi.....	8	796	81	118	212	339	201	867	2,637	257	25
Shansi.....	4	311	101	288	379	1,029	1,540	646	2,462	44	4
Hopei.....	4	484	170	493	1,279	1,164	1,083	4,270	12,596	542	52
Shantung.....	6	2,083	231	166	1,989	1,160	900	2,083	17,424	1,870	272
Kiangsu.....	522	1,047	64	81	666	1,543	374	4,556	15,662	4,580	637
Anhui.....	660	752	84	71	469	348	21	2,716	12,030	3,063	1,493
Honan.....	57	2,420	225	277	1,403	1,032	546	2,569	14,274	953	127
Hupeh.....	875	1,776	159	80	293	880	31	4,760	15,134	1,153	129
Szechwan.....	1,778	995	121	66	42	1,494	95	8,614	15,934	4,516	526
Yunnan.....	412	558	278	130	61	616	190	2,145	4,707	441	45
Kweichow.....	406	548	107	17	13	188	19	1,258	3,636	798	75
Hunan.....	996	1,337	45	19	14	373	2	3,889	12,810	4,958	446
Kiangsi.....	712	1,298	24	6	9	150	7	3,223	15,028	5,648	953
Chekiang.....	293	695	5	7	6	340	78	2,327	12,226	1,879	551
Fukien.....	249	295	6	3	2	163	4	1,396	5,056	2,063	178
Kwantung.....	1,193	1,459	15	1	1	300	15	4,260	18,035	5,923	1,356
Kwangsi.....	1,135	1,194	110	12	7	113	3	2,930	13,078	5,526	329
TOTAL.....	9,320	18,998	2,039	2,007	7,637	13,609	9,191	53,758	196,743	44,372	7,244

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

Eighty percent of China's population derives its livelihood by tilling the soil. The nation as a whole obtains 98% of its food and the greatest part of its basic necessities from agriculture.

When the war ended, China found much of her lands devastated. There was a shortage of raw materials, and the communists were uniting to make rehabilitation and reconstruction difficult.

For agricultural reconstruction the following principles were followed: (1) restoration of the nation's original agricultural foundation, (2) application of science to agriculture, and (3) general increase of production.

The highest agricultural administrative organ was formerly the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, established in 1940. It had seven departments: agriculture, forestry, fishery, rural economy, animal husbandry, land reclamation, and general affairs. In March, 1949, the Ministry was merged into the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

RURAL RECONSTRUCTION

In 1946, a thorough appraisal of China's agricultural resources and problems was made by the China-United States Agricultural Mission, led by Dean C. B. Hutchinson, head of the U. S. section of the mission, and agricultural experts appointed by the Chinese Government. The Sino-American agricultural cooperation went one step further when an agreement for the establishment of a Sino-American Commission on Rural Reconstruction in China* was concluded in August, 1948.

The following is a review of postwar agricultural conditions for the period, 1945-1948.**

FOOD PRODUCTION

Food Production Programs.—Up to March, 1949, the National Agricultural Extension Commission under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry was responsible for the demonstration and introduction to the farmers of improved seeds, agricultural tools, and chemicals for insect control, and for providing necessary technical assistance and guidance.

1. *National Service Divisions*—The commission had six such divisions in 1946 and 1947. By the summer of 1948, nine more divisions had been set up, covering a total extension area of 6,071.35 *shih mow*. Their working program in-

cluded improvement of the tea industry, insect control and the reclamation program for war-devastated areas.

2. *Strengthening of Extension Organizations at Provincial and Hsien Levels*—The extension programs in the various provinces are carried out by agents of the National Commission. By June, 1948, extension offices had been established in the following 17 provinces: Kiangsu, Hupeh, Anhwei, Kweichow, Shansi, Kwangtung, Szechwan, Yunnan, Shensi, Chekiang, Fukien, Hunan, Kwangsi, Honan, Kansu, Kiangsi and Shantung. The commission also sent agents to Hopei, Chahar and Taiwan.

Establishment of *hsien* extension offices was encouraged despite financial stringencies. There were 627 in 1947, but only 581 in June, 1948.

3. *Farmers' Associations*—Below the *hsien* level, most of the extension work has been done through local farmers' associations. By the end of 1947, there were 34 provincial farmers' associations, 1,271 *hsien* farmers' associations, and 17,775 *hsiang* farmers' associations, with a total membership of 15,548,315.

4. *Establishment of Agricultural Extension Demonstration Centers*—These centers serve a threefold purpose: (1) to demonstrate effective methods in extension work, (2) to provide extension workers with in-service training, and (3) to conduct training classes for prospective extension workers. By June, 1948, such demonstration centers had been set up in Nanking, Wukiang, and Pa Kua Chou, an islet in the Yangtze near Nanking. Later, another center was organized in Chekiang.

Increasing of Food Production—The extension program's insect control and agricultural rehabilitation aided in increasing China's food production in 1946 and 1947. Besides helping to restore production in the coastal areas, efforts were made to step up harvests in Hupeh, Hunan, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Szechwan, and Shensi. Technical staffs and agricultural supplies were sent to 16 provinces to help expedite the rehabilitation program.

Despite floods in Canton and Hunan and communist disturbances in the north, the production of crops in 1947 was upped 1.6% over that of 1946. This still was 1.9% below prewar average. But wheat production showed a 7% increase over prewar production and sweet potatoes a 30% increase. Rice, kaoliang, millet, oats, barley and soybeans fell below their prewar marks.

* For details of this agreement, see Chapter on Foreign Affairs.

** For information on land reform and development of irrigation, see Chapters on Land and on Water Conservancy.

Locust Control and Experiments—The control of locust was carried out by the Agricultural Extension Commission in accordance with orders of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, with the co-operation of the provincial agricultural organizations. During 1946 and 1947, a total of 217 piculs of egg masses was dug up, and more than 67,000 piculs of hoppers, and 25,000 piculs of adults were destroyed. More than 13,800,000 *shih mow* of land were saved from locust ravage and 13,800,000 piculs of foodstuffs from loss. The table on Page 551 shows the locust control program of 1947.

The studies on locust outbreaks began early in 1934 and were continued up to 1949. This pest may be found in 10 provinces. Its breeding grounds were found largely along the coast, lake shores, swamps, alkali land, and uncultivated areas. Research by the National Agricultural Research Bureau found sodium fluosilicate bran bait quite effective, hence it has been widely used in the recent campaign in north Anhwei and Honan. The use of "Gammexane" in bait has also brought successful results. Recent studies of this insecticide in powder form show even greater promise.

Agricultural Rehabilitation Program—Because of floods, the farmers in north Kiangsu, Hopei, and Shantung, were in urgent need of relief and rehabilitation aid. In 1947, the government appropriated funds and sent out rural rehabilitation teams to help them. The acreage thus far recovered total 6,336 *shih mow*.

In the spring of 1948, the government purchased 40 piculs of seeds to be loaned to farmers for the rehabilitation of 2,026 *shih mow* of land. They also received as loans more than 370 piculs of improved seeds purchased from Peiping and Tientsin. CNRRA's gifts of improved seeds also benefited the farmers of the flooded areas.

In 1946, the provinces of Anhwei and Kiangsu received 16,340 piculs of improved seeds loaned to 14 of their *hsien* for the reclamation of 144,290 *shih mow* of land. The next year 25,836 *shih mow* of flooded areas along the Yangtze river were reclaimed and planted with 109,269 kg. of improved seeds. Flooded areas of northern Anhwei received more than 500,000 kg. of improved seeds, benefiting 11 *hsien*, which had an acreage of more than 200,000 *shih mow*. Kwangtung's farmers were loaned 795,176 kg. of improved seeds.

Agricultural Research on Rice, Wheat and Other Crops—This was undertaken by the National Agricultural Research

Bureau, established in 1932, in conjunction with the provincial organizations. A description of their experiments follows:

RICE

Propagation—Through selection, the rice department of the bureau has produced six promising strains adaptable for southwest China: two for the Yangtze valley, one for central Kwangsi, two for Kweichow and one for Yunnan. Distribution of the seeds for those improved rice strains begun in 1935, covered more than 200,000 *mow* when hostilities with Japan started. By May, 1948, some 5-million *mow* were under cultivation.

Experimenting with existing varieties—Many farmer's varieties are high yielders and have desirable characteristics. From 1935 to May, 1948, seven provinces, Kiangsu, Anhwei, Hunan, Szechwan, Kwangsi, Kweichow and Yunnan, have planted more than 1-million *mow* of the selected varieties, and reaped an increase of 5 to 15% over the average yield.

Cultivation studies—The rice department has obtained the following results from its cultivation experimentation:

(1) In Kiangsu, experiments on methods of transplanting have shown that fewer seedlings per till with closer spacing give a higher yield than the average practice.

(2) The practice of inter-cropping an early with a late variety so that two crops can be grown on the same field simultaneously has been successfully worked out in Hunan and Szechwan.

(3) The method of growing "ratoon rice," which gives a second heading after the first is harvested, was introduced successfully in Szechwan.

(4) "Double-cropping," introduced in Kaiyuan, Yunnan, produced favorable results.

Regional tests—These tests were designed to determine which regions in China were best adapted to rice cultivation, using the growth period, heading stage, and yield as criteria. A seed exchange plan between the provinces was also worked out. Since 1936, the rice department has started the following regional tests:

(1) 1936-1939—28 stations in 12 provinces.

(2) 1940-1942—5 stations in 5 southwestern provinces.

(3) 1942-1944—"inter-cropping" and "double-cropping" at 12 stations in 5 provinces.

(4) 1942-1944—Experiments on late varieties at 8 stations in 5 provinces.

TABLE 22.—LOCUST CONTROL IN THREE PROVINCES, 1947

Province	Acreage Infested (<i>shih mou</i>)		Acreage Damaged (<i>shih mou</i>)		Elimination of Summer Locust (picul)			Elimination of Autumn Locust (picul)			Total		
	Summer Locust	Autumn Locust	Summer Locust	Autumn Locust	Egg Masses Dug	Hoppers Destroyed	Adults Destroyed	Egg Masses Dug	Hoppers Destroyed	Adults Destroyed	Egg Masses Dug	Hoppers Destroyed	Adults Destroyed
Anhui.....	266,250	..	1,950	..	171.61	10,313.18	379.56	17,161.75	1,031,318.6	37,956.0
Kiangsu.....	1,351	..	60,250	778.41	77,841.0	..
Honan.....	1,219,763	3,750,000	190	2,100	..	19,163.96	1,412.63	..	14,054.56	2,936.14	..	3,321,852.7	434,877.8
GRAND TOTAL...	1,487,364	3,750,000	62,390	2,100	171.61	30,255.55	1,792.19	..	14,054.56	2,936.14	17,161.75	4,431,012.3	472,833.8

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

(5) 1942-1944—Tests on upland rice at 6 stations in 5 provinces.

(6) Nationwide tests on improved rice strains at 23 stations in 16 provinces, started in 1946. In May, 1948, these tests were still in progress.

Grading and inspection—The bureau started its research work on the grading of rice in 1935, in cooperation with the College of Agriculture of National Central University. Unpolished and polished rice grown in Hunan, Kiangsi and Anhwei provinces were the objects under study in 1935 and 1936. Inspection offices, sponsored jointly by the provincial governments and the bureau, were established in these three provinces in 1936. In all, 2,785,015 piculs of rice were inspected in 1936 and 1937. After war started, the inspection work was suspended, but experiments on grading were continued in the southwestern provinces. The work was resumed in the lower Yangtze valley since cessation of hostilities.

Investigations on rice borers—The so-called rice borers—the paddy borer, the striped borer, and the purplish stem borer—cause enormous losses to the rice crop every year. Methods to exterminate them began in 1933 and were still in progress in 1949. The accumulated data may be summarized as follows:

(1) The most effective way to eliminate this pest is to burn the infested stubbles or to bury the stubbles thus killing the larvae. Their egg-masses must also be destroyed. This may be done by planting tobacco stems in the infested field in the late summer and autumn.

(2) Late varieties of rice are more susceptible than the earlier varieties. For this reason, the early-mature varieties are recommended for certain areas.

(3) From 1935 to 1948, campaigns to bring the rice-borers under control conducted by the bureau, the Commission for the Promotion of Agriculture Production and the local authorities in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Hunan and Szechwan, have covered an area of over 4-million *mow* of rice fields, resulting in an increase in production estimated at 4-million hectolitres.

(4) The newly developed synthetic insecticides were tested in 1948. More than 80% of newly hatched larvae were killed by cryolite, Gammexane, wettable DDT, and Black Leaf 40.

WHEAT

Study of wheat regions.—Regional tests of wheat were begun in 1932 and concluded in 1940. The largest winter wheat producing regions in China are: (1)

Yangtze river valley, (2) Hwai river valley, (3) along the eastern section of the Lunghai railway, (4) Wei river valley, (5) northern Shantung and Honan, and (6) Hopei and Shansi.

The spring wheat regions lie north of the Great Wall and stretch southwestward through Sikang province.

Propagation by selection—Of the 1,700 varieties listed in "Percival's Collection of World Wheat Varieties," an Italian variety, Miltarum, which outyields the local variety by 18 to 38%, and is highly resistant to stripe rust and loose smut, was selected for cultivation in the Yangtze river valley under the name "National 28."

Selection of native varieties was carried out in Shensi and Nanking.

Germinating by hybridization—Based on the results of 10 years' testing, 14 hybrid strains were selected for regional adaptation tests in 1941. These tests were carried out at 35 cooperative stations in 13 provinces. Of the 14 strains developed, four have proved to be highly adaptable in the Yangtze river and Hwai river valleys. Besides being superior in yield, quality, loose smut and stripe rust resistance, stiffness of straw and early maturity, the strain Liying No. 1 (National 166) outyields the local varieties by 12 to 49%; the strain Liying No. 3 (National 609), by 19 to 28%; and the strain Liying No. 6 (National 62) by 13 to 40%. The wide adaptability of Liying No. 1 in 11 out of 13 provinces and the stability of its yield in different seasons deserve special consideration. The yield of the strain Liying No. 4 (National 483) is about the same as that of the local variety but it matures as early as barley. Thus it fits well into the rotation system in the cotton and rice area of the Yangtze river valley, where an early maturing variety of wheat is in urgent demand. Hundreds of other promising hybrid lines have been selected for further test or experimentation.

Stripe and leaf rust resistance tests—Tests conducted for 12 years showed that the foreign varieties in general are more resistant to stripe and leaf rusts than the domestic. Less than 1% of Chinese wheat varieties have been found resistant to both rusts.

Scab resistance tests—Three years' work on 41 varieties, including the improved and well-known farmer's choices, conducted in Kweichow and Szechwan, indicates that (1) R. G. Shands' method of inoculation with slight modification works very effectively; (2) among all varieties tested only one, (Maodinghomai)

is immune to wheat scab; (3) the pathogenicity of the scab fungus collected from the corn (maize) ears is proven to be identical with that from the scabby wheat heads, and (4) the color of chaff is found to correlate highly with the degree of resistance. All except one red-chaffed variety are highly resistant, while all but one white-chaffed variety are highly susceptible. It is assumed, then, that the genes in the chaff and scab resistance are closely linked. Future research work in this field will be concentrated on the inheritance of wheat scab resistance and the production of immune or highly resistant strains having other desirable characteristics.

Extension of improved varieties—Widespread use of improved varieties has been one of the essential projects of the department of wheat, but this work is now carried out largely by the National Extension Service and the provincial agricultural improvement institutions. The results of the bureau's wheat department extension work may be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 23.—EXTENSION OF IMPROVED VARIETIES, MAY, 1948

Name of Varieties	Region of Extension	Area Covered (mow)
Nanking 2905.....	Yangtze River Valley	308,000
Nanking 2905.....	Hwai River Valley	208,000
U. N. Nansuchow 61.....	Hwai River Valley	150,000
U. N. Kaifeng 124.....	Eastern Section Lunghai Railway Line	55,000
Blue-awn.....	Wei River Valley	779,000
Shensi 7.....	Wei River Valley	451,000
National 28.....	Yangtze River Valley	54,000
Others.....		196,000

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

Grading and Inspection—Wheat produced in the Yellow river valley is white and hard. Those varieties grown in the Yangtze river valley are red and soft, while those from the Hwai river valley are of medium hardness. Wheat produced in Shantung and Honan has the highest test weight (about 59 lbs. per bushel). Hupeh grain rates highest in adulteration, followed by that from Kiangsu and Anhwei. As for the water content, determining its adaptability for storage and marketing, it has been found that 14.5% and 15.0% represent the maximum for soft and hard wheat respectively under China's climatic conditions. Thus far, the experiments have stressed the commercial aspects of wheat and its inspection.

Classification of Wheat Varieties—About 2,000 Chinese wheat varieties have been collected in the two-year period, 1946-1948, for cultivation in the experimental farms at Nanking and Peiping. They are being classified primarily according to their morphological characteristics.

Genetic Studies—The wheat department has crossed many varieties to study their heading traits, yield, and resistance to stripe and leaf rusts and flag smut. The number of genes suggests their resistance to rusts and flag smut. Experiments showed the existence of transgressive inheritance and also the desirability of genetic diversity in crosses between Chinese and foreign varieties of *triticum vulgare*.

Experiments on Cultivation—In 1948, tests on rate and date of seeding were conducted at Peipeh in Szechwan and in Nanking. Four-years' experimentation showed that to seed the early maturing varieties in December and January brings higher yields than in October or November. On the other hand, it is de-

sirable, within fairly wide limits, to seed the late maturing varieties as early as possible. For the rate of seeding, from 10 catties to 14 catties per mow made but little difference to the yield. An experiment on the interrelated effects on the yield of wheat of nitrogenous fertilizers and the time of irrigation was in process at Wukung, Shensi, in 1948.

SPECIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS CROPS

Corn (maize) Experiments—The corn improvement work was started in 1948 in Kwangsi, Kweichow, Shensi, Szechwan, Hunan and Yunnan. More than 600 farmers' species and 92 American hybrid corn varieties have been collected. After several years trial, none of the

local varieties was found worthy of development. The 42 hybrids, introduced in 1938 and tested in Kweichow, Szechwan, Kwangsi and Yunnan provinces, also failed to show a significant gain over the best farmers' variety. The other 50 hybrid varieties were introduced in 1943 and were under observation in Szechwan and Shensi. Some show promise of good yield performance, but they are relatively slow in maturing.

Inbreeding work with native corn varieties has been carried out at Liuchow, Kiangsi, since 1938 and at Wukung, Shensi, since 1940. Several inbred lines have been obtained and top, single and double crosses have been made and tested. Some of the double crosses seem to be very promising.

Forty-four American hybrid varieties were introduced into China through UNRRA in 1947. The bureau has been conducting regional tests in seven localities to determine their adaptability to the various regions.

For future corn improvement work, emphasis will be on the development of inbred lines of high combining ability not only in yield performance but also in early maturity and other agronomic characters.

Soybean Experiments—These were begun at Wukung, Shensi, in 1942. Twenty-one varieties, both improved and local ones, were tested to compare their yield and quality. During the two-year experiment, several promising varieties were obtained. The hybridization tests aimed chiefly at combining the yellow seed-coat character with the high yielding traits of some dark-seed-coated varieties which were customarily marked at lower prices. A special technique to pollinate the soybean flowers under dry weather conditions was perfected after numerous trials. The hybrids under tests at present include F_2 and F_1 plants.

A study of the desirability of intercropping corn with soybean indicates that this system would produce a higher total yield per unit area but the growth and yield of the corn would be impaired. Experiments with the Chinese soybean show that the early maturity of the varieties increases towards the north because of their response toward photoperiod and temperature. This would limit the introduction of soybean varieties from one region to another.

Rapeseed Experiments—Research work on rapeseed was carried out in Kweichow and Szechwan. Local varieties were collected from the southwestern provinces and were tested for three years beginning

1938. The work started with the study of the effect of selfing and variety trials. It was found that the so-called rapeseed in China really belongs to two distinct groups: China Colza (*Brassica Campestris*) and mustards (*B. cerma* and *B. juncea*). They differ in seed-setting after selfing, yield and maturity. After selfing, the mustards set normal seeds and do not show reduction in vigor, while the colza does not set seeds well and decline in vigor. The study of the effect of selfing has been continued to determine the best methods of breeding. Tests have shown that Rudien No. 1 (Mustard) and Ping-yuh No. 2 (Chinese Colza) are superior in both yield and oil content as compared with the local farmers' varieties of Kweichow and Yungchung. In the last two years, the work has largely concentrated at Nanking. Hundreds of farmers' varieties have been collected and tested. Some varieties such as Liyang Golden show promising signs in yield performance. In the present program of rapeseed breeding, more attention will be paid to maturity and oil content as well as to yield.

Sugar Cane Experiments—Work on sugar cane has been carried out at Liuchow, Kwangsi during the past four years. POJ-234, POJ-2878 and CO-290 show good tonnage production and sucrose content. Cultivation and fertilizer tests have also been conducted on new plants and ratoons.

The bureau's technical staff has gathered data on sugar cane cultivation in Szechwan, Hunan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Kweichow and Yunnan.

Investigations on Fiber Crops other than Cotton—Experiments on this line have been largely devoted to testing varieties of jute, to making botanical observations of fiber crops and to making stripping tests of ramie, hemp and jute. South China is the region under study.

COTTON PRODUCTION

The Cotton Production Administration was established in January, 1947, to increase the supply of raw cotton, mainly for home consumption, and to help the farmers improve their crops. It maintained 33 local offices and 18 cottonseed farms in the 12 provinces of the "Cotton Belt."

Distribution of Improved Seeds—By the end of 1947, the administration had distributed to the farmers 4,000 tons of improved cotton seeds, of which 3,000 tons were obtained from UNRRA. These seeds, which were mostly American varieties especially adaptable to

China, were loaned to approximately 176,000 farms covering about 1-million *shih mow*.

Increasing the Improved Seeds—The 18 seed farms maintained by the administration have been increasing the quantity of the pure and improved seeds. The areas of these farms total about 5,000 *shih mow*. A plan was under way to increase the size and number of these farms.

Pest and Cotton-Disease Control—An experiment using fungicides and insecticides in the control of cotton-disease and insect-pests has been carried out by the local offices of the administration. Specialists were employed to spray these chemicals for the farmers. The Farmers' Bank of China has been responsible for the loan of the insecticides and spraying machines. In 1947, over 1,500,000 *shih mow* were under insect-control.

Financial Farm Loans to Cotton Producers—The administration helped to organize the cotton farmers and obtain loans for them from the Farmers' Bank of China.

Establishment of Public Power Ginneries—During 1947, a total of 18 public power ginneries were set up in various centers. These consist of roller gins of domestic make, driven by engines furnished by UNRRA. Altogether there were 340 gin stands.

Cotton Inspection—The administration established five offices in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Hupeh, Honan and Shensi, with branches in various cotton marketing centers for two purposes:

(1) Inspection to discourage adulteration by water or other foreign matter.

(2) Cotton grading, which benefits the cotton mills and the buyers.

The following table shows the cotton production in 1946 and 1947:

TABLE 24.—ACREAGE AND PRODUCTION OF COTTON, 1946 AND 1947

Province	Acreage in 1,000 <i>shih mow</i>		Cotton (Lint) in 1,000 piculs	
	1946	1947	1946	1947
Hopei.....	3,826	5,339	1,148	1,430
Shantung.....	2,707	3,405	623	1,060
Shansi.....	651	660	176	178
Honan.....	2,574	4,310	670	1,126
Shensi.....	2,370	3,020	711	900
Hupei.....	5,935	7,185	1,721	2,431
Hunan.....	897	1,170	224	430
Kiangsi.....	216	277	50	82
Anhui.....	604	952	121	231
Kiangsu.....	5,133	6,828	1,129	1,920
Chekiang.....	1,053	1,520	190	456
Szechwan.....	2,733	3,447	437	607
Liaoning.....	719	960	230	240
TOTAL.....	29,418	39,073	7,430	11,091

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

Experiments on Cotton—Research work on cotton has been carried out by the National Agricultural Research Bureau along the following lines:

Study of Cotton Regions—The accumulated knowledge of cotton variety tests show that the most adaptable lands are found in the Yellow river valley, the Yangtze river valley and the southwestern region. Each has its own climatic peculiarities, and no variety raised

in one region can be introduced into another without difficulties. It has been found that Stoneville-4 is best suited for the Yellow river valley and Delfos-531 to the Yangtze river valley.

Breeding Work—(1) Cyrtosis disease of upland cotton is very serious in the Yangtze river valley. Breeding for resistant varieties has been carried on for five years.

(2) By hybridization, a strain named "Chicken-foot-Delfos" has been obtained which possesses the insect-resistant narrow-lobed leaves of "Chicken-foot" and the yielding ability and qualities of Delfos.

(3) Two new strains of Delfos-531 (24-424 and 24-1099) obtained by selfed line selection have shown decided advantage over the original ones in both yield and staple length.

Studies on Yunnan Perennial Cotton—Tests have shown that the Yunnan perennial cotton belongs to *Gossypium barbadense*; through the efforts of the bureau this cotton is now grown extensively in southern Yunnan. Cotton with attached seeds (kidney cotton) also exists in Yunnan and Sikang, but it has no economic value.

Maintenance of Selfed Line Seeds—Selfed line seeds of over 2,000 strains are being produced and multiplied at various centers under the bureau's management.

Experiments on Cultivation and other Studies—(1) Factorial experiments show that manuring increases yield and shortens the growth period, while topping, pruning and ridge making have no significant effect on the yield.

(2) Available data show that too much irrigation delays maturity and reduces yield. Irrigation is most needed at the flowering stage.

(3) The yield of lint cotton is determined by number of bolls. The number of bolls matured is negatively correlated with the percentage of rotten locks.

(4) Growth studies of eight varieties of Chinese cotton and 10 varieties of American upland cotton have been carried out at Suining, Szechwan, for three years. The results may be briefly summarized as follows:

a. American cotton grows faster during the early period of growth, while Chinese cotton grows faster during the later period.

b. The curves of maximum boll opening and of maximum flowering usually coincide with each other.

c. The curves of maximum boll opening and of maximum flowering usually coincide with each other.

d. The average time required for the Chinese cotton bolls to mature is 35 to 42 days, while that of the American cotton bolls is 40 to 46 days.

e. The percentage of rotten bolls is positively correlated with the length of

time required for bolls to reach maturity. Therefore, American cotton has usually the greater number of rotten bolls.

Heredity Studies of Cotton—(1) The hereditary behavior of anthocyanin in Chinese cotton has been studied for several years. Formerly, 14 types of this character were found to be involved. By 1942, another six types were added to the list.

(2) Seven types of yellowish green seedlings, eight of leaf forms and one of yellow cotyledons were found in American cotton; their hereditary behavior has been thoroughly studied.

(3) Hybrids of Chinese and American cotton were back-crossed to their parents. Those back-crossed to American species produced progenies similar to American cotton, and those back-crossed to Chinese cotton produced progenies similar to Chinese cotton, but in 1948, several characters, not possessed by both parents, were being segregated.

Insect Pest Investigations on Cotton—Studies on the cotton pest, initiated in 1934 by the former Central Cotton Improvement Institute, were taken over by the bureau when the two organizations were merged. Principal findings were:

(1) Cotton aphids can be controlled by spraying either by a tobacco extract or vegetable oil emulsion.

(2) Red spiders may be exterminated by a spray of thin flour paste or vegetable oil emulsion.

(3) Cutworms may be eliminated by grass hill trapping.

(4) For cotton leaf-hoppers an effective spray consists of lime sulfur or Bordeaux mixture.

(5) Diamond boll worm can be controlled by dipping the cotton leaves in a calcium arsenate or lead arsenate solution.

(6) Cotton leaf rollers can be exterminated by spraying with a lead arsenate suspension, using a specially designed wooden crusher.

Most of the methods developed and tested by the bureau were readily adopted by the farmers. By May, 1948, about 3-million *mow* of cotton had been treated resulting in an increase of more than 20,000 m. tons of seed cotton.

SILK PRODUCTION

For the rehabilitation of China's silk industry, heavily damaged during the war, a determined effort has been directed toward improving mulberry planting methods, the introduction of better silkworm eggs and the extension of

financial aid to the farmers. Such activities have been carried out by the China Silk Corporation, a postwar organization especially established to aid in the rebuilding of the silk industry.

The government's policy on the protection of silk farmers and the development of industry as jointly formulated by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the Ministry of Economic Affairs in April, 1947, calls for:

(1) The standardization of cocoon prices.

(2) The introduction of a system of joint collection of cocoons by districts. Silk merchants shall be appointed to supervise the cocoon collecting, the prevention of competitive buying, and the demarcation of cocoon-collecting districts.

(3) The allowance of marginal profits for silk merchants.

(4) The assuming by the national treasury of the financial responsibility in case of loss sustained in the sale and purchase of silk and cocoons.

The silk-producing districts in China are in Kwangtung, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Szechwan, and Yunnan. The activities carried out by the China Silk Corporation in these districts during 1946-1947 are as follows:

Mulberry Seedlings—A total of 45-million mulberry seedlings were distributed free to farmers and 1,300,000 grafted trees sold to farmers for spring planting. In addition, assistance was given to the nurseries in grafting 25-million trees, and to the farmers in transplanting 55-million trees.

Mulberry Orchards — In 1947, the farmers' enthusiastic response resulted in a marked improvement in planting and in the use of fertilizer. This was due in part to increased returns from the mulberry orchards because of choice seedlings. The increased yield in leaves in 1947 was 35%.

Silkworm Eggs—Only 1-million sheets (10 grams each) of silkworm eggs were produced during 1946, and 30,000 sheets had to be imported from Japan. Aside from the Japanese eggs, most of these bred locally were of the old variety and gave only a poor yield. In 1947, the native eggs totalled 1,700,000 sheets and were largely of an improved variety, resulting in a much greater yield.

Raw Silk—The total raw silk produced in 1946, including native silk, amounted to 30,000 piculs, of which about 13,000 piculs were exported. In

1947, the production increased to 43,000 piculs of which 11,000 piculs were exported.

Financing and Loans—The government's ruling in 1947 fixing the price of one picul of fresh cocoon at four piculs of rice for purchases made by government agencies met with the full approval of the silk farmers. The filature owners thereby were able to purchase cocoons at the official rate and sell their raw silk wherever they could. In addition, they could also undertake to reel raw silk for the government-owned cocoons at reasonable production costs paid by the government agencies on final delivery of the raw silk.

Substantial loans have been extended by the government to silk farmers before they harvest their cocoons, and to filature owners for purchasing cocoons. Such loans have been aimed at helping silk farmers not only in pursuing their own trades but in establishing a steady-effect upon the silk industry.

Sericulture — (1) Breeding work — The principles underlying the breeding of silkworms are similar to those of corn propagation. The F_1 hybrid eggs are used for distribution to the farmers. The breeding of silkworms was begun in 1931. In 1937, a new variety called "yellow skin silkworm," a variety resistant to many diseases and to high temperature, was obtained. The yield of cocoon is 14% higher than the other improved varieties. The percentage of coque of cocoons is 20% as compared with 17% in the cocoons of Chakwie, the check variety used in this experiment.

(2) Studies of *Antheraea Pernyi* — The *Antheraea Pernyi* or "wild silkworm," which thrives on *Quercus*, was formerly of great economic value. The National Agricultural Research Bureau has found that storing eggs of this type of silkworm at a temperature of from 0°C. to 5°C. for 75 days induces hatching. The eggs of the spring worms after such treatment can be used for the autumn crop.

(3) Studies of silkworm diseases and parasites — (A) Eggs of the Polyvoltine fly laid on the body of the silkworm usually caused great loss to the silk industry. The menace is now removed following the discovery that spraying the silkworm with a one percent solution of bleaching powder will immediately destroy eggs of the Polyvoltine fly. (B) A powder-form germicide has been developed for the checking of Mascaridine disease, another menace to

the industry. There is a large demand for this powder every year. Another new variety, "3011A," was developed in 1944. The F₁ hybrid of this new variety and the "bi-voltine, yellow-skin silkworm" have been synthesized and their eggs have already been distributed for commercial cocoon production. The double-cross method has been adapted to silkworm breeding. From results so far obtained, double-crossed lines are superior in many respects to the single-crossed ones.

TEA, TOBACCO, TUNG OIL

TEA PRODUCTION

Tea production in China suffered a decline during the war, the 1946 yield being less than one-tenth that of 1937. Although the condition improved in 1947, there was still no rapid comeback, except in Taiwan province.

The factors that contribute to the slow recovery are war damage, including its effect on consumption and production, shortage of farm labor and high wages, lack of funds, and variations in foreign exchange.

At the request of tea merchants, the Farmers' Bank of China was appointed in 1946 to make tea loans to cover unfilled tea purchases, manufacturing, and export.

TOBACCO PRODUCTION

China's tobacco production has been of considerable importance to the nation's tax revenue. According to the Ministry of Finance, the 1946 tobacco tax amounted to slightly over 55% of the entire commodity tax revenue. In 1947, commodity taxes represented about one-third of the country's total taxation.

The Tobacco Development Institute, estimated in 1947 that China produces annually 155-million pounds of flue-cured tobacco, but consumes 200-million pounds. Thus she must import 45-million pounds from foreign countries every year.

Results achieved by the improvement program thus far are:

(1) Seed multiplication—From 1947 to 1948, a total of 3,000 *shih mow* of improved seed crops were harvested.

(2) Extension work—The extension area utilizing improved seeds in 1948 covered 550,000 *shih mow* of land, with an anticipated production of 1-million piculs of improved tobacco.

(3) Credit loans to tobacco growers—Loans for purchasing coal used in curing leaves were made to farmers through the joint efforts of the Tobacco

TABLE 25.—ESTIMATED TEA PRODUCTION—1946 AND 1947
(Unit: 1,000 Kilograms)

	1946	1947
Black Tea:		
Chimen Congou.....	750	800
Foochow Congou.....	120	300
Taiwan Black.....	2,250	2,500
Others.....	230	450
	3,350	4,050
Green Tea:		
Tunshi Green.....	1,000	1,100
Pingsui Green.....	2,300	2,200
Others.....	100	200
	3,400	3,500
Colong and Pouchong:		
Colong.....	500	600
Pouchong.....	1,200	1,250
	1,700	1,850
GRAND TOTALS.....	8,450	9,400

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

Development Institute and the Farmers' Bank of China.

(4) Research work—This includes insect control, experiments on germination, and fertilizer tests. The experimental work centered in Kweichow and Szechwan. Since 1942, the best American and the best local varieties have been collected and tested. For flue-curing types, Virginia Bright Leaf, Nanyang and Shantung Golden Yellow have shown the most promise in both yield and quality. As for cigar types, Havana has shown excellent results in quality, and Broad Leaf and Connecticut Broad Leaf do well in yield.

Of the insect pests, the tobacco budworm and an aphid have been found to be the most destructive. Large scale control measures are being practiced in Hunan through the joint efforts of the Department of Entomology and Plant Pathology, and the Tobacco Improvement Bureau to check them.

TUNG OIL PRODUCTION

Tung oil production, which was 136,000 m. tons in 1933-37, and 51,000 m. tons in 1945, has been on the increase since V-J Day. The following shows production for two later periods:

TABLE 26.—TUNG OIL PRODUCTION IN CHINA
(Unit: Metric ton)

Province	1946-1947	1947-1948
Szechwan.....	19,000	26,000
Hunan.....	15,000	20,000
Kwangsi.....	7,000	12,000
Hupei.....	6,000	11,000
Chekiang.....	3,000	4,000
Other provinces.....	5,000	7,000
TOTAL.....	55,000	80,000

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry has devised a plan to rehabilitate the industry, among its objectives are:

(1) Survey and reclaim the tung oil producing districts.

(2) Subdivide the tung oil producing districts for a more effective plantation form program.

(3) Establish experimental centers.

(4) Improve the oil pressing process.

(5) Conduct an extension program to educate the producers on improved methods.

Experimentation on Tung Oil Trees—The research work on tung oil trees consists of the following:

(1) *Studies of tung tree varieties*—By May, 1948, the Tung Research Station at Peipeh, Szechwan had 580 strains of tung trees. These were collected from various tung growing regions in China for their high yielding qualities or other desirable characteristics. Based on material collected so far, a system of classification with the species *Aleuritis fordii* Hemsl has been working out.

(2) *Tung tree propagation*—Up to 1948, a total of 3,000 crosses between

varieties of *Aleuritis fordii* and about 2,000 plants of different varieties and age groups had been collected for propagation purposes and for study of certain taxonomic characters. Meanwhile, the hybrid seeds have begun to bear. At the Tung Research Station, seeds of more than 350 strains were planted for a study of their productive qualities.

(3) *Experiments on the cultivation of tung trees*—These were conducted along the following lines:

(A) Method and date of grafting. A successful method of grafting and the proper time for the operation were worked out by the Bureau. Tung as a fruit tree should be grafted, and especially so the dioecious *Aleuritis Montana*.

(B) Date of seeding. Seeds sown from November to February give better seedlings. Seedlings do not develop well when planted after March in Peipeh.

(C) Topping of young plants. Topping of young plant induces branching; young plants so treated give a high yield in the first few years.

**TABLE 27.—INCREASE OF TUNG OIL STORAGE FACILITIES
OVER JULY, 1946, CAPACITY
(Unit: Metric Ton)**

Locality	July, 1946	December, 1947	Net Increase
Shanghai.....	5,600	10,400	4,800
Hankow.....	3,400	7,750	4,350
Ichang.....	580	890	310
Wanhhsien.....	4,100	4,900	800
Chungking.....	2,450	3,290	840
Changsha.....	280	730	450
Changteh.....	470	1,430	960
Foochow.....	430	730	300
Canton.....	120	320	200
TOTAL.....	17,430	30,440	13,010

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

(D) Fertilizer tests. Fertilizer tests were started in Kwangsi in 1940 but were interrupted by the war. Another set of fertilizer tests were carried out at Peipeh in 1943. By 1948, no conclusions had yet been reached.

(E) Girdling of branches. This is one of the methods used for the prevention of alternate bearing. Branches were treated to various methods of girdling and at different dates. The girdled branches were found to bear more female flowers than the untreated ones.

(4) *The study of natural hybridization in tung trees*—A study of the time of flowering and the formation of the male and female blossoms of the species *Aleuritis fordii* has shown that this species is easily cross pollinated under the natural conditions.

(5) *The investigations of the physiology of tung trees*—(A) Studies on alternate bearing. Tests have shown that in addition to the climatic factors, the fruiting habit of the plant and

cultivation practice contribute greatly to the occurrence of this phenomenon.

(B) Studies on the effect of temperature on the flowering and shedding of tung flowers. The tung flower will not open when the temperature is below 15 degrees Centigrade. The time elapsed between opening and shedding is indirectly correlated with the temperature.

(C) Studies on the growth curve of tung branches. The elongation of branches of tung trees under different growth conditions was studied. The general forms of the curves were much the same, whereas the total increase of growth was greater in the young and vigorous plants.

(6) *Investigations on insect pests of tung trees*—Studies on insect pests of tung trees show that the tung tree scarabaeid could be effectively controlled by spraying with calcium arsenate at a concentration of 1:300. Tilling the soil around the roots of the trees is also effective in destroying the beetle larvae.

CHAPTER 25

FOOD

In China the term "food" in its approved sense denotes rice, wheat, barley, kaoliang, corn, potatoes and other starch-containing crops. Of these, rice and wheat which are most generally used and most essential, are called major crops. The others, either because their production is limited to certain areas or their consumption is confined to certain localities, are regarded as supplementary food, and are generally called miscellaneous crops.

All these crops constitute the daily food of the Chinese population and are therefore called staples. Meat, vegetable oils, fats, salt and sugar, although equally essential from a nutritional viewpoint, are regarded as subsidiary and called secondary food. Long usage in China has somehow limited the term "food" to the staples, exclusive of the secondary food.

ADMINISTRATIVE MACHINERY

Up to March, 1949, the Ministry of Food, established in July, 1941, was charged with the following functions: (1) To supply military provisions; (2) to readjust the supply and demand of food for civilian consumption; (3) to control food prices; (4) to set up storehouses throughout the country; (5) to supply food transport facilities; (6) to control the consumption of food, and (7) to enforce laws and regulations relating to food administration. The Ministry of Food had nothing to do with food production. (For details of the government's efforts to increase food production, see chapter on "Agriculture.")

In March, 1949, the Ministry was abolished by a resolution of the Legislative Yuan and reorganized into a Land Tax and Food Administration to be subordinated to the Ministry of Finance. The functions of the new organ, though small in organization, remain the same.

In March, 1945, the Land Tax Commission under the Ministry of Finance was transferred to the Ministry of Food

and reorganized as the Land Tax Administration. In addition, the Ministry of Food was authorized to direct and supervise matters relating to the collection of land tax in all provinces of the country. For the sake of closer supervision, the government ruled that, as of July 1, 1946, the provincial and *hsien* governments should be charged with the collection and adjustment of land tax as well as all matters relating to the government's borrowing of foodstuffs. It also ruled that all organs in charge of land tax and food administration in the various provinces and *hsien*, hitherto under the Ministry of Food, should immediately be turned over, together with the warehousing and transport units, to the respective provincial and *hsien* governments.

PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION

According to an estimate made by the National Agricultural Research Bureau on the basis of crop reports, China, during the seven pre-war years, 1931-37, produced an annual average of 2,858,114,000 piculs of food, including 768,040,000 piculs of rice, 452,187,000 piculs of wheat and 1,637,887,000 piculs of miscellaneous crops. This would have made it possible for each one of China's 450-million people to be allotted more than six piculs of food of one kind or another each year. In other words, in normal years China has a food surplus.

During the immediate post-war years there had been a slump in China's food production. The total estimate for the food calendar year* of 1947 was 2,741,359,000 piculs of which 715,500,000 were rice, 430,560,000, wheat and 1,595,299,000, miscellaneous food.

* A food calendar year begins with July or sometimes as late as October, depending on the month when the harvest is collected. Such a year is referred to throughout this chapter as a "food year."

Statistics show that on the average, rice constitutes more than half of all the food consumed in China, wheat, about 13%, and the remainder, miscellaneous crops. Judging from the rice and wheat flour imported in the past, China consumes more of such staples than she can produce at home.

An estimate of China's food consumption for 1947, based on the particular needs of the people in various parts of the country and worked out jointly by the Ministry of Food and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, shows that the country would need 2,820,672,000 piculs of food for human and animal consumption and other purposes. This includes 777,336,000 piculs of rice, 489,560,000 piculs of wheat and 1,553,776,000 piculs of miscellaneous crops.

From the above figures, it will be seen that during 1947 China expected to produce 2,741,359,000 piculs of food against an estimated consumption of 2,820,672,000 piculs, thus leaving a deficit of 79,313,000 piculs.

According to data available late in April, 1948, concerning the actual production and consumption of food in 1947, there was a surplus production of 78,932,460 piculs from the following 21 provinces: the Nine Northeastern Provinces, Szechwan, Kiangsu, Hunan, Kiangsi, Hupoh, Anhwei, Taiwan, Chahar, Chinghai, Ningsia, Yunnan and Jehol. The total food deficit was 156,249,780 piculs in the following provinces and municipalities: Kwangtung, Honan, Hopei, Kwangsi, Shantung, Shansi, Kweichow, Fukien, Chekiang, Shensi, Suiyuan, Sinkiang, Kansu, Sikang, Shanghai, Nanking, Peiping, Tientsin, Chungking, Shenyang, (Mukden), Hankow, Tsingtao, Sian and Canton.

FOOD PROCUREMENT

The former Ministry of Food procured food through two channels: (1) the collection of land tax in kind and government borrowing and purchase at prescribed prices, and (2) purchases on the market or from foreign countries.

Land Tax in Kind—The centuries-old method of collecting land tax in kind was again adopted in China in 1941 when the National Government took over the collection of land tax from the provincial governments. The collection was mainly in rice, but in regions where little or no rice was produced, wheat, kaoliang, barley, cotton or other crops were collected instead.

Government Borrowing—It was found that the collection of land tax in kind alone was insufficient to meet the demand for military and civilian provisions. In July, 1942, the government began to buy food at prescribed rates, in proportion to the amount of land tax one had to pay. This means large landowners had to sell more food to the government at fixed prices. The food thus purchased was paid for partly in cash and partly in food bonds or savings certificates.

Government Purchase—Beginning July, 1943, however, such purchases took the form of borrowing to be entirely paid for in government bonds. This practice, instituted in view of the financial stringency of the nation, was at first enforced in Szechwan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Kansu, Sikang, Chekiang, Shensi and Yunnan, and later extended to the rest of the country as of July, 1944. Meanwhile, the government placed the borrowing of food in the hands of big landowners.

In September, 1945, the government exempted farmers in all provinces and municipalities previously occupied by the Japanese from the land tax for one year. The collection of land tax in kind and food-borrowing continued in Chungking and the ten interior provinces of Szechwan, Sikang, Yunnan, Kweichow, Fukien, Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai and Sinkiang with the proviso that these regions would have a similar exemption during the next food year.

In July, 1946, however, the government decreed that, pending the completion of national reconversion and the restoration of the nation's economy, land tax would continue to be collected in kind throughout the country with the exception of Sinkiang, Chahar and Shantung which were temporarily exempted from this tax. Earlier, the Ministry of Food and the Ministry of Finance at a joint conference held in June had adopted the following two resolutions concerning land tax:

(1) Land tax revenues collected in each province should be allotted thus: 30% to the National Government, 20% to the province and 50% to the *hsien* and municipalities in the province; and in each special municipality under the direct jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan, 40% to the National Government and 60% to the municipality. All government-borrowed food should go to the National Government, while that collected for "public provisions"—food collected additionally to provide for the needs of local public

servants—directly to the local governments concerned.

(2) During the food year of 1946, the collection of land tax in kind should be resumed in all those provinces which had been exempted for the food year 1945, and the government's food-borrowing program should be continued together with the additional collection of "public provisions" for the various provinces and *hsien*.

For the food year 1947, the government,

to meet the demand for military provisions in the campaign against the communist rebels, found it necessary to collect land tax in kind and to borrow food simultaneously, although it had intended to suspend the latter measure.

During the seven food years following the re-introduction of the system of collecting land tax in kind, tax returns from various other forms of food procurement by the government, including borrowings and purchases, were as follows:

TABLE 1.—FOOD PROCUREMENT, 1941-47

Year	Original Procurement Quota (piculs)	Actual Collection (piculs)	Percentage
1941.....	22,938,496	24,148,777	110
1942.....	64,989,582	67,698,316	104
1943.....	64,201,302	65,197,878	102
1944.....	64,648,107	57,900,027	89
1945.....	35,259,238	30,127,050	85
1946.....	54,440,246	42,536,798	78
1947.....	58,807,496	38,343,349	64

The decrease in the food procurement quota for 1945 was due to the government order of a general land tax exemption for all former enemy-occupied provinces for one year. As for 1947, its final returns would necessarily be larger as the actual collection figure given here was based only on statistics available as of June 20, 1948. Table 2 shows the actual collection of food, including paddy (unmilled) rice, wheat and kaoliang (sorghum), by the provinces and municipalities during the seven food years from July, 1941 to June, 1948.

Ordinary Purchases—Another form of food procurement by the government is through ordinary purchases, as distinguished from those made at prescribed or arbitrary rates. Such purchases are made from provinces where there is a surplus or from foreign countries, notably Siam, Burma, French Indo-China and the United States.

Domestic purchases, intended primarily to make up the deficit in military food storages, are made at prevailing market prices. In some cases such purchases are confined to that portion of the already collected land tax food, which has been allotted to local governments. For the food year 1947, the government originally decided to purchase from various provinces 6,873,544 piculs of food collected through land tax in kind, including 3,730,000 piculs of paddy from the six prov-

inces of Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Hupoh, Hunan and Sikang; 2,072,544 piculs of wheat from the 11 provinces of Shansi, Shantung, Honan, Hopei, Suiyuan, Chahar, Jehol, Shensi, Kansu, Ningsia and Sinkiang, and 1,071,000 piculs of kaoliang from the Nine Northeastern Provinces. Later, in view of the spread of communist disturbances and poor harvests in some of the provinces, the purchasing quotas were either cut or totally cancelled. As a remedy, the government resorted to supplementary purchases directly from food producing centers.

Purchases from Abroad—Food purchases from foreign countries have mostly been made to regulate the supply of civilian provisions. Before the war China used to import large consignments of food from abroad. Since the end of the war, she has been importing food on an international food quota basis.

In the international allocations of rice, China bought 211,173 out of her quota of 280,000 m. tons (about 20 piculs to a m. ton) for 1946, and 337,637 out of her quota of 363,894 m. tons for 1947. Lack of sufficient foreign exchange prevented China from buying up what belonged to her quotas. She was unable, for instance, to purchase the 10,000 m. tons of rice from Ecuador allocated to her for 1947. For the first half of 1948, China was allocated 458,332 m. tons of rice, and by the end of June, she had bought only

TABLE 2.—ACTUAL COLLECTION OF FOOD THROUGH LAND TAX IN KIND, GOVERNMENT PURCHASE—July, 1941, to June, 1948
(Unit: Picul)

Province or Municipality	Item of Food	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Kiangsu.....	Paddy	94,523	292,384	2,789,201	2,448,581	..	3,376,852	3,109,852
Chekiang.....	Paddy	1,477,069	1,982,676	2,468,555	1,755,550	..	2,828,709	2,984,196
Anhui.....	Paddy	1,039,774	1,543,981	610,135	674,021	..	2,674,996	1,949,076
	Wheat	..	1,543,981
Kiangsi.....	Paddy	1,772,847	6,364,627	8,542,147	5,703,885	..	4,111,350	3,845,833
Hupei.....	Paddy	742,037	1,941,823	1,986,508	1,534,385	..	2,495,324	1,514,338
Hunan.....	Paddy	2,496,038	10,622,433	7,674,834	4,703,981	..	3,357,297	3,995,598
Szechwan.....	Paddy	6,892,232	16,612,428	16,163,529	19,493,839	18,331,016	7,565,605	7,240,936
Sikang.....	Paddy	240,295	573,115	444,085	457,307	352,582	204,021	152,087
Hopei.....	Wheat	325,907	167,910
Shantung.....	Wheat	160,266	760,000	..	19,343	..	91,701	..
Shansi.....	Wheat	228,821	600,749	357,183	400,000	..	630,000	541,268
Honan.....	Wheat	1,108,017	2,451,400	3,012,513	1,474,608	..	1,542,830	847,973
Shensi.....	Wheat	698,766	3,642,140	3,636,816	3,891,652	2,153,795	1,525,904	1,698,384
Kansu.....	Wheat	430,069	1,604,600	1,732,990	1,719,788	762,627	685,477	594,277
Chinghai.....	Wheat	46,939	198,822	127,170	170,000	89,590	60,060	42,442
Fukien.....	Paddy	1,327,180	2,983,841	3,244,573	2,904,158	..	1,358,397	1,397,179
Taiwan.....	Paddy	1,749,988	1,793,278
Kwangtung.....	Paddy	1,441,529	2,952,542	2,271,847	1,525,803	2,205,481	3,224,016	1,732,387
Kwangsi.....	Paddy	1,363,979	3,058,771	3,051,181	982,270	2,425,484	1,621,980	1,499,717
Yunnan.....	Paddy	1,283,287	4,469,883	2,474,795	3,628,345	2,281,037	883,877	963,477
Kweichow.....	Paddy	997,782	2,481,399	2,426,179	2,492,483	..	1,535,082	941,419
Jehol.....	Wheat	49,054	7,182
Northeast Provinces.....	Wheat	7,724,547	91,017
Chahar.....	Wheat	154,189	..
Suiyuan.....	Wheat	65,329	514,286	500,319	250,007	..	219,246	152,060
Ningsia.....	Wheat	221,998	502,235	443,247	436,249	367,605	230,490	289,564
Sinkiang.....	Wheat	1,240,141	1,207,141	1,130,840	..	614,446
Nanking.....	Paddy	15,160	15,644
Shanghai.....	Paddy	46,601	49,356
Peiping.....	Wheat	12,692	11,533
Tientsun.....	Wheat	1,292	1,448
Tsingtao.....	Wheat	12,091	13,730
Chungking.....	Paddy	26,631	26,998	12,518	22,719
Canton.....	Paddy	22,180
TOTAL.....	Wheat	21,168,572	55,880,103	53,537,434	47,657,218	25,622,598	37,061,773	33,229,272
	Paddy	2,960,205	11,818,213	11,660,514	10,242,809	4,504,457	5,295,043	5,228,107
	Kaoliang	7,724,547	91,071

Remarks: (1) The total for the food year 1947 is incomplete as it is based only on statistics available up to June 20, 1948.

(2) A picul of paddy (unmilled rice) equals approximately 74% of a picul of rice (milled rice).

Source: Ministry of Food

183,310 m. tons, of which 96,972 were from the United States, 52,160 from Siam, and 34,178 from Burma.

Allocations of wheat which is sometimes substituted by wheat flour are based upon the international food year. For the food year 1946 (July, 1946 to June, 1947), China purchased only 336,607 m. tons of wheat out of an allotment of 500,000 m. tons. This was again due to her shortage of foreign exchange. Of the 150,000 m. tons of wheat allocated to her for the second half of 1947, she procured 74,000 m. tons by the end of that year. During the first five months of 1948, she received 32,792 m. tons of "relief wheat" from the United States. "Relief wheat" refers to wheat purchased by the United States Government out of its international relief appropriations.

FOOD DISTRIBUTION

The food collected through land tax in kind and through government purchases had been used primarily: (1) To supply military needs; (2) to supply the needs of public functionaries and school teachers; (3) to regulate civilian provisions, and (4) to support rationing programs in leading cities.

Supplies for the Armed Forces—During the war, about 60% of the food collections went to the armed forces, while the rest was distributed among essential war workers, including civil servants, school teachers, and students. A portion of it was used to hold down food prices in the market.

The appropriations of military provisions have been based on the military register containing the compositions of various army units, military organizations and military schools throughout the country. The per capita ration, in principle, has been 24 *shih liang* (Chinese ounce) of rice or 26 *shih liang* of flour per day.

During the five years 1941-45, the Ministry of Food distributed a total of 180,511,000 piculs of military provisions in paddy, wheat and miscellaneous foodstuffs.

Needs of Public Functionaries—Following the abolition in January, 1946, of the wartime practice of giving government-collected cereals free or at low prices to public functionaries and school teachers, the government began the distribution of these cereals as a part of the living allowances to them.

In 1947, the government started to ration rice and flour among public servants and school teachers in Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping and Tientsin. The new measure went into effect in Nan-

king and Shanghai as of March, entitling each such worker to eight *tou* (11 pounds to a *tou*) of rice or two sacks of flour per month. (There are 20 catties or 22 pounds to a sack of flour.) In all cases the rationed rice or flour had to be paid for at or about the market price. In Peiping and Tientsin, only flour was rationed. In all the four leading cities, cultural workers, students, newspapermen, relief and social welfare workers, industrial workers, and police were given "special rations."

Beginning February, 1948, when the pay of public servants and school teachers was calculated according to the monthly cost of living index, the government distributed to each of these workers free of charge three *tou* of rice or 33 catties of flour a month. The "special ration" granted industrial workers was merged with their general allotments, while students, newspapermen and others received monthly two *tou* of rice (for Nanking and Shanghai) or 29.4 catties of flour (for Peiping and Tientsin), at half the market price. Members of the police forces received free of charge every month: five *tou* of rice each in Nanking and Shanghai, and one and one-fourth of a sack of flour each in Peiping and Tientsin.

Civilian Provisions—Whatever surplus the government had after meeting military and civilian allocations was used to meet civilian needs, generally in large consumption centers. To combat hoarding, the Ministry of Food instructed provincial and other local food administrative organs to make periodic investigations into the staple holdings of large landowners. If large surpluses were found, the holders were then ordered to sell them to steady the food market. During 1947, 2,496,673 piculs of food, including 728,482 piculs of rice, 1,135,000 piculs of wheat and 633,191 piculs of corn and soybeans and other cereals, were set aside by the government for the purpose of regulating civilian provisions.

Food Rationing—Partial rationing of food was started in 1947 in Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping and Tientsin. In 1948, a four-month rationing program of rice and flour was enforced in Nanking and Shanghai as of March and in Canton, Peiping and Tientsin as of April. While half of the supplies needed for the purpose was made available by the government, the other half was covered by the 176,000 tons of food allotted under the Sino-American Relief Agreement of October 27, 1947. The Agreement implemented a US\$45,700,000 supplies program for

China, US\$40,200,000 of which was to be set aside for rice, wheat and flour. The China Relief Mission, an agency of the United States Government, was responsible for bringing the food to China.

In accordance with the rationing measures, rice was distributed in Nanking, Shanghai and Canton, and flour, in Peiping and Tientsin. The prices were fixed at least 5% below the prevailing market quotations for the similar commodities. Each certified resident was rationed monthly one *ton* of rice or an equivalent amount of flour.

The rice requirements for Nanking, Shanghai and Canton for the four-month period were 500,000 piculs for the 5-million ration population of Shanghai, 120,000 piculs for the 1,200,000 ration population of Nanking, and 140,000 piculs for the 1,400,000 ration population of Canton.

In the rationing of flour, Peiping and Tientsin were each allotted 579,545 sacks of flour a month on the basis of an average population of 1,700,000 persons—15 catties or three-fourths of a sack to a person.

As the results at the end of the four-month period were satisfactory, the government decided to continue rationing in all the five cities. After the China Relief Mission had wound up its work in June, 1948, American allotments were provided through the Economic Cooperation Administration. Beginning September, the rationing of flour was extended to Tsingtao. The city was allotted 7,000 m. tons of flour a month for its estimated ration population of 1,100,000.

CONTROL MEASURES

The relative stability of the food market, maintained by the government through various forms of control, was upset soon after V-J Day as a result of communist disturbances and decrease in production. Food prices rose sharply throughout the country, particularly in areas formerly occupied by the Japanese. To cope with the serious situation, the Ministry of Food reverted to wartime controls.

Curbing of Hoarding—To clamp down on hoarding and profiteering, the Wartime Penal Regulations Governing Violations of Food Control Measures promulgated in May, 1941, remained effective to cover similar offenses in the postwar period. According to these regulations, the food control measures cover rice, wheat, wheat flour and other cereals designated by the government. Persons found guilty of hoarding and profiteering on such

items are liable to fines and punishment ranging from imprisonment to death penalty. The original regulations were, however, modified to suit the changed conditions.

In February, 1947, when the gold crises caused serious fluctuations in food prices, the government empowered the provincial and municipal governments to put under control, whenever necessary, cereals not yet covered by the aforementioned regulations.

Control over Food Movement—To prevent the exodus of food to communist areas and heavy food purchases by private individuals, restrictions were imposed in August, 1947, on the movement of foodstuffs between localities. Up to the end of May, 1948, foodstuffs transshipped with government approval from the Yangtze valley to the south and north included approximately 987,700 piculs of rice, 227,000 piculs of wheat and 10,612,871 sacks of flour.

Registration of Food Merchants—The registration of all food merchants as a measure of control during the war was again enforced in all provinces and municipalities in November, 1946. By the end of June, 1948, a total of 38,302 food merchants—dealers in marketing and transportation, sales, processing and storage—had registered with the Ministry of Food.

STORAGE AND TRANSPORTATION

The storage of foodstuffs against famines has been an age-old practice in China. As a rule, after each harvest the surplus is stored in public granaries for use in case of famines or for other emergency purposes. Each year, old cereals in the granaries are sold or loaned out to the needy and are replaced by fresh crops. The Ministry of Food began to subsidize after 1941 the construction of new granaries and the repair of old ones in various provinces. In many cases monasteries and ancestral temples were renovated and converted into storehouses. At the end of 1946 the Ministry of Food had under its control food storages with an aggregate capacity of 66,011,197 piculs of cereals.

During 1947, the Ministry of Food, in addition to the construction of a 50,000-picul granary at Nanchang in Kiangsi, obtained, by converting public silos and repairing dilapidated storehouses, additional space capable of storing 2,650 piculs of cereals.

In the transportation of food, the Ministry of Food encountered difficulties such as the lack of facilities, great distances, and tremendous haulage. For this reason, transportation tonnage was reduced; army rations and food for public functionaries and other essential personnel were secured on the spot, and whenever expedient, troops were stationed in or near producing centers. Cereals collected in places where transportation was difficult were sold locally and the proceeds were used to make food purchases elsewhere.

Means of conveyance employed included carts, motor vehicles, river junks, steamships, and human and animal carriers. As of September, 1948, food was transported by both government and private agencies under a centralized transportation system.

LOCAL FOOD RESERVE

Parallel to its efforts to provide adequate storage facilities for its annual col-

lection of cereals, the Ministry of Food, after 1941, began to store away foodstuffs in different localities for emergency use. Previously, this work was undertaken by the Ministry of Interior.

The amount of food to be stored away each year was decided by the provinces and municipalities according to their anticipated needs. Beginning 1943, the Central Government, in order to further increase local food reserves, allocated quotas to the provinces and municipalities for this purpose. Up till the end of June, 1948, local food reserves registered with the Ministry of Food totalled 27,981,717 piculs, including 26,629,452 piculs of paddy or unhusked rice, 902,548 piculs of wheat and 449,743 piculs of miscellaneous cereals. In addition, CNC\$73,733,400 was collected in substitution for food.

CHAPTER 26

FORESTRY, ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND FISHERIES

FORESTRY

China has 1,274,879,560 *shih mow* (1 *shih mow* equals 0.1647 acre) of forest area with a total timber reserve of 157,964,067,950 cubic *shih chih* (1 cubic *shih chih* equals 0.027 cubic meter), according to an estimate made by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1947. In addition, there is a total of 4,363,911,005 *shih mow* of potential forest area awaiting forestation.

Table 1 shows the forest area and timber reserve of China.

Forestry administration may be viewed along five lines, namely, the protection of natural forests, the management of watershed protection forests, water soil conservation, development of economic forests, provincial reforestation work and forest research.

Protection of Natural Forests—The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, in 1940, designated a number of forest areas as "State-owned forests," for each of which an administrative bureau was established. There were eight such forests at the end of 1947, with a total area of 332,690,036 *shih mow* and a total timber reserve of 44,680,357,361 cubic *shih chih*. After the termination of the war, the government opened these forest areas to exploitation in order to meet the nation's needs of construction materials.

The measures taken for the protection of these natural forests were as follows:

1. Strict enforcement of regulations against deforestation. The provincial and city authorities are held responsible for any deforestation. In addition, in the light of varying local conditions, supplementary provisions were drawn up by local authorities.

2. Organization of forest protection associations. Through the *hsiang* or *chen*, the people are organized to protect forests.

3. Inclusion of natural forests into the *hsien* administration as an item of public property.

4. Strengthening of forest police system.

5. Extension of Arbor Day programs throughout the nation.

6. Promotion of popular interest in forest protection by means of publicity and education.

7. Scientific management and conservation of natural forests.

In 1946, 225,649,726 seedlings were cultivated and 157,726,425 trees planted in 30 provinces. In 1947, the number of seedlings cultivated in 26 provinces and cities was increased to 283,050,782 and that of trees planted to 228,538,544.

Water and Soil Conservation—The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry established three watershed protection forest areas in 1942 and two more in 1943. In March, 1944, another area was established for soil and water conservation in the King river area in Kansu, the King river being a tributary of the Yellow river. The administrations for the Han and Lo river watershed protection forest areas were amalgamated with the Chingling National Forest Administrative Bureau in March, 1944.

After the end of the war, a general plan was made for setting up a number of watershed protection forest areas and areas for soil and water conservation along the banks of the Yangtze and Yellow rivers. The preliminary program, however, was limited to areas along tributaries of the Yangtze, Yellow, Pearl, and Sungari rivers. Under the plan, the whole country is to be divided into five major experimental districts which will be sub-divided into branch districts. The experiments will be carried out by the Central Government with the local authorities in charge of extension work. The plan, aimed at conserving

TABLE 1.—FOREST AREA AND TIMBER RESERVE
MARCH, 1947

Locality	Forest Area	Timber Reserve
	<i>Shih Mow</i>	<i>Cubic Shih Chih</i>
The Northeastern Forestry District.....	975,000,000	100,706,139,000
Yalu River.....	23,800,000	2,404,709,000
Tumen River.....	21,900,000	2,790,270,000
Sungari River.....	37,900,000	5,861,610,000
Moutan River.....	9,700,000	2,793,840,000
Lhalin River.....	16,800,000	1,994,410,000
Sansing Hsien.....	139,800,000	17,357,930,000
Chinese Changchun Railway-Eastern.....	64,300,000	3,579,450,000
Chinese Changchun Railway-Western.....	26,800,000	3,526,540,000
Great Hsingan Range.....	370,000,000	37,167,530,000
Small Hsingan Range.....	264,000,000	23,229,850,000
The Northwestern Forestry Districts.....	17,940,172	4,754,668,991
The North Western Oltaï Mountains.....		..
Tienshan.....	5,487,081	..
Chihlienshan.....	1,085,250	..
Jo Shui.....	750,000	7,560,000
Holan Shan.....	112,500	11,059,659
Upper Yellow River.....	1,600,000	73,000,000
Lo Shan.....	15,000	1,026,000
Taoho and Pailungkiang.....	3,000,000	2,317,680,000
Hsialung Shan.....	45,000	15,948,009
Chinling.....	3,231,030	2,198,395,323
Tapashan.....		..
Liping.....	2,614,311	130,000,000
The Southwestern Forestry District.....	94,464,453	42,454,016,619
The Upper Ming River.....	13,368,635	17,230,190,268
Ching I River.....	5,393,500	7,818,017,442
Ta Doo River.....	1,390,500	384,054,832
Yakung River.....	29,900,000	5,980,000,000
King Sha River.....	24,712,604	6,352,207,298
Lan Tsang Kiang and Nu Kiang.....	13,584,000	2,716,800,000
Taweishan.....	4,125,000	1,000,000,000
Chukiang.....	52,500	39,200,000
Oshan.....	3,000	..
Great and Small Liang Shan.....	562,500	..
Chihshui River.....	50,000	20,000,000
Wu River.....	383,000	576,600,000
Ching Shui River.....	343,044	176,000,000
Yung River.....	48,000	120,000,000
Shihwantashan.....		..
Tachungshan.....	45,000	15,772,725
Yaoshan.....		..
Tamingshan.....	84,375	25,174,054
Sanfang.....	202,500	..
The Four Forestry Districts in Northeastern Kwangsi.....	216,295	..

**TABLE 1.—FOREST AREA AND TIMBER RESERVE
MARCH, 1947—(Continued)**

Locality	Firest Area	Timber Reserve
	<i>Shih Mow</i>	<i>Cubic Shih Chih</i>
The Southeastern Forestry Districts.....	144,362,935	7,267,634,672
Taiwan.....	26,743,335	5,592,540,672
Hainan Island.....	1,564,000	23,450,000
Huapingshan.....	5,600	3,024,000
Mangshan.....	150,000	18,000,000
Chenkiang.....		
Dinkiang.....	3,000,000	42,300,000
Chiulungkiang.....	900,000	13,320,000
Mingkiang.....	112,000,000	1,575,000,000
Oukiang.....		
Chientangkiang.....		
Kingkiang.....		
The Central-China Forestry Districts.....	37,125,000	2,776,389,541
Shengmingchia.....	1,875,000	1,187,243,541
Yuan River.....	8,500,000	170,000,000
Tse River.....	100,000	25,000,000
Upper Hsiang River.....	13,600,000	1,394,146,000
Upper Kan River.....	13,050,000	
Chingyen River.....		
The North-China Forestry Districts.....	5,987,000	5,219,127
Ningwu Shan and Fanshan.....	592,000	
Sungshan.....	1,270,000	5,219,127
Mengshan.....	4,125,000	
Laoshan.....		
Upper Loh River.....		
TOTAL.....	1,274,879,560	157,964,067,950

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

soil and water in half of China's territory for 30 years, is to be carried out in three periods as shown in Table 2.

Economic Forests—For the development of economic forests the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry mapped out a 30-year program after the end of the war along the following lines:

1. Special economic forests—Emphasis in the development of this group of economic forests is on the production of barks, leaves, fruits, and sap rather than lumber. Among others, the tung forest area is to be increased to 10-million *shih mow*.

2. Lumber forests—In addition to the national administrative bureaus, a na-

TABLE 2.—PLAN FOR CONSERVING SOIL AND WATER WITHIN 30 YEARS

Period	Forest Area Created (<i>shih mow</i>)	Natural Forests Protected (<i>shih mow</i>)	Area for Soil and Water Conservation (square <i>li</i>)
1st (5 years).....	250,000	500,000	3,500,000
2nd (10 years).....	500,000	1,000,000	6,000,000
3rd (15 years).....	750,000	1,500,000	9,000,000

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

tional experimental center will be set up in every province for the expansion of timber forest areas. The program calls for growing a total of 31-million *shih mow* of lumber trees to provide approximately 630-million cubic *shih chih* annually.

3. Fuel forests—With the exception of north China and some big cities where coal is used, China depends heavily on fire wood for fuel. In order to increase the fuel forest area, the government's agricultural organizations provide farmers with free seedlings and directions on their propagation. Based on the requirement that each *hsien* afforest 1,000 *shih mow* every year, it is estimated that during the first five years, a total of 10,085,000 *shih mow* of fuel forests will be created. In the subsequent 10 years, a total of 20,170,000 *shih mow* will be afforested. In the third period of 15 years, another 30,250,000 *shih mow* will be covered with trees.

4. Afforestation in pasture and farm areas—The afforestation of pasture areas found mainly in the northwestern provinces will approach some 25,839,000 *shih mow*. During the 30-year period, a total of 900,000 *shih mow* of original farm forests will be readied for further development.

Provincial Forestry Work—Under the direction and supervision of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, various provincial authorities undertook forestry work. The results achieved in 1946 and 1947 in various provinces are shown in Table 3.

Forest Research—The National Forestry Research Bureau* of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, created in 1941, conducted studies on nursery practice, reforestation, ecology, taxonomy, dendrology, forest protection, soil and water conservation technique, wood technology, lumbering, forest products, forest industries, and the latest forestry preservation techniques.

In addition, the Bureau cooperates with various universities and other institutions of learning in research and field work. During the winter of 1946 and the spring of 1947, a total of 3,748,000 trees were distributed among the people for planting. In June, 1947, 3,068 pounds of American tree seeds including those of slash pine, long-leaf pine, bald cypress, white pine and American

ash were received from UNRRA and distributed for trial among 45 leading agricultural and forestry institutions in war-devastated provinces.

Studies of medicinal trees have also been carried out by the Bureau. Over 2,570,000 plants of "*Dichrea Febrifuga*," called "*Hwang-Chang-Shan*" in Chinese which has been used for centuries as an effective cure for malaria in China, have been raised in the bureau's nursery in Szechwan, and over 5,700 *mow* of forest land as undergrowth have been cultivated under special protection. A small medicinal nursery was established in Nanking for the growth and study of China's leading medicinal shrubs and herbs. Among them, licorice, rhubarb, tea oil and such plants were subjects of this especial study.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

The most important work in animal husbandry includes the control of epizootic diseases, the improvement of animal breeding and the increase of wool production.

Epizootic Control—For the control of epizootic diseases, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry established seven prevention and control centers and a number of stations in various animal husbandry centers throughout the provinces under the direction of the provincial governments.

From UNRRA, the Ministry obtained equipment and materials for epizootic control work, including five sets of first-class serum laboratory equipment, 10 sets of second-class serum laboratory equipment, 12 sets of epizootic examination station equipment, and 27 sets of prevention team equipment.

Such preventive work as the treatment of animals, manufacture of vaccine and serum and training of personnel from 1946 to 1948 is shown in Table 4 on Page 573.

Improvement of Animal Breeding—After the war, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry enlarged the scope of the Central Animal Husbandry Experimental Bureau, the Northwest Sheep Wool Improvement Bureau, and the Northwest Animal Breeding Center. In addition, two cow breeding centers were set up, one in Anhwei and the other in Kwangsi. The bureau also established sheep breeding centers in Suiyuan, Anhwei, Chekiang, Nanking and Peiping.

Among the breeding cattle UNRRA gave China were 3,352 head of cows

* The bureau was placed under the Ministry of Economic Affairs following the abolition of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in March, 1949.

TABLE 3.—PROVINCIAL FORESTRY WORK, 1946 AND 1947

Province or Municipality	1946			1947		
	Area of Nurseries (<i>shih mow</i>)	Seedlings Cultivated	Trees Planted	Area of Nurseries (<i>shih mow</i>)	Seedlings Cultivated	Trees Planted
Shensi.....	300.00	2,225,147	9,090,902	1,337,722
Ningsia.....	307.00	1,875,920	5,637,272	337.00	5,117,780	2,830,200
Hunan.....	544.47	241,463	238,521	120.00	3,500,000	160,432
Hupei.....	278.00	79,596,669	2,486,964	722.31	8,890,005	15,597,082
Kiangsi.....	6,005.00	28,477,642	41,372,412	10,200.40	66,529,285	34,816,113
Kweichow.....	26,440
Yunnan.....	149.50	500,000	3,139,835
Chinghai.....	9,991.70	..	16,503,019
Kwangtung.....	157.80	400,527	1,860,002	298.00	814,505	6,083,083
Fukien.....	300.00	4,000,000	1,304,410	112.68	3,322,594	16,262,935
Kansu.....	3,814.00	34,488,014	17,376,039	16,446.00	147,097,022	113,676,409
Shansi.....	162.70	1,453,000	601,200
Honan.....	1,378.00	9,046,828	33,242,037	804.61	4,334,089	5,907,251
Szechwan.....	38,043.00	7,768,908	141,069	481.40	1,248,129	3,841,724
Chekiang.....	651.79	12,114,440	1,949,454	816,084
Kwangsi.....	789.43	9,485,831	5,418,363
Anhui.....	1,736.11	1,259,137	2,160,995	718.50	6,461,192	7,899,923
Sikang.....	25,131.00	244,777	401,399	40,321
Sinkiang.....	105.00	..	10,473,867
Suiyuan.....	312.87	558,509	266,255	303.40	582,784	185,659
Tsingtao.....	145.33	2,572,600	59,155	189.80	3,400,890	124,820
Shantung.....	1,370.00	4,347,840	160,158	321.39	4,981,576	1,724,555
Nanking.....	3,225,592
Hopei.....	1,443,518	56.00	467,725	301,870
Kiangsu.....	101,417	138.00	2,568,240	6,235,091
Liaoning.....	3,640.60	12,780,466	6,141,381
Taiwan.....	139.07	24,932,474	2,371,722	246.69	10,400,000	18,750
Chahar.....	85.00	324,500	904,795
Peiping.....	5.00
Sian.....	2,930
Jehol.....	2,737.50	230,000	403,802
TOTAL.....	94,549.27	225,589,726	157,826,425	35,226.78	283,050,782	228,538,524

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

TABLE 4.—EPIZOOTIC PREVENTION WORK, JANUARY, 1946 TO MARCH, 1948

Organization	Treatment of Animals (head)	Manufactured Vaccine and Serum (c.c.)	Training of Personnel	
			Workers	Supervisors
Northwest Epizootic Prevention Bureau.....	14,806	886,492	150	6
Chinghai Epizootic Prevention Bureau.....	48,105	468,599	..	4
Southwest Epizootic Prevention Bureau.....	24,026	857,839	138	22
Southeast Epizootic Prevention Bureau.....	25,972	392,711	..	24
North China Epizootic Prevention Bureau.....	11,636	580,988	..	13
West China Epizootic Prevention Bureau.....	4,213	58,127	..	6
Shansi and Suiyuan Epizootic Prevention Bureau.....	64,819	107,300	..	18
TOTAL.....	193,577	3,352,056	288	93

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

belonging to nine strains of Holstein, Jersey, Guennsey, Shorthorn, Brown Swiss, Ayrshire, Hereford Red Pell, and Angus; 994 head of breeding sheep

of Corriedale stock; and 88 head of Yorkshire pigs. They were distributed as follows:

TABLE 5.—DISTRIBUTION OF UNRRA BREEDING CATTLE

Province	Breeding Cows (head)	Breeding Pigs (head)	Breeding Sheep (head)
Kiangsu.....	75	14	..
Chekiang.....	169	10	100
Anhwei.....	220	..	205
Kiangsi.....	59	14	..
Hupei.....	195
Hunan.....	77
Hopei.....	82
Shantung.....	86
Shansi.....	39
Honan.....	80
Kansu.....	8
Fukien.....	86
Taiwan.....	75
Kwangtung.....	160	10	..
Kwangsi.....	92	6	..
Suiyuan.....	93	..	150
Chahar.....	53
Nine Northeastern Provinces..	198	26	..
Nanking.....	440	..	64
Shanghai.....	433
Peiping.....	216	..	50
Tientsin.....	35	8	..
Chinese Communist Area.....	381

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

Increase of Wool Production—The Northwest Sheep Wool Improvement Bureau at Lanchow, Kansu, was established by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry in 1940. It directed sheep breeding, epizootic prevention and the improvement of wool enterprises in the northwest provinces. In 1947, the bureau had four extension stations engaged in nursery work, crossbreeding of native sheep, study of breeds, directing the farmers in fleecing and breeding, and epizootic prevention.

Table 6 shows the results of animal husbandry work from 1946 to 1948.

FISHERIES

General Review—Although China has a long sea coast and many rivers and lakes where fish of many kinds live in abundance, her fishing industry has yet to be developed. Prior to the war with Japan, the government made a number of surveys of salt-water fish, but the valuable data thus gathered were lost

in the early stages of the conflict. During the war, almost the entire Chinese coast line was under enemy control and all the fishing vessels and equipment were either seized or destroyed. A CNRRA estimate shows that of the 30,000 fishing vessels active along the coast of Chekiang and Fukien provinces before the war only a little over 6,000 were in operation up to V-J Day. Of more than 700 powered vessels of pre-war days, only 13 were left. As a result, Chinese fishermen had to use junks and to hug close to the shoreline. Their catches were meagre.

Fresh-water fishing, on the other hand, being scarcely more than a sideline in China's rural areas has never assumed an important place in the nation's economy. Over half of China's river and lake fishing vessels and equipment were lost during the war, while those which had escaped destruction were in great disrepair.

Rehabilitation Policy and Needs—The policy to rehabilitate China's fisheries

was threefold. First, the fishing population would be provided with vessels and equipment so that some millions of them could resume operations. Second, a modern fishing industry would be built up to increase the output and to utilize the nation's marine resources more fully. Third, measures would be taken to improve the processing and preserving of fishing products.

To these ends, the rehabilitation program called for the procurement of 95,000 tons of supplies for the construction of 10,000 junks and the repairing of 7,000 others; the importation of 730 motorized fishing vessels to train Chinese fishermen in modern fishing technique, to survey fish grounds along the coast, and eventually to be allocated to various places as a starting point of a new industry. The program also included a number of canneries and cold storage plants needed to take care of surplus fish during the peak seasons. The procurement of these supplies originally estimated at US\$35-million and later reduced to \$25-million was handled by the CNRRA through UNRRA.

Rehabilitation Supplies—The UNRRA-procured supplies for the rehabilitation of the fisheries may be divided into four main categories: powered vessels, lumber, processing and preservation plants, and supplies for repairing the vessels. This total value was US\$25,989,373. By the end of 1947, supplies valued at US\$24,221,041 had been received, with the balance scheduled to reach China the following year.

(1) Powered vessels. These vessels included combination type boats, Danish seiners, steam trawlers and miscellaneous small crafts. Of the 232 vessels provided by UNRRA, 169 (126 fishing vessels and 43 smaller crafts) had been delivered by December, 1947.

(2) Lumber and repair supplies. These supplies were to be used in building junks to replace those lost during the war. The program called for 95,500 tons of lumber together with the hardware necessary for building 10,000 new junks and the repairing of 7,000 old ones. Fishing gear sufficient for two years were also listed. By the end of 1947, 23,500 tons of lumber, sufficient to build 2,500 junks had been received.

TABLE 6.—RESULTS OF ANIMAL HUSBANDRY WORK

Period	Improvement of Cattle Breeds				
	Crossbreeding of Native Cattle (head)	Direction of Cattle Nursery (head)	Study of Breeds (head)	Sheep Nursery (head)	Crossbreeding of Native Sheep (head)
1946.....	2,995	1,255	8	..	3,480
1947.....	5,830	..	8	8,760	3,269
Jan.—March 1948..	455	14,396	..
TOTAL.....	9,280	1,255	16	23,156	6,749

Period	Improvement in Wool Product			
	Study of Sheep Breeds (kind)	Direction of Fleecing (picul)	Direction of Sheep Breeding (head)	Epizootic Prevention (head)
1946.....	8	520.22	77,508	6,931
1947.....	10	468.24	60,658	2,813
Jan.—March 1948	28,799	379
TOTAL.....	18	988.46	166,965	10,123

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

(3) Supplies for preserving and processing fish. These supplies were intended to minimize the effect of seasonal variations on the fish market and to extend the period during which sea food would be available. They included 75 units of ice plants with a capacity of producing 1,125 m. tons of ice daily and 17,000 cu. m. of cold storage space. For processing, there were a high-speed automatic can-making plant, capable of producing 150 tin cans a minute, three fish canneries each with a capacity of packing 50,000 one-pound cans daily, and eight small reduction plants for making fish meal and oil. In addition, there were seven vitamin oil plants. With the exception of a small portion, all the supplies had been received by the end of 1947.

(4) Supplies for repairing fishing vessels. These consisted of engines, trawl nets, gurdies, nails, wire ropes, anchors, paints and other ship's equipment and fishing gears. They were sufficient to re-fit 135 damaged or worn-out vessels.

Disposal of Fisheries Rehabilitation Supplies—The disposal of rehabilitation supplies may be described as follows:

(1) Disposal of vessels—By the end of 1947, only some general principles of disposal had been decided upon by CNRRA and UNRRA, among which were geographical sale of the vessels to private companies, gifts of one-tenth of them to research and training organizations, and the forming of government-owned or semi-government-owned fishery companies with the remaining vessels.

The sale of the vessels was to be guided by the following principles:

1. The actual needs of the various districts must be taken into consideration. The prospective buyers must show ability to make effective use of the vessels.

2. Buyers must first make application for the right to the vessels allocated for sale.

3. Applications for the fishing vessels must be licensed fishing companies and must guarantee that the vessels applied for will be used exclusively for fishing purposes.

4. The loss suffered by the applicants during the war and the urgency of their needs, the financial and technical ability to pay shall all be considered in making allocations.

(2) Disposal of processing plants—The principles for the disposal of such supplies were as follows:

1. Refrigerating plants badly needed at the various fishing centers along the coast will be installed either entirely by CNRRA or by the joint participation of private enterprises.

2. One of the three canneries already received will be installed in Taiwan to serve as a model. The other two units are to be installed at appropriate localities.

3. For the production of fish meal and oils, a small reduction plant will be installed in cooperation with some institution of research. Others are to be established later as their need arises.

4. Since the liver supply of cod, shark, and tuna is still limited in China and quite insufficient for large-scale extraction, it will be some time before the vitamin oil plants can be operated on a commercial basis.

(3) Disposal of repair equipment—A repair shop for servicing UNRRA vessels was established in February, 1947. The shop is capable of doing all repairs with the exception of cleaning and painting the hulls and re-casting the propellers and other major jobs. Up to the end of 1947, 611 jobs had been handled, totalling 3,769 items. In addition, a net loft was set up to make and repair fishing nets. By December, 1947, 522 pieces of netting were made and 57 nets repaired. The allocation of such repairing equipment for sale was also contemplated.

(4) Disposal of junk building supplies—The preliminary of junk building was begun in October, 1946. While the estimates were prepared for building 10,000 new junks and repairing 7,000 old ones, the lumber actually obtained was only sufficient to construct 2,500 junks. In addition to a shortage of material, financial difficulties handicapped further progress in construction work. By December, 1947, the junk-building program was at a standstill.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT

Fisheries Administration—As the first step toward improvement of China's postwar fisheries administration, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry set up a Department of Fisheries in December, 1946. Meanwhile, it divided the Chinese coast into five fishing districts, namely, the Kwangtung and Hainan districts, the Fukien and Taiwan district, the Kiangsu and Chekiang district, the Hopei and Shantung district, and the Northeast district. With the exception of the Northeast district where the program had been interrupted

TABLE 7—MONTHLY SALES OF FISH MARKETS DURING 1947

Month	Shanghai Fish Market (picul)	Tsingtao Fish Market (picul)	Canton Fish Market (picul)	Ningpo Fish Market (picul)	Wenchow Fish Market (picul)
January.....	58,873.32	7,056.10	..	16,841.30	..
February.....	67,311.11	13,614.25	..	7,331.73	..
March.....	94,145.39	14,056.59	..	10,369.10	..
April.....	180,428.06	34,297.30	..	17,124.05	..
May.....	188,140.30	43,504.93	..	20,123.80	..
June.....	150,853.77	20,167.29	..	17,856.41	..
July.....	91,152.46	7,381.78	..	11,706.92	..
August.....	56,257.10	3,686.03	5,448.32	7,400.40	..
September.....	58,578.10	21,970.95	7,285.50	67,092.15	..
October.....	77,162.54	27,857.99	8,022.97	8,720.81	2,741.46
November.....	91,578.54	29,105.50	10,532.70	10,316.65	4,362.82
December.....	129,628.70	38,526.23	9,285.21	16,158.20	6,208.25

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry

by the communist rebellion, a supervisory office was set up in each of the other four districts in 1946. In the same year, the National Fisheries Research Bureau was established in Shanghai to conduct investigations and research essential for a long-range development program. For the proper handling of UNRRA-procured supplies and for planning and executing the work of rehabilitation, CNRRA, in cooperation with the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry established in July, 1946 the Fisheries Rehabilitation Administration under the Board of Trustees for Rehabilitation Affairs. By the end of 1947, the administration, which had 169 powered vessels at its disposal, had made 346 trips to sea. From August, 1946 to December, 1947, the total catch was 86,679.76 piculs, with the peak in the small croaker seasons, in late summer in 1947.

Also taking part in the postwar rehabilitation program were the China Marine Products Company, the Yellow Sea Marine Products Company, the Fish Markets in Shanghai, Tsingtao, Canton, Ningpo and Wenchow.

The program worked out by the Fisheries Rehabilitation Administration included the building of new vessels, the assembling of new gear, the establishment of modern processing plants, the organization of new marketing facilities, and the laying out of new fishing grounds.

This program also entailed research and investigation in the study of aquatic resources, their abundance, variations, and fluctuations; means of production, processing, and marketing; and future

development, management, and administration of the fishing industry.

Establishment of Fish Markets—The rehabilitation program also called for the establishment of 21 fish markets of three classes. By the end of 1947, already in operation were two first-class, three second-class and one third-class markets. Among those in the process of establishment were two first-class, five second-class and one third-class. In addition, two first-class, four second-class, and one third-class fish markets were projected for the future.

Table 7 shows the monthly sales of five fish markets during 1947.

Fishing Conditions in Various Provinces—Fishing conditions which prevailed in the coastal provinces from 1946 to 1947 are shown in the following table:

TABLE 8—FISHING CONDITIONS IN VARIOUS PROVINCES

Locality	Fisherman	Catch (picul)
Liaoning.....	8,979	499,784.52
Antung.....	9,002	199,639.47
Hopei.....	44,933	771,250.00
Tsingtao.....	6,479	261,233.94
Kiangsu.....	11,932	176,254.00
Shanghai.....	944	1,243,378.42
Chekiang.....	92,765	2,894,094.00
Fukien.....	132,019	657,423.00
Kwangtung.....	223,375	3,993,600.00
Taiwan.....	69,521	854,149.64

Note: Figures on Shantung fishing results were unavailable. Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

CHAPTER 27

LAND

TENURE AND TENANCY

Private ownership is still the rule of land tenure in China, while inheritance is the chief method of securing ownership. Dr. Sun Yat-sen's dictum of "land to the tiller" does not aim at the immediate abolition of private land ownership, but it eventually may affect developments in such a way that large holders will find it unprofitable to own more land than they actually need.

Fifty-eight percent of the Chinese farmers are either tenants or part-owners, statistics compiled by the National Agricultural Research Bureau show (see Tables 3, 4, and 5).

These farmers rent land from others and the premium for such is usually high. The size of the plots they operate is generally small, as the division of land is a distinct feature of the present farm management in China. The average cultivated area per farm household is estimated at 17 *mow*, a little less than three acres.

In spite of its vastness, much of Chinese territory is not cultivable because of mountains, insufficient rainfall, extreme cold, or poor soil. Meanwhile not all cultivable land has been put under the plow. Table 1 summarizes the extent of land under cultivation.

LAND ADMINISTRATION

Land administration in China is based upon the teachings of Dr. Sun Yat-sen. The watchword is the equalization of land ownership. The final goal is to enable actual tillers to become land owners.

The procedure outlined by Dr. Sun was as follows:

(1) Land owners themselves assess the value of their land holdings.

(2) The government levies a tax on the land equivalent to one percent of its assessed value to meet local social and financial needs.

(3) The government may buy back the land at the assessed value if the assessments made by the land owners are deemed too low.

(4) After the land values have been fixed, all unearned increases in land values should revert to the community as a whole.

There are three ways in which the farmers may become land owners; namely, through better protection of tenant farmers by limiting profits to land-owners, creation of farmer owner, and the expropriation of large estates to farmer-owners or collective farms. Practical steps to accomplish include land survey and registration, the collection of taxes on land value and unearned increase, the expropriation and replotting of land, and the reclamation of wasteland.

The Land Administration under the Ministry of Interior is in charge of land affairs. It has five departments—namely, survey and registration, evaluation, ownership, utilization, and general affairs. Also under the administration are the National Land Survey Corps and the Land Survey Apparatus Manufacturing Plant.

The Land Administration was established in 1949. Its predecessor was the Ministry of Land under the Executive Yuan set up in 1947. Prior to that there were the National Land Administration of the same Yuan, the Department of Land Administration and the Land Value Assessment Administration in the Ministry of Interior.

The provinces and the special municipalities also have their land administration bureaus or sections. By the end of 1947, 22 provinces and eight municipalities had established land administration bureaus, and six provinces and municipalities land administration sections.

The *hsien* governments had by the end of 1947, 698 land administration sections or survey and registration offices.

TABLE 1—ACREAGE OF CULTIVATED AND CULTIVABLE LAND AND NUMBER OF FARM HOUSEHOLDS IN 22 PROVINCES

Province	Total Land Area (1,000 <i>Shih Mow</i>)	Cultivated Land (1,000 <i>Shih Mow</i>)	Cultivated Land as Percentage of Total Land Area	Arable Land (1,000 <i>Shih Mow</i>)	Arable Land Percentage of Total Land Area	House- holds (in 1,000)	Farm House- holds (in 1,000)	Farm House- holds Per- centage of Total Households	Average <i>Shih</i> <i>Mow</i> of Cul- tivated Land per Farm Household
Chahar	377,530	15,519	4.1	161,394	42.75	394	309	78	50
Suiyuan	466,567	17,178	3.7	91,914	19.70	367	250	68	69
Ningsia	350,005	1,847	0.5	40,503	11.57	76	54	71	34
Chinghai	792,128	7,808	1.0	61,311	7.74	230	169	73	46
Kansu	584,056	21,667	3.7	16,421	2.81	1,076	793	74	27
Shensi	279,985	30,870	11.0	12,683	4.53	1,897	1,385	73	22
Shansi	257,060	30,812	12.1	9,820	3.82	2,263	1,874	83	30
Hopei	206,891	95,323	46.1	6,496	3.14	5,474	4,224	77	23
Shantung	219,457	101,986	46.5	13,694	6.24	6,740	5,918	88	17
Kiangsu	163,216	84,482	51.8	3,982	2.44	7,151	5,057	71	17
Anhui	217,073	74,316	22.7	9,074	4.18	3,789	2,682	71	18
Honan	276,877	104,123	37.6	8,362	3.02	6,029	5,062	84	21
Hupeh	288,906	56,227	19.5	20,166	6.98	5,913	3,960	67	14
Szechwan	591,264	88,724	15.0	22,586	3.82	7,264	4,975	68	18
Yunnan	592,464	24,998	4.2	59,246	10.00	1,947	1,384	71	18
Kweichow	260,780	21,197	8.1	18,072	6.93	1,769	1,193	67	18
Hunan	325,577	42,036	12.9	37,279	11.45	5,538	3,900	70	11
Kiangsi	271,736	38,366	14.1	13,850	5.10	4,942	3,292	67	12
Chekiang	144,635	37,978	26.3	2,763	1.91	4,658	3,165	68	12
Fukien	188,771	21,464	11.4	18,330	9.71	2,288	1,626	71	13
Kwangtung	339,742	39,124	11.5	26,704	7.86	5,635	3,479	62	11
Kwangsi	278,973	29,893	10.7	8,591	3.08	2,638	2,260	86	13
TOTAL	7,473,693	985,938	(Weighted average) 13.2	663,241	8.87	78,078	57,011	(Weighted average) 73	(Weighted average) 17

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

Land survey and registration began in nine provinces and two special municipalities before the war, but the work was interrupted by the 1937 war. In 1939, however, the Ministry of Interior, then in charge of land administration, ordered the resumption of the work in the interior. This first covered urban areas, such as Sian in Shensi, Tienshui in Kansu, Kunming in Yunnan, and Chengtu, Wanhien, Ipin, Tzeliutsing, and Chungking in Szechwan.

Immediately after the war ended, land survey and registration were started in the recovered provinces, while work in the interior was continued. At the end of June, 1948, 21 provinces and seven municipalities (directly under the Executive Yuan) reported that 227,862,588 *mow* of land (see Table 2) had been covered in the survey.

OWNER FARMERS

The Land Administration agrarian reform program aims at creating owner farmers by expropriating and redistributing land, by extending land credits to the farmers in cooperation with the Farmers' Bank of China.

Two methods of creating owner farmers have been in use. The direct method requires the expropriation and redistribution of land by the Government, while the indirect method calls for the extension of land credit by the Farmers' Bank to tenant farmers to enable them to purchase the plots they till. Between 1943 and 1947, the Farmers' Bank granted a total of CNC\$339,625,674 in land loans in more than 20 provinces. These loans covered 515,460 *mow* of land and benefited 39,839 farm households.

TABLE 2—TOTAL AREA OF LAND SURVEYED 1934-48

Unit: *Mow*

Province or Municipality	To End of 1947	To End of 1948	Total Area Surveyed †
Kiangsu.....	20,121,111	858,421	20,979,532
Chekiang.....	26,444,535	..	26,444,535
Anhwei.....	16,836,954	94,504	16,931,458
Kiangsi.....	34,539,861	1,904,927	36,444,788
Hupei.....	11,302,396	816,909	12,119,305
Hunan.....	11,793,564	575,128	12,368,692
Szechwan.....	11,765,509	..	11,765,509
Sikang.....	518,857	61,349	580,206
Fukien.....	2,144,869	695,158	2,840,027
Kwangtung.....	15,648,745	1,058,679	16,707,424
Kwangsi.....	2,609,790	283,846	2,893,636
Yunnan.....	1,637,744	573,856	2,211,600
Kweichow.....	1,171,072	2,770	1,173,842
Shantung.....	20,414	334,042	354,456
Honan.....	3,116,961	..	3,116,961
Shansi.....	6,000	15,000	21,000
Shensi.....	17,013,302	600,950	17,614,252
Kansu.....	15,579,483	3,344,460	18,923,943
Jehol.....	15,061	..	15,061
Suiyuan.....	16,451,909	1,030,800	17,482,709
Ningsia.....	4,883,007	54,000	4,937,007
Nanking.....	201,821	..	201,821
Shanghai.....	429,735	..	429,735
Peiping.....	377,818	960	378,778
Tientsin.....	181,698	10,022	191,720
Tsiangtao.....	78,441	37,583	116,024
Chungking.....	441,464	..	441,464
Canton.....	33,953	143,150	177,103
TOTAL.....	215,366,074	12,496,514	227,862,588

Source: Ministry of Land

TABLE 3—PERCENTAGE OF OWNER FARMERS, 1937-47

Province	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Chahar.....	57	51
Suiyuan.....	68	66	65	74	74	74	78	68	78	73	53
Ningsia.....	51	61	58	61	51	51	55	58	55	65	74
Chinghai.....	61	66	59	62	61	60	59	63	63	63	55
Kansu.....	61	57	55	58	57	56	59	58	55	61	65
Shensi.....	65	58
Shansi.....	70	60
Hopei.....	75	51
Shantung.....	39	68
Kiangsu.....	40	42
Anhwei.....	58	45	48	51	59	57	56	49	52	53	36
Honan.....	39	37	36	40	35	36	46	46	43	45	58
Hupeh.....	24	28	28	31	29	29	32	33	32	30	43
Szechwan.....	32	34	32	34	36	36	34	36	35	37	32
Yunnan.....	32	34	33	35	34	34	34	36	35	33	40
Kweichow.....	27	26	27	28	29	28	28	29	31	28	35
Hunan.....	27	26	29	29	27	28	30	31	28	34	31
Kiangsi.....	25	21	21	23	18	21	23	22	23	34	32
Chekang.....	26	27	25	26	25	26	29	30	27	24	23
Fukien.....	21	23	22	24	21	20	18	19	21	22	30
Kwangtung.....	41	44	41	41	44	44	45	45	59	42	21
Kwangsi.....	46	35	35	37	37	38	39	42	40	40	49
WT. AVERAGE.....	46	35	35	37	37	38	39	42	40	40	42

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 4—PERCENTAGE OF TENANT FARMERS, 1937-47

Province	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Chahar.....	32	21	25
Suiyuan.....	18	21	16	10	15	14	15	13	13	13	14
Ningsia.....	19	18	18	21	24	28	18	21	18	18	23
Chinghai.....	19	16	22	18	18	21	22	18	17	17	17
Kansu.....	18	22	25	22	23	25	21	24	26	21	24
Shensi.....	15	18
Shansi.....	11	21
Hopei.....	10	12
Shantung.....	34	29
Kiangsu.....	37	39
Anhui.....	20	29	26	26	20	21	24	26	23	22	21
Honan.....	36	39	42	35	42	43	33	30	33	31	33
Hupei.....	52	50	49	48	48	48	47	44	45	48	47
Szechwan.....	42	37	41	40	36	38	40	34	42	32	35
Yunnan.....	44	41	43	38	41	41	42	34	39	39	40
Kweichow.....	44	43	39	42	42	39	43	43	43	42	40
Hunan.....	38	41	41	35	36	42	33	33	42	42	34
Kiangsi.....	45	44	43	38	41	42	39	37	36	36	42
Chekiang.....	42	43	41	41	41	40	39	40	42	44	40
Fukien.....	47	42	42	38	46	47	44	60	52	47	44
Kwangtung.....	34	29	32	35	31	30	30	29	20	29	29
Kwangsi.....	30	38	38	36	36	36	36	33	36	35	33
WT. AVERAGE.....	30	38	38	36	36	36	36	33	36	35	33

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

TABLE 5—PERCENTAGE OF PART-OWNER FARMERS, 1937-47

Province	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Chahar.....	11	13	19	16	11	12	7	19	9	12	24
Suiyuan.....	14	21	24	18	25	21	27	21	17	17	21
Ningsia.....	30	18	19	20	21	19	19	19	20	20	22
Chinghai.....	20	21	20	20	20	19	20	18	19	18	18
Kansu.....	21	21	20	20	20	19	20	18	19	18	18
Shensi.....	20	21	20	20	20	19	20	18	19	18	18
Shansi.....	20	21	20	20	20	19	20	18	19	18	18
Hopei.....	19	21	20	20	20	19	20	18	19	18	18
Shantung.....	15	21	20	20	20	19	20	18	19	18	18
Shantung.....	15	21	20	20	20	19	20	18	19	18	18
Kiangsu.....	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Anhui.....	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23
Honan.....	22	26	26	23	21	22	20	25	25	25	25
Hupeh.....	25	24	22	25	23	21	21	24	24	24	21
Szechwan.....	24	22	23	21	23	23	21	23	23	24	24
Yunnan.....	26	29	27	26	28	26	26	30	23	31	21
Kweichow.....	24	25	24	27	25	25	24	30	26	28	25
Hunan.....	29	31	34	30	29	33	29	28	26	30	29
Kiangsi.....	35	33	30	36	37	33	37	36	30	24	34
Chekiang.....	30	35	36	39	41	37	38	41	41	41	35
Fukien.....	32	30	34	33	34	34	32	30	31	32	30
Kwangtung.....	32	35	36	38	33	33	38	21	27	31	35
Kwangsi.....	25	27	27	24	25	26	25	26	21	29	22
Wt. AVERAGE.....	24	27	27	27	27	26	25	25	24	25	25

Source: National Agricultural Research Bureau

Land expropriated for owner farmers is restricted to absentee holdings. The government distributes the land thus expropriated directly to the tenants who pay the owners out of long-term and low-interest loan from the government. This method has been used in designated districts throughout the provinces.

Three owner farmer experimental areas were set up in Peipei, Szechwan; the Huanghui irrigation canal area, Kansu; and Lungyen, Fukien.

(1) *Peipei, Szechwan.* At Peipei, near Chungking, over 64 percent of the land had been tilled by tenants, and the rental in many cases had been as high as 80 percent of the total produce.

In 1943, the government selected an area in Peipei and expropriated all holdings of all absentee owners and redistributed them among the tillers. Although the land consists of 1,700 *mow* divided into 80 farm households, the entire district organized itself into co-operative farms which led to a 30 percent increase in production. In 1942, 1,287 piculs of the 1,839 piculs of farm produce were turned over to the landlords as rent. The yield of 1945 was 2,400 piculs of which less than 300 piculs were paid out as taxes and yearly installments to repay the loans which had enabled the farmers to buy the land from their original owners.

(2) *Huanghui Irrigation Area, Kansu.* The Huanghui irrigation canal in the Lanchow-Yungteng area completed in 1943 waters an area of 30,000 *mow*, which formerly consisted mainly of waste land. After the construction of the canal, agricultural yield increased immensely, creating a series of tenancy and ownership problems. The government, therefore, took steps to expropriate the land, breaking them into free holdings and cutting the absentee owners of undeserved benefits.

All farmers in the Huanghui irrigation area, 4,000 strong, now own the land they till. The average holding is about five *mow*, a little less than one acre.

(3) *Lungyen, Fukien.* Lungyen suffered from communist occupation in 1929, and later from the mutiny of the 19th Route Army. Landownership was left in utter confusion and relationship between the land owners and tenants was hostile. The government stepped in to redistribute land among the tillers. This resulted in the creation of 32,276 households of owner farmers tilling 267,399 *mow* of land.

PROTECTION OF TENANTS

(1) *Reduction of Rent by 25 Percent.* Immediately after the war, the government drafted a legislation which called for the reduction of land rent by 25 percent. Twenty-four provinces reported the adoption of the measure in 1945, and other provinces followed suit in 1946.

(2) *Landowner-Tenant Relations.* To improve relations between the land owners and the tenants investigations were conducted. Arbitration committees were formed in ten *hsien* in Kiangsu, 46 *hsien* in Chekiang, 18 in Kiangsi, 24 in Anhwei, 28 in Honan, 20 in Kwangtung, 30 in Kwangsi, 9 in Hupeh, 39 in Hunan, three in Suiyuan, 2 in Hopei, and 1 each in Shantung and Shansi, where disputes were comparatively serious.

The provinces were ordered to adhere strictly to all provisions in the *Land Law* as well as to the separate regulations enacted by the provinces.

DISTRIBUTION OF LAND

Land reform was the top-priority civil administration job in the pacification areas, places recovered from the communists. The government hoped to find a rational and fundamental solution to the question of land utilization and distribution. The program respected the legitimate rights of land owners on one hand and gave full protection to the peasants on the other. Its ultimate objective was "land to the tiller" and co-operative farming as advocated by Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

Land ownership rights in the Pacification Areas were in utter confusion as a result of the arbitrary redistribution of land by the communists. Such illegal redistribution brought about disputes and conflicts between the rightful owners and those who obtained land through the high-handed communist action.

The government's program covered the disposition of farm land, city estates and buildings, the arbitration of land rights controversies, the issuance of land bonds, and provisions for the implementation of the program.

(1) *Eight Principles Adopted.* For the settlement of farm land problems in the pacification areas, the Government program placed special emphasis on eight important principles, embodied in the "Regulations Governing Land Administration in Pacification Areas," which were promulgated on October 25, 1946. They read as follows:

1. Farm land illegally redistributed during communist occupation shall be expropriated by the *hsien* (county) government and then leased to tenants for cultivation. The original owners shall be paid in land bonds issued in yearly installments.

2. Army personnel leasing expropriated land from the government must do the tilling himself. Such land shall not be sub-let. Meanwhile, the tenant shall pay in kind and in annual installments the assessed price of the land. When the full price is paid, the land shall belong to the tenant.

3. In leasing, the original tenant before communist redistribution of the land shall have priority. Those who till the land now shall come second. After them come veterans and family members of servicemen who are capable of farming.

4. Land belonging to owner farmers, whether or not it has been illegally redistributed, shall not be subject to expropriation and shall be returned to the original owners upon presentation of credentials or testimonials furnished by *pao* and *chia* chiefs and neighbors.

5. Land belonging to non-farming owners which has not been illegally redistributed shall remain in the hands of its original owners upon their presentation of credentials or testimonials of *pao* and *chia* chiefs and neighbors. The land shall continue to be tilled by the present tenants. The rent shall not exceed one-third of the main crop the land yields.

6. Any controversy in land rights shall be arbitrated by the land rights arbitration committee. If either party to the controversy is not satisfied with the decision handed down by the committee, the case may be brought to court.

7. The government shall direct farmers leasing expropriated land to organize cooperative farms and may help in their management.

8. Rents due during communist occupation but remain unpaid shall be exempt.

Land reforms along the lines indicated were effected in all areas recovered from the communists. In 1946, the Executive Yuan selected 14 *hsien* in Kiangsu, Shantung, Hopei, Chahar, and Shensi as experimental areas. The Kiangsu provincial government expropriated 105,865 *mow* of land in Hwaiyin. Tungtai, Hsinghwa and Suchien for the creation of cooperative farms.

To finance the project, the Farmers' Bank of China issued special land bonds for the pacification areas to enable the farmers to purchase the land they till.

(2) *New Regulations Drafted.* On August 18, 1948, the Executive Yuan adopted the *Proposed Regulations Governing Land Administration in Pacification Areas*, which, when approved by the Legislative Yuan, were to replace all existing regulations on the subject.

The gist of the regulations follows:

1. Land in the pacification areas originally belonging to owner farmers shall be returned to its original owners upon presentation of documentary evidence or testimonials furnished by *pao* and *chia* chiefs and neighbors.

2. In the case of first-class land five *mow* shall be the standard size to be returned to each original owner in the pacification areas, who does not till the land himself. Any excessive land shall be expropriated by the *hsien* government and the original owner shall be paid in land bonds in yearly installments. Such bonds, to be issued by the Farmers' Bank of China, shall be in kind (rice, wheat, etc.) and the period of redemption shall be within 15 years of issuance.

3. Rental to be collected by non-farming owners may not exceed one-third of the main crop or of the value of its annual yield. The land tax shall be paid by the owners.

4. Rents unpaid during communist occupation shall be exempt. Taxes shall be exempted for three years in the case of newly reclaimed land.

5. All expropriated land shall be redistributed or resold to actual tillers by the *hsien* government in the following order of priority: (a) present tiller, (b) original tenant before the communist occupation, (c) war veterans or family members of servicemen who can farm and (d) any one who can farm. The sale of such land shall be paid in kind in yearly installments to the Farmers' Bank of China according to the assessed price.

6. War veterans and family members of servicemen shall enjoy priority in purchasing public land, wasteland and land in the pacification areas without identifiable owners.

7. The government shall direct the owner farmers to organize cooperative farms and shall also take necessary steps to finance such projects.

The Ministry of Finance working in conjunction with the former Ministry of Land adopted *Regulations Governing the Issuance of Land Bonds in the Pacification Areas by the Farmers' Bank of China*. They were approved by the Executive Yuan on October 20, 1948.

The gist of these regulations follows:

1. Land bonds shall be issued in kind (in rice or wheat) in five denominations: one, five, 10, 50 and 100 piculs, with an annual interest of not more than two percent, to be redeemed not later than 15 years.

2. The bonds shall be secured on the land expropriated in the pacification areas and its income, and on the payments made by those farmers who purchase land from the Farmers' Bank of China and the collateral they offer for the purchase.

3. The bonds shall be redeemed plus interest, in equal annual installments, but payment of such installments either in full or in part may be advanced. The payment of the first installment shall be effected one year after the issuance of the bonds.

4. The payment shall be in kind or in terms of the prevailing currency converted from rice or wheat at the local market rate.

5. *The Farmers' Bank of China Land Bond Law* shall apply in regard to matters not otherwise provided for in these regulations.

REGIONAL LAND REFORM

Conforming with the National Government's *Land Law* and other related regulations, the provincial and local authorities drew up their own land reform programs for their respective areas. Considerable success has been achieved, especially in Taiwan. The twofold objectives of these regional reforms are to create more owner farmers and to check excessive landlordism.

The following are samples of regional measures:

(1) *Taiwan*. The provincial government of Taiwan adopted a series of regulations governing the reduction of land rental to the maximum rate of 375/1000 in April, 1949, which were immediately put into enforcement. By June, 284,675 new leases were concluded in accordance with the new regulations. More than 97 percent of the tenant farmers have been benefited.

Over 17 percent of the farmers in Taiwan are tenants. They formerly paid a land rental sometimes as high as 70 percent of the total harvest each

year. The enforcement of the new measures has enabled them to increase their income by one-third or one-fourth. The total amount of land rent paid by the Taiwan farmers in 1949 takes only 37.37 percent of the total crops harvested.

The reduction of land rental has been one of the most important measures for land administration promoted by the National Government during the past two decades, but so far only Taiwan has carried it out thoroughly.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING THE LEASE OF PRIVATE FARM LAND IN TAIWAN

Article 1. For the improvement of the system of tenancy and the stability of rural society, the present regulations are enacted in addition to the Land Law and other laws and regulations.

Article 2. The lease of private farm land in this province shall, before the land value is assessed, be based upon the provisions of the Order No. 11-10050 of the Executive Yuan issued in March, 1947. The rental for the leased land shall not exceed 375/1000 of the total amount of the regular crop. Any rental exceeding 375/1000 shall be reduced to 375/1000, and any lower than 375/1000 may be maintained according to the original contract.

The above mentioned regular crop shall be those crops customarily submitted, and the standard of the amount of the total production shall be fixed, with reference to related data and to local conditions, by the local committee for the promotion of the land rental reduction to 375/1000 in the various *hsien* and municipalities, to be reported to the provincial government for approval.

Article 3. When the lessor refuses to accept the rent without appropriate reasons, the lessee may deposit the said products submitted in the granary of the local cooperative upon the verification of the chief of the local *hsiang* or *chen*, or the local *ling* or *li*, with fees for the custody to be paid by the lessor. If there is no local granary, the lessee may store the products and inform the lessor to take the said products within three months, after which the lessee may request the chief of the *hsiang* or *chen* to sell the products according to market prices, all necessary fees to be paid by the lessor.

The government may collect the taxes from the above amount of products deposited or sold.

Article 4. The date and place for the payment of rent shall be fixed in the lease. Transportation charges of payment in kind shall be paid by the lessor.

The products to be paid in kind shall be the regular crop of good quality and the lessee may not add water and other undesirable materials to the products. The products shall be weighed with government fixed weights.

Article 5. After the enforcement of the present regulations, seeds, and other productive implements needed by the lessee and originally supplied by the lessor shall be continued to be supplied by the lessor in accordance with the provisions of Article 121 of the Land Law. The lessor may not refuse to do so under any pretext.

Article 6. The lessee, when making special improvements on the land in accordance with provisions of Article 119 of the Land Law, shall inform the lessor the amount of improvement fee, and such shall be noted in the lease in detail.

Article 7. After the enforcement of the present Regulations, the payment of irrigation charges and other taxes and levies shall be separately prescribed.

Article 8. When the crop is poor, the lessor and the lessee may negotiate for a reduction of the rental according to local customary practice. The rental of any land having a crop of not more than 20 percent of the normal crop shall be exempted.

Article 9. The lessor may not terminate a lease unless he does so in accordance with the provisions of Articles 109 and 114 of the Land Law or Article 27 of the *Law Governing the Enforcement of the Land Law*.

Article 10. When the lessee refuses to pay the rent without any reason, the landowner may petition to the local government for investigation and when the case is transferred to the court, provisional disposition may be imposed on the lessee.

Article 11. In the event of the lessor taking back the land for self-cultivation according to law, the acreage of land to be allotted to each family shall be restricted, to be fixed, taking into consideration local conditions, by the local committee for the promotion of rental reduction to 375/1000 in the various *hsien* and municipalities and to be submitted to the provincial government for approval.

Article 12. The contract of a lease shall be made in writing, the registration and alteration of which shall be separately prescribed.

Article 13. If the lessor will not register or change the lease according to law, the lessee may request the local *hsiang* or *chen* office to inform the lessor to do so in a specified period of time. Any lessor who fails to comply will be dealt with in accordance with the provisions of Article 15.

Article 14. When a lease is cancelled or terminated, the lessor and the lessee shall register with the local *hsiang* or *chen* office and present an agreement verified by the local *ling* and *li* chiefs.

Article 15. After the enforcement of the present regulations, any dispute between the lessor and the lessee shall be settled by the local *hsiang* or *chen* arbitration committee. If no conciliation can be reached, settlement shall be sought from the committee for the promotion of rental reduction to 375/1000 in the various *hsien* or municipalities. If there is still no settlement, the case shall be brought to the local judicial organs.

Before a settlement is obtained for the above mentioned dispute, the land shall be continued to be cultivated by the original lessee.

Article 16. To facilitate the enforcement of the present regulations, a provincial supervisory committee for the promotion of land rental reduction to 375/1000 shall be formed, while in *hsien* and municipalities, committees for the promotion of land rental reduction to 375/1000 shall be formed. The organization of these committees shall be separately prescribed.

Article 17. Detailed measures for the enforcement of the present regulations shall be separately prescribed.

Article 18. The present regulations shall become effective from the date of promulgation and shall be reported to the Executive Yuan for record.

(2) *Shansi.* The Shansi Provincial Government's "Soldier-Farmer Policy" was placed on an experimental basis in western Shansi in 1943. With the termination of the war, it was extended to other parts of the province.

This is how it worked before the communists occupied the province: (a) The landlords retained their ownership and received an equitable amount of rent in kind. (b) The right to use the land was given to able-bodied men between 18 and 47 years of age. (c)

They were divided into six-men (or three-men) teams, each team to be allotted sufficient land to support its members and their families. (d) Two of the six men (or one of the three) were to enlist in the armed forces. The remaining four (or two) tilled the land and supported the six (or three) families. At the same time they must enroll in the local militia corps. (e) The team paid the taxes.

All farm lands were divided into lots by the farmers' organizations under government direction and supervision. A landlord with an annual income of five or less piculs of wheat was required to donate 20 percent of his income to public relief funds. The donations were fixed on a progressive scale, depending upon the annual income of the landlord. No landlord could reclaim his land because under the new system all tenants enjoyed *yung-tien* or permanent-lease rights.

Ex-Governor Yen Hsi-shan believed the "Soldier-Farmer Policy" was not merely a wartime expedient but was to stay. It was an economic-political system, the enforcement of which devolved on the educational and social foundation of the local government machine. The term "soldier" denoted any officer or man in the armed forces as well as any one engaged in defense activities. "Farmer" applied not only to those who worked in the field but also to industrial and transport workers, miners, woodsmen and shepherds.

(3) *Five North China Provinces.* Hopei, Chahar, Suiyuan, and parts of Shansi and Jehol were under the command of General Fu Tso-yi in 1946-48. Land administration and titles in these provinces had been thrown into a state of confusion as a result of communist disturbances. The North China Bandits Suppression Headquarters saw the need to establish the North China Land Administration Committee on August 1, 1948.

Its principal motive was to create owner farmers. While private land ownership still existed, adequate measures were taken to protect the tenants.

Measures adopted in the five north China provinces conformed to those of the National Government. A comparatively drastic feature was the levy placed on the non-farming owners whose land had been expropriated. Upon receipt of payment for expropriated land, each landlord must pay a specified amount of this levy to the authorities.

Half of the proceeds from such levies was used to benefit the owner farmers; the other half to help the new owner farmers pay their taxes. The latter, however, had to be able to pay annual installments on the land they purchased.

Under the new regulations local organizations of tenant and owner farmers were empowered to apportion land. The government provided guidance and supervision. The present tenants, war veterans and their families, and families of officers and men in active service had priority in acquiring land thus redistributed.

The right to utilize land by the present tillers was recognized. Land whose owners had fled during communist occupation and had made no contribution to the bandits suppression campaign was taken over by the government without compensation. Land belonging to the communists was confiscated. Excessive land holdings even of owner farmers were also expropriated. The object of future farm operations was: Organized cooperative farms.

(4) *Kwangsi.* The Kwangsi Provincial Government set out in 1947 to restrict land ownership. It ruled that each family may not own more than 50 *mow* of high-grade land or 75 *mow* of middle grade land, or 100 *mow* of low-grade land. The ownership of dry land may be doubled in size. Any family of over 10 persons may possess more land, but the maximum holding may not exceed 100 *mow* of high-grade land, or 150 *mow* of middle-grade land, or 200 *mow* of low-grade land. Any excessive land will be expropriated for redistribution. All privately-owned wasteland, if not cultivated within a specified period of time, may be confiscated for redistribution. The price for the purchase of the excessive land will be the sum total of 375/1000 of seven years' rental, to be paid in 15 annual installments.

Redistribution was to be made in the following order: (a) The original tenants or farm hands, (b) war veterans or their families who can farm, (c) tenants or farm hands living in the village where the land is located, (d) owner farmers living in the village, (e) productive cooperatives of the village, (f) tenants, farm hands or owner farmers living in neighboring villages, and (g) public welfare organizations or schools.

The reform plan was being applied to about one-fifth of the *hsien* in Kwangsi before the Red tide submerged the province.

(5) *Other Provinces.* Shensi, Kansu, Yunnan and Kiangsi adopted similar measures to restrict land-ownership and create more owner farmers. In the purchase of excessive land holdings, priority was generally given to the original tenants, war veterans, or part-owner farmers.

The excessive holdings must be sold within a specified period of time, generally two years, or they would be expropriated by the government for redistribution.

Measures adopted by the Kansu and Yunnan provincial governments also covered urban and pastoral lands. Land for building purposes was generally limited to 5 to 10 *mow*. The ownership of farm land in Kansu was limited to 300 *mow*.

OVERALL REFORM PROPOSED

On September 21, 1948, Hsiao Cheng, member of the Legislative Yuan and former vice-minister of economic affairs, and 85 other legislators presented a resolution on land reform. The bill, known as the *Agricultural Land Reform Bill*, was based on a study made by the Chinese Land Reform Association, of which Mr. Hsiao is president.

It advocates the immediate enforcement of Dr. Sun Yat-sen's policy of "land to the tiller," aiming at the eradication of landlordism. It has aroused sharp controversies among members of the Legislative Yuan and those who are interested in land economy. Debates and discussions have taken place both in and out of the Legislative Yuan. While many regarded the enforcement of Dr. Sun's program as the only way to solve China's land problem, others thought the traditional gentry-scholar system should be preserved. They felt that if Dr. Sun's policy should be enforced, this is hardly the opportune time to do so. The bill was still being deliberated by the Land Committee of the Legislative Yuan by the end of 1948.

In the meantime, Pan Lien-fang, another member of the Legislative Yuan, and 42 other members have proposed another bill, advocating the ownership of farm land by the tiller, the ownership of land in the urban areas by the municipal governments, and the ownership of

all natural resources by the states. Kung Keng and 33 other legislators have proposed a third bill on the adoption of an overall agricultural policy so that the problems of production and land could be solved once and for all.

Hsiao Cheng's *Agricultural Land Reform Bill*. It represents the views and opinions of many land administration and economic experts and consists of 19 articles. In introducing it Mr. Hsiao said: "The seriousness of our farm land problem is at the root of all our troubles and thus holds the key to the very existence of our nation. Present laws and regulations are inadequate. Thoroughgoing reforms must be effected before the suppression of the communist rebellion can be successfully prosecuted and the foundation for national reconstruction can be well laid."

Its main points are:

1. Farm land throughout the country shall be owned by actual tillers. All land not tilled by the owners shall be expropriated and redistributed. This applies to public-owned land, whether or not under cultivation, except what is laid aside for specially designated purposes. Excessive land holdings of farmer-owners shall also be expropriated.

2. The expropriated land shall be redistributed among tenants and to those whose holdings are too small in the following order: (a) present tenants, (b) present farm hands, (c) dependents of farmers now in active military service, (d) owner farmers whose holdings are too small to support a family of eight, and (e) others who are in need of land. Maintenance of a family of eight shall, therefore, be set as the standard for owner farmers.

3. The original owners of the expropriated land shall receive from the new owner farmers compensation for the land a sum not more than seven times the annual income of the land in question. This shall be paid in 14 annual installments. The owner farmers shall, after paying the first installment, pay the land tax which shall not be over 10 percent of the value of the main crops until the 14 annual installments are paid up. No other levies shall be made on such land. In case of famine or crop failure, the installments may be deferred either in part or in full.

4. The ownership of land belonging to servicemen, though not being tilled by their own family members, shall be protected by preferential treatment. Title to land belonging to veterans or families of officers and men killed in action shall

likewise be protected. Such land shall not be larger in size than the standard fixed for each ordinary owner farmer. The government is to purchase farms for those families of servicemen who have no land at all.

5. Farm implements and establishments are to be sold by the original owners to the new owner farmers at equitable prices. Whenever necessary, the government banks shall grant the latter special loans for such purchases.

6. Long-term loans at a low interest rate shall be made available by government banks to new farmers for production and operational use.

7. The government shall direct the organization of agricultural cooperatives and cooperative farms.

8. Unproductive areas and those too small shall be resurveyed and redivided.

9. After the land is redistributed according to these regulations, no resale shall be permitted. Only owner farmers shall be allowed to purchase land.

10. *Hsiang* or *chen* land reform committees shall be responsible for the registration, redistribution and collection of the annual installments under the supervision of the local government. Such committees shall each be composed of three tenants, one farm hand, one owner farmer, one landlord, one government representative, one expert, and one representative of local land reform association.

11. Six months after the promulgation of this Law, all provincial and municipal governments in the country shall enact detailed regulations and programs for its enforcement, which shall be completed within one year.

THE LAND LAW

(Revised and promulgated by the National Government on April 29, 1946. It went into effect the same day, simultaneously with the *Law Governing the Application of the Land Law*.)

PART I

GENERAL PROVISIONS

CHAPTER I

LEGAL PROVISIONS AND DEFINITIONS

Article 1. The term "land" in this Law refers to water, land, and natural resources.

Article 2. Land shall be divided, in accordance with its utilization, into the following classes:

Class 1. Architectural land, such as: residences, government buildings, public

buildings, schools, factories, godowns, parks, amusement centers, public organizations, temples, churches, city walls, military barracks, fortresses, ports, wharves, air bases, cemeteries.

Class 2. Land utilized for direct production, such as farms, forests, fishery areas, pastures, game reserves, mines, salt beds, water sources, and ponds.

Class 3. Land utilized for communications and conservancy, such as roads, sewers, canals, bogs, lakes, bays, coasts, embankments and dykes.

Class 4. Other kinds of land, such as deserts and snow-capped mountains.

The various classes of land referred to above may be reduced to sub-divisions.

Article 3. Unless otherwise provided, the present law shall be enforced by land administrative organs.

Article 4. "Public land" refers to land owned by the State, a province, a municipality, a *hsien*, a village or town.

Article 5. "Improvements" consist of two classes: architectural and agricultural. Buildings or structures are architectural improvements; crops and other plants, irrigation and soil improvements are agricultural improvements.

Article 6. The term "self-cultivation" refers to the tilling of land undertaken by the owner himself; the cultivation of land directly for the maintenance of the livelihood of the whole family (of the tiller) shall be considered self-cultivation.

Article 7. The term "land debentures" refers to debentures issued by a land bank in accordance with law.

Article 8. The term "absentee landowner" refers to a landowner under any of the following conditions:

(1) Where the land-owner and his family have left the locality of the land in question continuously for three years;

(2) In the case of land under joint-ownership, where all the joint owners have left the locality of the land concerned continuously for one year; and

(3) In the case of land owned by a business corporation, where the corporation has suspended operations in the locality of the land concerned continuously for one year.

The provisions of the preceding paragraph shall not apply in the case of a landowner who left the locality of the land concerned on account of military service, school training, public service, natural or social disturbances.

Article 9. The enforcement law for this law shall be enacted separately.

CHAPTER II

LAND RIGHTS

Article 10. Land within the territory of the Republic of China belongs to the whole body of the citizens of the Republic of China, and such portions the ownership of which has been acquired by citizens in accordance with law shall be private land. Private land, the ownership rights over which have ceased to exist, shall become state-owned land.

Article 11. The creation of rights other than ownership over land shall be subject to the provisions of the Civil Code.

Article 12. When private land, due to natural changes, has been turned into lakes, bogs, and navigable water-courses, the ownership rights shall be considered to have ceased to exist.

When such land reverts to its original condition, the original ownership shall be restored upon the production of original documents of ownership and evidence thereof.

Article 13. When additional land naturally accretes to a lake, bog, navigable water-course, or coastal area, due to natural changes in the lie of the water, the owner of the land adjacent shall enjoy preference in acquiring according to law ownership or the right of beneficial usage.

CHAPTER III

RESTRICTIONS OF LAND RIGHTS

Article 14. Land included in the categories below shall not be privately owned:

(1) Land within a specified limit of the sea coast;

(2) Lakes and bogs formed by nature and needed for public use, as well as land within a specified limit of their banks;

(3) Navigable water-course and land within a specified limit of their banks;

(4) Water-course and lakes and bogs within cities and market towns, and land within specified limits of their banks;

(5) Roads used for public communications;

(6) Mineral springs;

(7) Waterfalls;

(8) Water sources for public use;

(9) Scenic and historic spot; and

(10) Land otherwise prohibited by law to be owned privately.

Where land included in the above-mentioned categories is already privately owned, it may be expropriated by process of law.

Article 15. Mineral deposits shall not become private property through the acquisition of ownership of the land concerned. Mineral deposits referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be limited to such classes as are provided in the Mining Law.

Article 16. The National Government may stop transfer of, creation of an encumbrance on, or lease of the ownership of, private land when it considers such acts prejudicial to national policy.

Article 17. Land included in the undermentioned categories shall not be transferred, encumbered, or leased, to a foreign national:

- (1) Agricultural land
- (2) Forest
- (3) Fisheries
- (4) Pasture
- (5) Game reserves
- (6) Salt beds
- (7) Mines
- (8) Water sources
- (9) Forts, military areas, and land on territorial borders.

Article 18. The acquisition of land rights in the Republic of China by a foreign national, or the creation of an encumbrance on land in favour of a foreign national, shall be restricted to a foreign national whose own country has entered with the Republic of China treaties on basis of equality and reciprocity, provided that the laws of that country permit the enjoyment of similar rights by a citizen of the Republic of China.

Article 19. A foreign national, for any one of the undermentioned purposes, may lease or purchase land, the area and location of which shall be subject to the limitations imposed by the local municipal of *hsien* government in accordance with law:

- (1) Residence
- (2) Business premises or factories
- (3) Churches
- (4) Hospitals
- (5) Schools for foreign children
- (6) Diplomatic and consular establishments, and premises for public welfare organizations.
- (7) Cemeteries.

Article 20. A foreign national leasing or purchasing land in accordance with the needs referred to in the preceding Article shall apply, jointly with

the original owner of the land, to the competent municipal or *hsien* government for approval.

When there is a change of usage to other than one provided in the preceding Article, or a transfer of land covered by the preceding paragraph, application shall be made to the competent municipal or *hsien* government for approval. The competent municipal or *hsien* government, on giving approval to cases referred to in the two preceding paragraphs, shall submit reports to the Executive Yuan through its superiors.

Article 21. A foreign national engaged in an industrial enterprise which has been specially authorized by the National Government in accordance with the relevant legislation, may purchase or lease land in accordance with practical needs. The extent and location of land referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be determined by the competent central authority concerned.

Article 22. A foreign national leasing or purchasing land in accordance with the preceding Article shall submit for examination by the local municipal or *hsien* government the certificate of approval issued by the competent central authority, with a request for assistance in making the lease or purchase. The municipal or *hsien* government concerned shall also report the case to the Executive Yuan through its superiors.

Article 23. Land leased or purchased by a foreign national for a specially authorized enterprise shall not be utilized for a purpose other than that approved, unless special permission has been obtained for the change in the enterprises. In the event of the suspension of operations for reasons stated, the land shall be reclaimed by the government at the original price.

Article 24. A foreign national having leased or purchased a piece of land shall, after due registration, enjoy the rights and bear the obligations according to the relevant laws and ordinances.

CHAPTER IV PUBLIC LAND

Article 25. Without the concurrence of the representative body and the approval of the Executive Yuan, a provincial, municipal, or *hsien* government shall not dispose of, create encumbrance upon, or lease for a term exceeding ten years, public land under its jurisdiction.

Article 26. Government organs of various grades requiring public land

shall apply jointly with the competent local municipal or *hsien* government to the Executive Yuan through their superiors for approval and appropriation.

Article 27. Income from public land under its jurisdiction shall be included in the budget of the relevant provincial, municipal, or *hsien* government.

CHAPTER V

READJUSTMENT OF LAND RIGHTS

Article 28. A provincial or municipal government directly subordinate to the Executive Yuan, may, on taking into consideration local conditions, and in accordance with the classification and nature of land, limit the acreage of private land owned by an individual or a body corporate.

The maximum acreage of private land limited according to the preceding paragraph shall be subject to the approval of the central land administrative authority.

Article 29. When private land is subject to limitations according to the preceding Article, the competent *hsien* or municipal government shall adopt measures stipulating a time limit for the sale of excessive land holdings.

Where the provision in the preceding paragraph for the sale of excessive holdings is not complied with, the competent *hsien* or municipal government may expropriate such excessive holdings in accordance with this law.

The compensation for land expropriated according to the preceding paragraph may be paid in part with land debentures with due consideration to prevailing circumstances.

Article 30. A transfer of ownership of private agricultural land shall be made only to a transferee in a position to cultivate the land himself after the transfer.

Article 31. In respect of land within its jurisdiction, a municipal or *hsien* land administration organ may, on taking into consideration local economic conditions, and in accordance with the nature and the classification of usage, decide on a minimum area unit, and prohibit the further sub-division of such a unit.

A decision referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be subject to the approval of a higher authority.

Article 32. A provincial or municipal government directly subordinate to the Executive Yuan may limit the highest

liability incurable by farm land owned by a self-cultivating farmer, and report such a limit to the central land administrative authority for record.

Article 33. In respect of land tilled by tenants satisfying any one of the under-mentioned conditions, the tenant farmer, having tilled it for eight years continuously may apply to the competent *hsien* or municipal government to buy it over on his behalf according to the assessments:

(1) Where the land owner is an absentee.

(2) Where the land owner is not a self-cultivating farmer, with the exception that aged, senile, orphaned, widowed, or crippled persons, and educational, charitable and public welfare organizations depending on the land for the maintenance of their livelihood, may be exempted from having their land bought over according to the assessments.

Article 34. Governments of various grades, requiring land for the purpose of creating self-cultivating farms, may, with the approval of the Executive Yuan, expropriate land in the following order of priority, and pay for such land with land debentures:—

(1) Privately owned waste land.

(2) Land belonging to absentee owners.

(3) Land farmed by tenants, being the portion in excess of the maximum acreage limit under the provisions of Article 28.

Article 35. The establishment of self-cultivation farms shall be separately prescribed by law.

PART II

LAND REGISTER

CHAPTER I

GENERAL RULES

Article 36. Land registers except those which have been revised according to law, shall be revised in accordance with the provisions of this Law.

The procedure for the revision of land registers shall be the survey of land and the registration of land.

Article 37. Registration of land refers to the registration of ownership and other rights over land and architectural improvements thereon.

Article 38. Prior to the undertaking of land registration a survey of land shall first be undertaken.

In localities where the survey of land has already been attended to according to law, the general registration of land in accordance with the provisions of this law shall be undertaken.

General registration of land referred to in the preceding paragraph means the registration of all land within a municipality or *hsien* within a stipulated time.

Article 39. Land registration shall be undertaken by the competent land administration organ of the municipality or *hsien*. The general registration of land, however, if warranted by practical needs, may be undertaken by a provisionally established land registration organ in a municipality or *hsien* under orders of the provincial land administrative authority.

Article 40. The revision of the land register shall be effected with a municipality or *hsien* as a unit. Each municipality or *hsien* shall be divided into zones, each zone into sections and each section into quarters, serial numbers being compiled within each quarter.

Article 41. Land included within Article 2, categories (3) and (4), shall be exempted from inclusion in serial numbers and registration.

Article 42. The general registration of land may be attended to through the division of the municipality or *hsien* into a number of registration areas.

A registration area referred to in the preceding paragraph shall not be smaller than a zone in a municipality, or smaller than a market town in a *hsien*.

Article 43. Registration effected in accordance with this law shall be absolutely effective.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF LAND

Article 44. The survey of land shall be conducted in accordance with the following procedure:—

- (1) Trigonometrical survey
- (2) Traverse survey
- (3) Survey by lots
- (4) Computation of area
- (5) Preparation of plans.

Article 45. Where the survey of land is conducted by the competent provincial, municipal, or *hsien* government, the executive plans shall first be approved by the central land administrative authority.

Article 46. Where aerial photographic survey is necessary in connection with the survey of land, such survey shall be comprehensively planned and conducted by the central land administrative authority.

Article 47. Regulations governing the enforcement of land surveys shall be enacted by the central land administrative authority.

CHAPTER III

REGISTRATION OF LAND

Article 48. The general registration of land shall be conducted in accordance with the following procedure:

- (1) Investigation of land registers.
- (2) Publication of registration areas and registration time-limits.
- (3) Receipt of submitted documents.
- (4) Examination of documents and publication, issue of certificates.
- (5) Registration, issue of certificates, and compilation of registers.

Article 49. The time limit within which each registration area shall accept applications for registration shall not be less than two months.

Article 50. Prior to the general registration of land, maps showing the registration areas shall be published.

Article 51. During the general registration of land, the land owner shall, within the stipulated registration period, apply for registration submitting the relevant documentary evidence. The registration of other kinds of land rights shall be undertaken by the obligees in conjunction with the obliger.

Applications referred to in the preceding paragraph may be made by agents, who shall, however, submit powers of attorney.

Article 52. The registration of public land shall be undertaken by the relevant municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority at the request of the original organ having custody of or utilizing such land. In the column reserved for the name of the owner, a note shall be inserted showing that such land is owned by the State, the provinces, the municipality or the *hsien*, or the village or town.

Article 53. Public land not under the custody of, or utilized by any authority, and public land discovered as a result of the readjustment of the land register, shall be directly registered by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, and a note shall be inserted that it is state-owned.

Article 54. In case a piece of land has been peacefully and continuously possessed by a person who, in accordance with the provisions of Article 769 and 770 of the Civil Code may claim to be registered as the owner, applications for the registration of ownership shall be made within the registration period, with due certification from the neighbours of the land.

Article 55. A municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, having received application for registration, requested to register, shall, after checking the documents to its satisfaction, immediately issue notifications. The same applies in a case of direct registration in accordance with Article 53.

In the event of additional documentary evidence being called for in respect of application for registration and commitments to register land referred to in the preceding paragraph, the relevant municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority shall order the submission of such additional evidence within a stipulated time.

Article 56. Where an examination reveals faults in the claim and the application is dismissed, an appeal may be made to the competent judicial authority by the applicant for the recognition of the rights involved. When such recognition has been obtained by decision of the judicial authority, it may be cited as the base for a new application for registration.

Article 57. Land shall be considered without owners if application for registration has not been received up to expiration of the registration period, or if the required additional documentary evidence called for in connection with an application has not been submitted within the stipulated time. Notification to this effect shall be issued by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority. Should nobody voice dissent before expiration of the period of notification, such land shall be registered as State-owned land.

Article 58. A notification issued in accordance with Article 55 and 57 shall be for a period of not less than two months.

Article 59. Parties interested in the land rights, and voicing dissent within the notification period referred to in the preceding Article, shall submit their dissent in writing to the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authorities, together with supporting documents.

When disputes over land rights arise as a result of dissent, as set forth in the preceding paragraph, the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority shall mediate in the dispute.

Parties not satisfied with settlement by mediation shall, within 15 days of receipt of the notification of such settlement, bring up the case before the judicial authority for disposition. Where no action is taken within the stipulated period, the results of the mediation shall be upheld.

Article 60. A party in legitimate possession of land failing to apply for registration within the registration period, and to voice dissent within the notification period, shall forfeit his right of possession.

Article 61. During the period when the general registration of land is being undertaken, the local judicial authority shall establish a special court to deal with cases involving suits over land rights, and to hear and pass judgment on them speedily.

Article 62. Cases in which the registration of land rights has been applied for and there has been no dissent before expiration of the notification period, or in which the rights have been ascertained through mediation or a court judgment, the registration shall be confirmed and a certificate of land ownership rights or other land rights shall be issued to the holder of such rights.

A land ownership certificate referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be accompanied by a plan.

Article 63. The area, the registration of which has been confirmed in accordance with the preceding Article, shall be registered from the results of an actual survey undertaken on the basis of the boundary lines specified in the original documentary evidence.

Where the boundary lines specified in the documentary evidence referred to in the preceding paragraph are not clear or do not conform to actual facts, the area determined by surveys shall be registered. For registration purposes the area indicated by surveys may not represent an increase of more than 10 percent of the area specified in the documentary evidence. Where the area increase is more than 20 percent, the excess portion shall be considered State-owned land, but the original owner shall have priority of purchase and may have it registered.

Article 64. Each registration zone shall compile a General Register, on the basis of the results of the registration,

to be kept permanently by the municipal or *hsien* government. The form of the general register shall be decided by the central land administrative authority.

Article 65. In a general land registration, a holder of rights shall pay a registration fee equivalent to 2 per mille of the assessed land value or value of other land rights.

Article 66. If, in the case of land concerning which a notification has been issued in accordance with Article 57, the original holder of rights voices dissent during the notification period, submits documentary evidence for examination, makes application for land registration; examination of the application, notification and registration shall be effected in accordance with procedure provided. An additional fee equivalent to 50 percent of the registration fee shall be paid.

Article 67. The following fees shall be payable for certificates of land ownership rights and other land rights:

Value of Assessed Land or other Land Rights—CNC\$	Registration Fee—CNC\$
Under \$1,000	\$ 1.00
\$1,000 to \$5,000	\$ 2.00
\$5,000 to \$10,000	\$ 5.00
\$10,000 to \$100,000	\$10.00
More than \$100,000	\$20.00

Article 68. The relevant land administrative authority shall be liable for compensation for losses sustained as a result of error, omission, or falsification in registration, excepting in a case where the land administrative authority can prove that the injured party is responsible.

Compensation for losses referred to in the preceding paragraph shall not exceed the value prevailing at the time when the injury was sustained.

Article 69. Registration officials or interested parties discovering errors or omissions of registration after its completion shall not make the necessary amendments without written application to the higher competent authority for investigation and approval.

Article 70. Ten percent of the registration fees received by a land administrative authority shall be set aside as registration reserve, especially provided in Article 68.

Where compensation for losses borne by a land administrative authority is due to gross negligence of a registration official, the said official shall be

responsible for compensation, and the payment made by him shall revert to the Registration Reserve.

Article 71. Where an application for compensation for losses is refused by the competent land administrative authority, the injured party may bring suit before the judicial authority.

CHAPTER IV

REGISTRATION OF CHANGE OF LAND RIGHTS

Article 72. After the general registration of land, registration of changes of rights shall be effected in the event of a transfer, division, amalgamation, increase or diminution, or extinction of land rights.

Article 73. Application for a change of land rights shall be made by the owner. In the case of other rights, application shall be jointly made by the party entitled to the rights (obligees) and the party passing over such rights (obligor).

Applications referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be made within one month from the change of such rights. In the case of applications made or ordered to be made after the stipulated time, a fine may be imposed of not more than the amount of the registration fee payable.

Article 74. An application for a change of land rights shall be accompanied by the originally issued land ownership certificate together with plan, or by the originally issued certificate relating to other land rights.

Article 75. An application for the registration of a change of land rights, after satisfactory examination by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, shall be registered in the General Land Register, and a certificate of land ownership or of other land rights shall be issued; while the original land rights certificate shall be cancelled, or appropriately endorsed.

A certificate of land ownership issued in accordance with the preceding paragraph shall be accompanied by a plan.

Article 76. In respect of an application for the registration of a change of land rights, the obligee shall pay a registration fee of CNC\$1 per mille of the assessed land value or value of other land rights. The registration fee is, however, waived in the case of a registration of the extinction of land rights, or of a change of rights due to land replatting.

Article 77. The fee payable on a land right certificate issued on the registration of a change of land rights shall be in accordance with the provisions of Article 67.

Article 78. A fee of CNC \$1 each shall be payable for the registration of corrections, deletions (obliteration), change of name, and change of address.

In the event of a correction being attributable to the action of a registration official the registration fee shall be waived.

Article 79. An application for the renewal or subsequent issue of a land ownership certificate or certificate of other land rights due to damage or loss shall be governed by the following provisions:

(1) An application for the issue of a new certificate due to damage shall be accompanied by the damaged original copy of the land ownership certificate or certificate of other land rights.

(2) An application for the re-issue of a certificate due to loss shall be accompanied by a statement of reasons for the loss, and a bond furnished by the neighbours or a business firm guaranteeing ownership, and a new certificate shall only be issued after the publication for one month of a public notice by the competent land administrative authority.

PART III

UTILIZATION OF LAND

CHAPTER I

GENERAL RULES

Article 80. The utilization of land means the application of labour and capital to land.

Article 81. A municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, in respect of land within its jurisdiction, and in accordance with the national economic policy and conditions relating to local needs, and the nature of land available for utilization, may consult with relevant organs as to the classification of land for various uses.

Article 82. Land classified for a certain use shall not be employed for another purpose. This restriction shall not be enforced in case of land which has been approved for other uses by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority.

Article 83. Land classified for a certain use may continue to serve its original purpose until the time fixed for the classified use.

Article 84. The classification of the usage of land and its alteration, having been decided by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, shall be promulgated by the competent municipal or *hsien* government.

Article 85. After the promulgation of classified uses of land, a superior land administrative authority may order their alteration should it consider that the land is required for a more profitable or important use.

Article 86. A municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority in respect of agricultural land within its jurisdiction and in accordance with regulations for collective farming, may jointly with the competent agricultural and forestry authority decide on areas for collective farms. Measures relating to collective farms shall be separately prescribed by law.

Article 87. Land classified for architectural use and not utilized according to law shall be considered vacant land. Land on which the architectural improvement is valued at less than 20 percent of the assessed value of the land shall be considered as vacant land.

Article 88. Land classified as agricultural land, or land for other direct productive uses, not utilized according to law shall be considered waste land. Land which has to lie fallow owing to agricultural production needs shall not be subjected to this provision.

Article 89. A municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, in respect of privately owned vacant land and waste land within its jurisdiction, may define areas and stipulate time limits during which their utilization according to law shall be compulsorily enforced. Privately owned waste land not utilized after stipulated time may be bought over by the competent municipal or *hsien* government at the assessed value.

CHAPTER II

RESTRICTIONS OVER UTILIZATION

Article 90. Land in urban districts set aside for roads, sewers and other public uses shall be preassigned in accordance with city planning laws.

Article 91. Land in urban districts may be separately demarcated into restricted utilization districts and free utilization districts, in accordance with city planning laws.

Article 92. In respect of a newly created metropolis or city, the government may, in accordance with city planning laws, expropriate according to law the whole or a portion of land in the urban area for readjustment and redemarcation, and subsequent sale by lots at original purchase values with the addition, if necessary, of charges incurred in connection with the readjustment measures.

Land may be expropriated by specified periods, and resold by areas. Areas not opened up may be reserved for expropriation, and limitations placed on their uses to prevent obstruction of city planning.

Article 93. Land already announced for use as roads or other public uses in accordance with city planning may be reserved for expropriation and limitations placed on constructions thereon. But constructions of a temporary nature are not subject to such restriction.

CHAPTER III

LEASE OF HOUSES AND LAND

Article 94. In urban areas, the government shall construct an appropriate number of reserve houses to be leased to the public for residential purposes. The rental of such houses shall not exceed an amount equivalent to the annual interest at 8 percent on the value of the land and buildings.

Article 95. To relieve housing shortage and with the approval of the Executive Yuan, a municipal or *hsien* government may reduce or waive the land tax and tax on improvements in respect of newly constructed houses, and stipulate the time limit for such reduction or exemption.

Article 96. The number of rooms occupied by each inhabitant in an urban area may if necessary be restricted by the competent municipal or *hsien* government, taking into consideration local conditions and with the concurrence of the local representative body.

Article 97. Rental of houses in urban areas shall not exceed an amount equivalent to the annual interest at 10 percent of the assessed gross value of the land and the buildings. Rental of houses under agreement exceeding this provision may be compulsorily reduced by the competent municipal or *hsien* government.

Article 98. Where a cash security is furnished in a lease, interest on such

security shall be considered as a portion of the rental payable. Such interest shall be computed at the same rate as that on which the rental has been computed.

Article 99. The cash security referred to in the preceding Article shall not exceed the rental for two months. For cash security already paid in excess of this limit, the lessee may use the excess portion for payment of rental.

Article 100. Unless on account of any one of the under-mentioned conditions, a lessor may not repossess a leased house:—

(1) When the lessor repossesses the premises for self-occupation or for rebuilding;

(2) When the lessee violates the provisions of Article 443, Paragraph (1) of the Civil Code by sub-letting to another party;

(3) When the lessee falls in arrears in payment of rental for more than two months, after deduction of the cash security put up;

(4) When the lessee uses the premises for illegal purposes;

(5) When the lessee violates the terms of the lease;

(6) When the lessee damages the lessor's premises or annexed property and fails to pay adequate compensation.

Article 101. Disputes arising over a lease of houses shall be mediated by the proper municipal or *hsien* administrative authority. A party dissatisfied with such mediation may bring suit before the judicial authority.

Article 102. When leasing land for the building of houses, the lessor and the lessee shall, within two months of the conclusion of the contract, apply to the proper municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority for the registration of land.

Article 103. Unless on account of any one of the under-mentioned conditions, a lessor shall not repossess land leased for the building of houses:—

(1) When the term of contract expires;

(2) When the lessee uses the land for illegal purposes;

(3) When the lessee sub-lets the land to a third party;

(4) When the lessee falls in arrears of rental payment of or over two years after deducting the cash security furnished;

(5) When the lessee violates the terms of the lease.

Article 104. When a piece of land leased for house construction is to be sold, the lessee shall have preferential right to purchase on identical terms. When a building on leased land is to be sold, the lessor shall have preferential right to purchase on identical terms.

The preferential right referred to in the preceding paragraph, if not declared within ten days after receipt of notice of sale, shall be deemed to have been waived.

Article 105. The provisions of Article 97, 99, and 101 apply *mutatis mutandis* in cases of the lease of land for the building of houses.

CHAPTER IV

LEASE OF FARM LAND

Article 106. The lease of farm land refers to the lease, at an agreed payment of rental, of another person's agricultural land with the object of cultivating it oneself. Such farm land includes fisheries and pastures.

Article 107. In the event of the lessor selling or "diening" farm land, the lessee shall have preferential right to purchase or dien the land on identical terms.

The provisions of Article 104, Paragraph (2) apply *mutatis mutandis* in the case of the purchase or dien referred to in the preceding paragraph.

(Translator's Note:—By "dien" is meant, as defined in Article 911 of the Chinese Civil Code which has been translated into English, the right to use immovable property of another person and to collect fruits therefrom by paying a price and taking possession of the property.)

Article 108. Even with the consent of the lessor, the lessee shall not sublet the whole or a portion of farm land to a third party.

Article 109. In respect of farm land leased and used according to a contract with a time limit, on expiration of the contract, if the lessor does not repossess the land for self-cultivation and if the lessee continues to cultivate the land, the contract shall be considered as one without time limit.

Article 110. Rental shall not exceed 8 percent of the value of land. Where the agreed rental or the customary rental exceeds that limit, it shall be reduced to the legal level. Where it is less, the agreed or customary rental shall be upheld.

Land value means the legally fixed land value. In a locality where no legal land value has been fixed, it shall mean the average value prevailing during the three years immediately preceding.

Article 111. Rental on farm land may be paid in agricultural produce by the lessee, in accordance with local custom.

Article 112. A lessor of farm land shall not collect rental in advance. Where local custom calls for the payment of a cash security, such security shall not exceed 25 percent of the annual rental payable.

Interest on this cash security shall be considered as a portion of the rental, the rate of interest to be computed in accordance with general interest rates in the locality.

Article 113. When a lessee is unable to pay the full amount of the rental due at the end of each term, and pays a portion thereof, the lessor shall not refuse such payment, and the lessee shall not consider such acceptance to be an agreement to a reduction of the rental.

Article 114. A contract covering a lease of farm land without a specified time limit shall be terminated only under any one of the following conditions:—

(1) Death of a lessee who leaves no heir;

(2) When the lessee waives his farming rights;

(3) When the lessor repossesses the land for self-cultivation;

(4) When the use of the land is diverted to some other purposes according to law;

(5) When the provisions of Article 432 and Article 460, Paragraph (2) of the Civil Code are violated;

(6) When the provisions of Article 108 of this Law are violated;

(7) When rental of land falls in arrears for two years.

Article 115. A lessee waiving his farming rights shall declare his intention to the lessor three months in advance. Discontinuation of farming continuously for one year, unless due to *force majeure*, shall be deemed a waiver of farming rights.

Article 116. The termination of a lease in accordance with Article 114, Paragraph (3) and (5) shall be notified by the lessor to the lessee one year in advance.

Article 117. When farm land repossessed for self-cultivation is released, the original lessee shall have preferential right to the lease. When such a release is effected

within one year from the date of the re-possession for self-cultivation, the original lessee may lease the land under the original terms of lease.

Article 118. The lessor shall not exercise the right of retention as provided in Article 445 of the Civil Code, in respect of agricultural implements, cattle, fertilizer, and agricultural produce which are absolutely necessary to the lessee in his farming operations.

Article 119. A special improvement on farm land refers to an increase of the productive power or facility of farm land, in addition to the preservation of its original quality and efficiency, as the result of increased labor and capital.

A special improvement referred to in the preceding paragraph may be undertaken freely by the lessee, and the lessor shall be immediately informed of the cost of any such special improvement.

Article 120. On the restoration of farm land following the termination of a contract referred to in Article 114, Paragraph 2, 3, 5, or 6, the lessee may request from the lessor a refund of the cost of special improvement on farm land incurred by him (the lessee) as referred to in the preceding Article, Paragraph 2, provided that such refund only covers the value of that portion of special improvement which is still useful.

The provisions of the preceding paragraph apply *mutatis mutandis* to the revocation of *yung-tien* as provided for in Article 845, and 846 of the Civil Code.

(Translator's Note: By "*yung-tien*" is meant, as defined in Article 842 of the Chinese Civil Code which has been translated into English, the right to cultivate or to raise live-stock permanently on the land of another person by paying a rent.)

Article 121. A lessor of farm land supplying the lessee with live-stock, seeds, fertilizer, or other productive implements, may, apart from complying with the provisions of Article 462 and 463 of the Civil Code, charge an appropriate remuneration in addition to the rental of land according to the lease, provided that such a charge does not exceed the annual interest of 10 percent on the value of the materials supplied.

Article 122. A dispute between land-owners and tenant farmers over the lease shall be mediated by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority. Either party objecting to such mediation may bring suit before the judicial authority.

Article 123. In the event of crop failure or famine, a municipal or *hsien* government may decide on a reduction of or exemption from rental according to the local actual crop conditions in the current year, subject to the concurrence of the local representative body.

Article 124. The provisions of Article 107 to 113 and Article 121 apply *mutatis mutandis* in the case of land under *yung-tien*.

CHAPTER V

UTILIZATION OF WASTE LAND

Article 125. Public waste land shall be completely surveyed within a stipulated time limit by the proper municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, and plans for its utilization made.

Article 126. Public waste land suitable for cultivation purposes, excepting such portions as are reserved by the government for its own use, shall be divided into reclamation zones by the proper municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, in conjunction with the proper agricultural and forestry authority, and units of reclamation lots decided, and invitations issued for reclamation.

Article 127. Private waste land which has been bought over by the proper municipal or *hsien* government in accordance with Article 89 shall be re-offered for reclamation after conservancy and soil improvement measures have been introduced.

Article 128. Persons responding to official invitations for reclamation of public waste land shall be confined to citizens of the Republic of China.

Article 129. Parties responding to official invitations for reclamation of public waste land shall be of the following two classes:—

- (1) Self-cultivating farmers.
- (2) Agricultural production cooperative societies.

An agricultural production cooperative society shall be confined to one registered according to law, with its members undertaking reclamation themselves.

Article 130. An applicant for the reclamation of waste land shall be limited to one cultivation unit to each farming household. The number of units applied for by an agricultural production cooperative society shall not exceed the number of self-cultivation farming households constituting the society.

Article 131. An applicant for the cultivation of waste land shall commence reclamation within one year of the re-

ceipt of the certificate of cultivation. The period of reclamation shall be decided by the competent agricultural and forestry authority. If reclamation is not commenced within the stipulated time limit, the certificate of reclamation shall be revoked.

Article 132. A cultivator failing to complete the work of reclamation within the reclamation period shall have his certificate revoked. Where such failure has been due to *force majeure*, application may be made to the proper agricultural and forestry authority for an appropriate extension of the time limit.

Article 133. A cultivator acquires gratis, from the date of the commencement of reclamation, the farming rights over the land allotted to him, and shall, in accordance with law, register with the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority, such farming rights. After continuous cultivation for ten years, he shall also acquire gratis the land ownership rights.

The farming rights referred to in the preceding paragraph are non-transferable. Inheritance and donation to a party eligible to inherit shall be excepted from this limitation.

Land completely developed according to paragraph (1) may be exempted from the payment of land tax for from two to eight years at the discretion of the proper municipal or *hsien* government.

Article 134. Public waste land which cannot be developed by farmers or agricultural production cooperative societies may be taken care of by reclamation organs created for the purpose.

CHAPTER VI

REPLATTING OF LAND

Article 135. With the approval of a higher authority, a municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority may, in respect of land within its jurisdiction, plat or replat land zones, enforce a replatting of land, and establish new boundaries for lots within such zones for the following reasons:—

- (1) The enforcement of city planning.
- (2) The existence of lots with areas too small or of abnormal shapes rendering them unsuitable for building purposes.
- (3) Farm land originally allocated proving unsuitable for farming operations, or for irrigation purposes.
- (4) The exchange or amalgamation of scattered lots for the establishment of standard farms.

(5) The employment of mechanical farming devices for the establishment of collective farms.

Article 136. On the replatting of land, the original areas or values of original lots shall be taken as the basis for the allocation of the new lots among the original owners. Where for practical reasons such allocation according to area and value cannot be effected, momentary compensation may be paid as an alternative.

Article 137. Land of an abnormal shape or too small in area, being less than the minimum unit area provided in Article 31, may be abandoned or amalgamated on the replatting of land.

Article 138. Parks, roads, embankments, ponds, sewers and land for other public use as in replatted zones may be altered or abandoned in accordance with the land replatting plans.

Article 139. After the replatting of land, profits and losses sustained by landowners shall be mutually adjusted among them. The government shall effect compensatory payment for land assigned for roads or other public uses.

Article 140. On a replatting of land, within 30 days of the notification of the undertaking, should opposition be voiced by more than half of the landowners involved representing ownership of more than 50 percent of the total acreage in the zones, not including public land, the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority shall immediately report such objection to its higher authority for investigation and decision.

Article 141. Land replatting referred to in Article 125 may be approved by the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority on the joint request of more than half of the landowners in the zones involved, representing ownership of more than 50 percent of the total acreage in the zone, not including public land.

Article 142. Land replatting in newly created metropolises shall be effected prior to the opening up of the various zones.

PART IV

LAND TAX

CHAPTER I

GENERAL RULES

Article 143. Land and improvements thereon, unless exempted from taxation according to law, shall be taxed in accordance with the provisions of this Law.

Article 144. Land tax shall be of two classes:

Tax on land value, and tax on appreciated land value.

Article 145. The values of land and improvements thereon shall be separately determined.

Article 146. The land tax shall be a local tax.

Article 147. Land and improvements thereon, except as provided for in this law, shall not be subject to any levies and surtaxes under any pretext. However, on charges incurred for the construction of roads, embankments, sewers or other land improvement engineering operations, an engineering benefit fee may be charged according to law.

CHAPTER II

LAND VALUE AND VALUE OF IMPROVEMENTS

Article 148. Land value assessed by the owner in accordance with this law shall be the legal land value.

Article 149. A municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority shall attend to the assessments of land values in accordance with the following procedure:

(1) Investigate and fix standard land values;

(2) Assessments of land values by landowners;

(3) Compile land value registers.

Article 150. In the investigation of land values; the market values of land or income values during the latest two years shall be checked at random and such checks shall be used as the basis for the determination of standard land values. The number of cases to be so checked shall depend upon the number of lots and the extent of differences in land values.

Article 151. On the basis of the results of investigations referred to in the preceding Article, a classification of land values shall be made on lots of approximately the same values and adjoining one another, or of the same categories. In each class of land-value, the average or mean of the market value or income values of cases singled out for investigation shall be considered the average land value for the said class.

Article 152. The average land value for each land-value class shall be announced to the public as the standard land value by the competent municipal or *hsien* government on the application of the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority.

Article 153. The publication of standard land values shall be effected for different zones prior to the commencement of the general land registration.

Article 154. In the event land owners consider the standard land values to be inadequate, upon the concurrence of more than half of the land owners of the same land class within the same zones, objection may be filed with the proper municipal or *hsien* government within 30 days of the publication of the standard land values. A municipal or *hsien* government, on receipt of the objection shall immediately turn the case over to the Standard Land Evaluation Committee for deliberation.

Article 155. The organic regulations for a Standard Land Evaluation Committee shall be drawn up by the central land administrative authority. Representatives of the local representative body shall participate in the committee.

Article 156. A land owner applying for the registration of ownership shall at the same time assess the land value, which shall not show a margin exceeding 20 percent above or below the standard land value.

Article 157. A land owner, who considers the standard land value too high for him to assess his land value in accordance with the preceding Article, may request the proper municipal or *hsien* government to buy over his land at the standard value.

Article 158. If a land owner applies for registration without assessing his land value at the same time, the standard land value shall be taken as the legal land value.

Article 159. When the assessment of land values has been completed in a municipality or *hsien*, a land-value register shall immediately be prepared and forwarded to the proper municipal or *hsien* financial authority.

Article 160. On the expiration of a five-year period since the assessment of land-values, or a one-year period when land values have appreciated or depreciated by more than 50 percent of the original standard values, land values may be reappraised, and the provisions of Article 150 and 152 and 154 to 156 shall apply.

Article 161. The value of an architectural improvement shall be assessed by the proper municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority at the same time the land values are decided.

Article 162. The assessment of the value of an architectural improvement shall be based on the necessary cost of construction of a similar structure at the time of the assessment, less the amount of depreciation due to the passage of time.

Article 163. An architectural improvement additional to an original architectural improvement shall be included in the value of the latter at the time of re-assessment; but repairs made for the maintenance of the *status quo* of an architectural improvement shall not be considered as an additional architectural improvement.

Article 164. A municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority shall forward the assessed values of improvements to the Standard Land Evaluation Committee for decision, after which it shall be reported to the competent municipal or *hsien* government for publication as the legal value of the improvement, and the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority shall serve written notices on owners respectively.

Article 165. When a recipient of such notice considers the decision is inadequate, he may, within 30 days of receipt, apply to the Standard Land Evaluation Committee for re-assessment.

Article 166. The value of an architectural improvement may be re-assessed on the re-assessment of land values.

CHAPTER III

TAX ON LAND VALUES

Article 167. The tax on land value shall be levied once a year on the basis of the legal land value. If necessary, it may be paid in two installments.

Article 168. The tax on land value shall be levied at a progressive rate on the basis of the legal land value.

Article 169. The basic tax-rate of the tax on land values shall be CNC\$15 per mille of the legal land value.

Article 170. Where the gross land value of the holding of a land owner does not exceed the basic land value calling for the application of a progressive scale, the tax shall be levied on the rate referred to in the preceding Article. Where it exceeds the basic value calling for the application of a progressive scale, taxation shall be levied in accordance with the under-mentioned procedure for the enforcement of the progressive scale:

(1) Where the value exceeds the basic value by less than 500 percent, an additional levy of CNC\$2 per mille shall be made on the excess portion;

(2) Where the value exceeds the basic value by less than 1000 percent, apart from the tax payable under the provisions of the preceding paragraph, an additional levy of CNC\$3 per mille shall be made on the portion in excess of 500 percent of the basic value;

(3) Where the value exceeds the basic value by less than 1500 percent, apart from the tax payable under provisions of the preceding paragraph, an additional levy of CNC\$5 per mille shall be made on the portion in excess of 100 percent. Thereafter, an additional levy of CNC\$5 per mille on a progressive scale shall be made on every excess portion of 500 percent, up to the maximum rate of CNC\$50 per mille.

Article 171. The basic land value calling for the application of progressive taxation shall be decided by the various provincial governments or municipal governments directly subordinate to the Executive Yuan, on the basis of the minimum necessary acreage for self-residential or self-cultivation areas, taking also into consideration land values and local economic conditions, submitted to the Executive Yuan for approval.

Article 172. The tax on land value shall be levied on the land owner. In case of land over which a lien has been created, it shall be paid by the lien holder.

In the case of land belonging to absentee landowners, the tax on land values may be paid on the latter's behalf by the lessee, to be deducted from the rental payable for the current year.

Article 173. Private vacant land, having been compulsorily ordered to be utilized within a stipulated time but not utilized on the expiration of such a time limit shall be levied an additional tax on vacant land for the period prior to its utilization according to law. This tax shall not be less than 300 percent of the tax on land values payable, and not more than 1000 percent.

Article 174. Private waste land having been compulsorily ordered to be utilized within a stipulated time and not so utilized on the expiration of such a time limit, shall be levied an additional tax on waste land for the period prior to its utilization according to law. This tax shall not be less than the tax on land values payable and not more than 300 percent of the tax on land values.

Article 175. The tax on land values for land belonging to absentee landowners shall be double that of the regular tax payable.

CHAPTER IV

TAX ON APPRECIATED LAND VALUES

Article 176. The tax on appreciated land value shall be computed on the actual appreciation of the value of land and shall be levied on the transfer of land

ownership, or in the absence of such a transfer at the end of a ten-year period. This ten-year period shall be computed from the date of the first assessment of a legal land value.

Article 177. In a district where engineering activities have been carried out according to Article 147, the tax on appreciated land value shall be levied on the expiration of five years from the completion of such engineering undertaking.

Article 178. The standard for the gross appreciated value of land shall be computed according to the under-mentioned provisions:

(1) For land which has undergone no transfer since the assessment of its value, on a transfer due to sale, the amount of excess of the sale price over the originally assessed price shall be the standard;

(2) For land which has undergone no transfer since the assessment of its value, on a transfer due to inheritance or donation, the amount of excess of the appraised value at the time of transfer over the original assessed value shall be the standard;

(3) For land which has undergone transfer since the assessment of its value, on subsequent transfer, the excess amount of the value at time of transfer over the value at the last transfer shall be the standard.

Article 179. The originally assessed land value or the land value at the preceding transfer referred to above shall be known as the original land value. In the event of violent fluctuations of commodity prices, the original land value may be readjusted by the municipal or *hsien* financial authority on the basis of local commodity price indices, and with the concurrence of the local representative body.

Article 180. The gross appreciated land value, less the tax exemption value, shall be the net appreciated land value.

Article 181. The rate of tax on appreciated land value shall be as follows:—

(1) Where the net appreciated value is less 100 percent of the original land value, a levy of 20 percent shall be made on the net appreciated value;

(2) Where the net appreciated value is less than 200 percent of the original land value, in addition to taxation in accordance with the preceding paragraph, an additional levy of 40 percent shall be made on the portion in excess of 100 percent of the original value;

(3) Where the net appreciated value is less than 300 percent of the original

land value, in addition to taxation in accordance with the preceding two paragraphs, an additional levy of 60 percent shall be made on the portion in excess of 200 percent;

(4) Where the net appreciated value is more than 300 percent of the original land value, in addition to taxation in accordance with the preceding three paragraphs, an additional levy of 80 percent shall be made on the excess portion.

Article 182. Where a transfer of land ownership results from an outright sale, the tax on appreciated value shall be levied on the vendor. Where it results from an inheritance or a donation, the tax shall be levied on the inheritor or donee.

Article 183. After ten years from the assessment of land value, or after five years in a zone where engineering operations have been completed, in the case of land over which there has been no transfer, the tax on appreciated land value shall be levied on the land owner.

Where a dien has been created on the land the tax on appreciated land value may be levied on the dien-holder, but the dien-maker shall refund the sum without interest on redemption of the property.

Article 184. From the net appreciated land value shall be deducted the capital invested by the landowner in land improvement, or engineering benefit fees paid by him.

CHAPTER V

TAX ON LAND IMPROVEMENTS

Article 185. Architectural improvements may be taxed annually on their assessed value, the highest tariff not to exceed CNC\$10 per mille.

Article 186. The tax on an architectural improvement shall be collected at the time when the tax on land value is levied, and the provisions of Article 172 shall apply.

Article 187. An architectural improvement which is a house for self residence shall be exempted from taxation.

Article 188. Agricultural improvement shall not be subject to taxation.

Article 189. In districts where the value of land is less than CNC\$500 per mow, architectural improvements thereon shall be exempted from taxation.

Article 190. The whole of the land improvements tax shall be a local tax.

CHAPTER VI

REDUCTION AND EXEMPTION OF LAND TAX

Article 191. Public land and public architectural improvements shall be exempted from the land tax and the improvements tax; but this provision does not apply where the property is utilized by a government enterprise or not used for the public.

Article 192. Taxes may be waived or reduced, with the approval of the Executive Yuan on the joint application of the Ministry of Finance and the central land administrative authority, on private land used for:

- (1) Schools or other academic institutes.
- (2) Public parks and public recreation grounds.
- (3) Agricultural, forestry, fishery and pastoral experimental stations.
- (4) Forests.
- (5) Public hospitals.
- (6) Public cemeteries.
- (7) Other non-profit seeking public welfare projects.

Article 193. In the event of a local catastrophe, or for the purpose of readjusting social and economic conditions, the Ministry of Finance and the central land administrative authority may jointly apply to the Executive Yuan for approval for the exemption or reduction of tax during the period of the catastrophe or of the economic readjustment measures.

Article 194. Land held in reserve for expropriation or which cannot be utilized owing to its natural surroundings or for technical reasons, or land in the process of development from waste land, shall be exempt from taxation on its value with the approval of the Executive Yuan on the joint application of the Finance Ministry and the central land administrative authority.

Article 195. Land which cannot be utilized owing to its natural surroundings or for technical reasons, or land in the process of development from waste land, shall be exempted from taxation on its value with the approval of the Executive Yuan on the joint application of the Ministry of Finance and the central land administrative authority.

Article 196. When a transfer of ownership results from the expropriation of land or the re-demarcation of land, the tax on appreciated land value shall be waived.

Article 197. Land for self-cultivation and self-residence of a farmer shall not be subject to tax on appreciated land value after a 10-year period unless there is a transfer of ownership.

Article 198. Where the value of farm land has appreciated as the result of the application of labour and capital thereon by the farmer, the tax on appreciated land value shall not be levied.

Article 199. Land exempted from taxation or on which taxes have been reduced shall, when the facts upon which exemption and reduction are based undergo change or cease to exist, be subject to normal taxation.

CHAPTER VII

ARREARS IN TAX PAYMENT

Article 200. When the tax on land value is not paid within the stipulated time limit, an additional payment by way of a fine shall be called for to the amount payable for each month of default from the date thereof. Where such default is less than one month, it shall be computed as of one month.

Article 201. When arrears in the tax on land value reach a sum equivalent to the amount of tax payable for two years, the proper municipal or *hsien* financial authority may recommend to the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority that the land and improvements be turned over to the judicial authority for sale by public auction. The proceeds shall be allocated to meet arrears in tax payment, and any amount remaining being returnable to the defaulter.

Article 202. Thirty days prior to the sale of land by public auction the land owner shall be notified by the judicial authority.

Article 203. Should the land owner, on receipt of the notification referred to in the preceding Article, furnish an appropriate guarantee for the payment of tax in default, the judicial authority may postpone the sale date with a one year limit.

Article 204. Where land on which tax payment is in arrears brings produce, the competent municipal or *hsien* financial authority may inform the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority with a view to the seizure of such produce to set off against tax payments in arrears, and thus avoid a sale by auction of the land. The seizure of produce may only be effected when the accumulated amount in default is equivalent to the total of tax payments for one year.

Article 205. When the tax on appreciated land value is not paid up according to law, the fines shall be imposed therefor as provided in Article 200.

Article 206. When the tax on appreciated land value is in default for a period of one year, the competent municipal or *hsien* financial authority may recommend to the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority that the land and the whole or a portion of the improvements thereon be turned over to the judicial authority to be sold by public auction, the proceeds being allocated to meet the tax in default, any amount remaining being turned over to the defaulter.

The provisions of Articles 202 and 203 shall apply in a sale by public auction referred to in the preceding paragraph.

Article 207. The provisions of the various Articles in this Chapter in regard to arrears in the payment of the tax on land value shall apply in the case of arrears in the payment of the tax on architectural improvements.

PART V

EXPROPRIATION OF LAND

CHAPTER I

GENERAL RULES

Article 208. For the requirements of any of the undermentioned public enterprises, the State may expropriate private land in accordance with the provisions of this law, subject to the extent of expropriation being limited to the absolute requirements of the enterprise concerned:

- (1) National defense;
- (2) Communications;
- (3) Public utility;
- (4) Water conservancy;
- (5) Public health;
- (6) Government offices, local self-government organs, and other public buildings;
- (7) Educational, academic and philanthropic enterprises;
- (8) State operated enterprises;
- (9) Other enterprises sponsored by the Government for public welfare purposes.

Article 209. A government organ, in the enforcement of national economic policies, may expropriate private land, subject to the limitation that such expropriation provided by law.

Article 210. In the expropriation of land, scenic and historic spots shall be avoided as far as possible.

Scenic and historic spots situated in areas within an expropriated zone shall be preserved as far as possible.

Article 211. Persons applying for expropriation shall produce evidence that the enterprise for which it is to be used has been authorized by law.

Article 212. When land is expropriated for any one of the under-mentioned reasons, the expropriation may be effected by districts:—

(1) The enforcement of national economic policies;

(2) The creation of new metropolises or cities;

(3) The establishment of enterprises included in Article 208, Item (1) or (3).

"Expropriation by districts" referred to in the preceding paragraph means the readjustment of various lots in a specified zone, the whole of which is to be expropriated.

Article 213. Reserve expropriation may be effected for any one of the following reasons:—

(1) The development of lines of communication;

(2) The inauguration of public utility enterprises;

(3) The creation of new metropolises or cities; and

(4) National Defense requirements.

"Reserve expropriation" referred to in the preceding paragraph means the application of approval in advance of the extent of expropriation for the needs of the enterprise concerned before the actual utilization of the land, and the prohibition of uses thereon such as will obstruct its eventual expropriation.

Article 214. The period of reserve expropriation shall not exceed three years. Failure to expropriate within the period shall be deemed a revocation of the decision. For the establishment of enterprises included in the preceding Article, Item (1) or (4), however, application may be made for approval to extend the period of reserve expropriation, such an extension being limited to not more than five years.

Article 215. When land is expropriated the improvements attached thereto shall be expropriated simultaneously, excepting in cases where the owner of such improvements requests the return of such improvements and effects their removal himself.

Article 216. When the utilization of expropriated land affects land adjacent to so that the continued utilization of such adjacent land for its established purpose is no longer possible, or its efficiency is lowered, the owner of such land may apply to the utilizer of the expropriated land for appropriate compensation. This

compensation shall not exceed the amount of the depreciation of the said adjacent land as a result of the expropriation.

Article 217. When a remnant area left to the owner after an expropriation of land is too small in size, or too irregular in shape, to be of adequate use the owner may apply for the inclusion of such a remnant area in the expropriation.

Article 218. In respect of land expropriated by districts by the government, on the readjustment of such land through the redemarcation of lots and offer for use, sale or lease, the original land owner or holders of other land rights shall have preferential rights to accept such offer for use, sale or lease.

Article 219. In respect of expropriated private land not utilized in accordance with approved plans or not put into usage one year after the completion of the expropriation, the original owner may repossess his land at the original expropriation value.

Article 220. Land already used for the various enterprises included in Article 208, shall not be expropriated, except for the establishment of more important enterprises when expropriation is unavoidable. An expropriation of only a small portion of the land thus used, which does not affect the continuous progress of the existing enterprise, shall be exempted from this restriction.

Article 221. The computation of the amount of liabilities bearable by expropriated land shall be limited to the amount of compensation receivable in respect of the land. Such liabilities shall be liquidated and settled by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority at time of payment of compensation.

CHAPTER II

PROCEDURE OF EXPROPRIATION

Article 222. An expropriation of land on account of any one of the under-mentioned reasons shall be approved by the Executive Yuan:—

(1) Where the party requiring the use of the land is the National Government, the Five Yuan or an organ directly subordinated thereto, a provincial government, or a municipal government directly subordinated to the Executive Yuan;

(2) Where the enterprise undertaken is directly controlled or supervised by a yuan, ministry of commission of the Central Government.

(3) Where the area of the land expropriated extends over the boundaries between two or more provinces;

(4) Where the land expropriated is within the municipal limits of a municipality directly subordinated to the Executive Yuan.

Article 223. An expropriation of land on account of any one of the under-mentioned reasons shall be approved by the provincial government:—

(1) Where the party requiring the use of the land is a provincial department, or bureau, a *hsien* or municipal government, or an organ subordinated thereto, or a local self-government organ;

(2) Where the enterprise undertaken is controlled or supervised by a local government.

A provincial government, on giving approval as referred to in the preceding paragraph, shall immediately report to the Executive Yuan for scrutiny.

Article 224. In the expropriation of land, the party requiring the use of the land shall formulate and submit to the relevant authority as provided in the two preceding Articles, detailed expropriation prospectus, to which shall be appended a map of the land to be expropriated, as well as plans for the utilization of the land.

Article 225. The Executive Yuan or provincial government, on approving an expropriation of land, shall immediately issue orders for the case to be notified to the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority of the locality.

Article 226. When two or more parties apply for the expropriation of the same piece of land, the importance of the nature of the enterprise involved shall be the standard for decision. When the nature of the enterprises is the same, priority in application shall be the standard for decision.

Article 227. A municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority on receipt of instructions from Executive Yuan or the provincial government approving an expropriation of land shall immediately issue a public notice and notify the land owner and holder of other land rights accordingly.

The period for the public notification referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be 30 days.

Article 228. Where the registration of ownership of land expropriated has not yet been completed, holders of other land rights involved shall, within 30 days after the expiration of the notification period referred to in the preceding Article, apply to the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority in order to record their rights. Where the registration of land ownership has already been completed, other land rights involved

shall be those recorded on the Land Register on the date of the expiration of the notification period.

Article 229. In respect of land the registration of whose ownership has not been completed according to law, should the holders of other rights thereon fail to apply for the recording of their rights according to the preceding Article, such rights shall not be considered necessary liabilities borne on the land expropriated.

Article 230. After the issue of the public notice, the party requiring the use of the land may enter upon such land for purposes of inspection or survey.

In undertaking the activities referred to in the preceding paragraph, the holder of ownership or other land rights shall be notified to have obstructions on the land removed, or the obstruction may be removed on his behalf.

Article 231. The party requiring the use of such land shall await the completion of the payment of compensation of land value and other compensatory payments before he may enter expropriated land for operation. In the enforcement of national economic policies or in the establishment of an enterprises included in Article 208 Item (1), (2) or (4), however, with the approval of the Executive Yuan for immediate utilization, this restriction shall not hold.

In respect of land specially authorized for immediate usage according to the preceding paragraph, should the user fail to effect compensation for land value in accordance with the provisions of this Law, the owner may bring suit in accordance with law.

Article 232. In respect of land to be expropriated, after the issue of the public notice, the holder of land rights shall not add improvements on such land, and work shall immediately be discontinued in improvements in process of construction at the time of the issue of the notice.

Should the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority consider the addition or continued construction of the improvement concerned would not obstruct plans for the expropriation, such matter may be specially permitted on the application of the interested parties.

Article 233. Compensation of land value and other compensatory payments for land expropriated shall be paid within 15 days of the expiration of the period of public notice. In the case of an expropriation of land, for enforcement of national economic policies or for the establishment of an enterprise included in Article 208, Item (1), (2) or (4), however, the approval of the Executive Yuan may be

obtained for the payment of compensation partly in land debentures.

Article 234. Upon the complete payment of all compensation due on expropriated land, the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority may specify a time within which the holder of land rights or the user of the land shall be ordered to complete his removal.

Article 235. The rights and obligations of the owner of expropriated land shall terminate on the complete payment of compensation due him. Pending the complete payment of such compensation, he shall have the right to continue the use of the land. This shall not apply to a case under the proviso in Article 231.

CHAPTER III

COMPENSATION FOR EXPROPRIATION

Article 236. The compensation for land value, other compensatory payments, and allowance for removal in respect of expropriated land, shall be fixed by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority.

The compensation for land value, other compensatory payments, and allowance for removal, referred to in the preceding paragraph, shall be borne by the party requiring the use of the land, and shall be paid through the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority.

Article 237. Payment of compensation for land value, other compensatory payments, and allowance for removal may be held in deposit by the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority against demand should any one of the under-mentioned conditions exist:

(1) Where the party entitled to compensation refuses to accept payment or is unable to accept payment;

(2) Where the address of the party entitled to compensation is unknown.

Article 238. When any one of the under-mentioned conditions exists, the municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority may have the improvement removed on behalf of the owner or expropriated together with the land:

(1) Where the recipient of the removal allowance refuses payment or is unable to accept payment;

(2) Where the address of the recipient of the removal allowance is unknown;

(3) Where the recipient of the removal allowance fails to effect removal within stipulated time.

Article 239. The land value payable as compensation on expropriated land shall be in accordance with the following provisions:

(1) Where the land value has been fixed according to law, and the ownership has not undergone a transfer, the legal land value shall prevail;

(2) Where the land value has been fixed according to law and where ownership has undergone transfers, the land value on the final transfer shall prevail;

(3) Where the land value has not yet been fixed according to law, the land value shall be assessed by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority.

Article 240. Land value payable as compensation on land reserved for expropriation shall be in accordance with the land value at the time of expropriation.

Article 241. When an improvement is expropriated, the compensation receivable shall be in accordance with the value appraised by the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority.

Article 242. Compensation for agricultural improvements on land expropriated within one year of the maturity of its produce, shall be fixed according to the value of the produce at the time of maturity.

Article 243. In accordance with the provisions of Article 230 Paragraph (2), for the removal of obstruction on land, should land outside of the expropriated area suffer damage thereby, appropriate compensation shall be paid.

Article 244. Where the removable of an improvement is necessitated by the expropriation of land, adequate compensation shall be paid.

Article 245. Should the removal of the whole of an improvement be necessitated through the expropriation of even only a part of the land, the owner of the improvement may apply for the payment of the removal expenses for the whole improvement.

Article 246. Where an expropriation of land necessitates the removal of graveyards or other memorials, the removal allowances shall be the same as that applying to improvements.

Graveyards without owners shall be decently removed and re-interment effected by the party requiring the use of the land, details being carefully recorded and listed in a report to the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority for record.

Article 247. In the event of objection to the assessment referred to in Articles 239, 241 or 242, the competent municipal or *hsien* land administrative authority shall refer the case to the Standard Land Evaluation Committee for decision.

CHAPTER 28

COMMUNICATIONS

The Ministry of Communications is in overall charge of six main branches of services—railways, highways, shipping, civil aviation, tele-communications, and postal service.

RAILWAYS

Up to September 18, 1931 when Japan invaded Manchuria, China had only 15,000 km. of railways, including all government-owned, provincial and private. Most of the railroads were located in north China and the Northeastern Provinces. In 1936, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek authorized a five-year railway construction plan. Based on the ideas conceived by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the plan called for the construction of 8,500 km. of railroads within five years, with emphasis on the northwest, the southwest and the southeast (areas south of the Yangtze river) as well as the formation of a national railway network.

While the first stages of the construction program were being carried out, the war with Japan broke out. What had been completed up to then served to advantage in the moving of military personnel and material. But many of the newly constructed projects were destroyed during the war. Among the major destructions were the Chientang river bridge, the Yellow river bridge at Tung-kwan, and the Chennankwan-Tungkiang railway on the Chennankwan-Nanning sector of the Hunan-Kwangsi railway. Further, a shortage of construction materials caused suspension or delay of work on several of the planned railroads.

I. CONSTRUCTION IN WARTIME

Before the end of eight years of warfare only a little more than ten percent of the railways in the coastal provinces or in north China remained in Chinese hands.

Practically all of the projected or partially completed railway lines in the southwest and northwest traverse hilly and

thinly populated areas. This is particularly true with the Yunnan-Burma, the Kweichow-Kwangsi, and the Suifu-Kunming lines, the construction of which had to be preceded by first building highways to facilitate the transport of materials and equipment.

Among the railway undertakings during the war were:

(1) The Hunan-Kiangsi Railway—From Hengyang in Hunan, the road was to terminate at Chennankwan on the Indo-China border, with a total length of 1,026 km. Construction was divided into four sections: The first section from Hengyang to Kweilin (361 km.), which was opened to traffic on October 1, 1938, played an important part in the evacuation of Canton and Hankow and the removal of both government and private property from the war areas. Work on the second section of 174 km. from Kweilin to Liuchow began in August, 1938, and was completed on December 17, 1939.

Work on the third section of 263 km. from Liuchow to Nanning began in 1938 but was suspended in December, 1939, following enemy occupation of Nanning. After the recapture of Nanning, work on the Liukiang bridge was resumed and completed in 1940. Through traffic was maintained by the Kweichow-Kwangsi railway with the Hunan-Kwangsi and the Canton-Hankow lines, and on the Liuchow-Laiping section (where the rich coal mines are located), until November, 1944, when the entire system from Hengyang to Laiping was lost to the enemy.

The fourth, 228 km. in length, connecting Nanning with the Dongdang station of the Indo-China railway, four kms. from Chennankwan, traverses a difficult terrain. As specified in the loan agreement, engineering work was entrusted to a French company and began in April, 1938, from the Chennankwan end. Between May and December, 1939, rails were laid over the 61-km. section from Dongdang to Ningming. When the battle

of Nanning broke out in December, 1939, work was suspended and, a part of the rails was torn up and carried into Indo-China. The remaining rails and materials were later used to build the Kweichow-Kwangsi railway.

(2) The Yunnan-Burma Railway—From Kunming to Kunlong on the border of Burma, totaling 880 km. in length, it was to serve as a main international supply line. Surveying was completed early in 1938, and building commenced in November, 1938. Work was suspended by the Pacific war.

(3) The Suifu-Kunming Railway—This line covers a distance of 859 kms. from Kunming to Suifu (Ipin) in Szechwan, via Hsuanwei and Weining. Construction began in November, 1938. As it was planned to meet the Yunnan-Indo-China railway at Kunming, arrangements were made with French interests to supply building materials on credit. This agreement was never carried out because of the European War and the subsequent French capitulation to the Japanese in Indo-China. By the end of the war, only the 188-km. section from Kunming to Chanyi was in operation.

(4) The Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway—620 km. long, it meets the Hunan-Kwangsi railway at Liuchow and forms an important trunk line in southwest China. Survey work began in April, 1939. All materials needed were drawn from the projected Hunan-Kweichow railway and also from certain sections of the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway. Traffic was opened from Liuchow to Kingchenkiang (160 km.) at the end of January, 1941. Work on the section between Hochih and Kweiyang continued and on January 20, 1944, traffic was opened to Tuyun in Kweichow province, 467 km. from Liuchow. Work on that part from Tuyun to Kweiyang was suspended following the enemy drive in November, 1944.

(5) The Hsienyang-Tungkwan Branch Line—Constructed primarily for the purpose of supplying and transporting Tungkwan coal for railway use, this line in Shensi province acts as a feeder for the Lunghai railway. It connects Hsienyang and Tungkwan, 138 km. in length, and was completed in December, 1940.

Peiping-Shanhaikwan line—

Trunk:

Peiping East to Shanhaikwan 417 km.

Branches:

Yungtingmen to Nanyuan	8 "
Tientsin East to Tientsin South	3 "
Tientsin Central to Tientsin West	4 "
Hsinho to Tangku	5 "
Total	437 km.

(6) The Paoki-Tienshui Railway—An extension of the Lunghai railway linking Paoki (in Shensi) and Tienshui (in Kansu), the 168-km. line follows the Wei river gorges. No less than 129 tunnels, 21 kms. in all, had to be driven through the mountain. Part of it was opened in 1944 while the entire line was ready for traffic by the autumn of 1945.

(7) The Tienshui-Chengtou Railway—Final survey work on the 755 km. long system was completed.

(8) The Kikiang Railway—Construction on this short line (86 km.) which runs from Maoertou to Kikiang (in Szechwan) began in the summer of 1942 and was completed by the end of the war.

(9) The Chengtu-Chungking Railway—Most of the masonry and excavation was completed during the war, but no rails were available.

II. POSTWAR REHABILITATION

1. REGIONAL MANAGEMENT

At the Railway Conference held in 1943, it was decided that for economy and higher efficiency all railways throughout China should be operated under a regional system. Short feeder lines were to be controlled by the main railways, and new lines would be connected to the old ones. The regional management system went into effect on March 1, 1946.

The railways were grouped into 14 regions: Tientsin-Peiping, Tientsin-Pukow, Nanking-Shanghai, Chekiang-Kiangsi, Canton-Hankow, Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow, Peiping-Hankow, Lunghai, Kunming, Shansi-Hopei, Kirin, Chingchow, Mukden, and Taiwan.

Except for the railways in the Taiwan region, practically all of the railroads on the mainland were lost to the Communists up to the end of 1949.

A. *The Tientsin-Peiping Region*—Railway administration for this region was located in Peiping and covered the Peiping-Shanhaikwan, Peiping-Kupeikow, and Peiping-Suiyuan railways and their branches.

Subsidiary lines operating in this region during 1948 were as follows:

Peiping-Suiyuan line—*Trunk:*

Liutsun to Paotow	818 km.
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Branches:

Hsichihmen to Tungpienmen	13 "
Hsichihmen to Mentoukou	27 "
Tatung to Kouchuan	20 "
Total	878 km.

Peiping Kupeihow line—*Trunk:*

Tungpienmen to Shihhsia	119 km.
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Branches:

Suangchiaio to Tunghsien East	10 "
Total	129 km.

Auxiliary lines—*Trunk:*

Peiping West to Hsapienmen	6 km.
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Branches:

Hsapienmen to Kwanganmen	3 "
Total	9 km.

B. The Tientsin-Pukow Region—The railway administration for this region was located at Tsinan. Included in this system were the Tientsin-Pukow, Tsingtao-Tsinan, Tehchow-Hengshui and Pengpu-Sui-chiahu lines and their branches.

*Trunks:***Tientsin-Pukow Line—**

Tientsin to Chenkwantun	60 km.
Sangnan to Pukow	670 "

Tsingtao-Tsinan Line—

Tsinan-Shihlipao	60 "
Tanchiafang-Fangtze	53 "
Tsingtao-Lantsun	52 "

Branches:

Lincheng-Tsaochuang Line—Lincheng to Taochuang	17 "
Liuchuan Coal Mine Branch—through	15.85 "
Changtien-Poshan Line—difficult	
Pengpu-Shuichiahu Line—through	61.02 "

Up to February 10, 1948, those sections still considered serviceable were as follows: (Note: Because of the communist sabotage, the lines were frequently subjected to disruptions.)

The following sections were destroyed by the communists:

Trunks:

Tientsin-Pukow Line—Chenkwantun to Sangnan	279.26 km.
Tsingtao-Tsinan Line—Shihlipao to Tanchiafang & Fangtze to Lantsun	
Tehchow-Hengshui Line—whole line	69.95 "

Branches:

Nanhsintai Branch—Tungtaiping to Nanhsintai	66.38 "
Lincheng-Tsaochuang Line—Taochuang to Tsaochuang	14.02 "
Poshan Branch—Tsichuan to Poshan	6.89 "
Patou Branch—Poshan to Patou	9.33 "

C. The Nanking-Shanghai Region—The administrative headquarters for this region which included the Nanking-Shanghai, Shanghai-Hangchow, Soochow-Kiashing and Nanking-Kiangsi railways and their branches was located in Shanghai. Lines include:

Nanking-Shanghai Line	311.04 km.
Shanghai-Hangchow Line	185.83 "
Woosung-Shanghai Branch	14 "
Soochow-Kiashing Line	74 "
Nanking-Kiangsi Line	155 "

(The Nanking-Wuhu section, totalling 84.4 km., resumed operations on October 1, 1948.)

D. The Chekiang-Kiangsi Region—The railway administration for the Chekiang-Kiangsi and Nanchang-Kiukiang railways and their branches was located at King-hwa, Chekiang.

The two trunk lines had been in full operation since July 31, 1948. Rehabilitation since V-J Day had consisted of:

Hangchow to Chuki	77 km.	April, 1946
Kiangshan to Shangjao	85 "	
Chuh sien to Kiangshan	35 "	Jan. 1, 1947
Chuki to Kinghwa	108 "	Mar. 25, 1947
Kinghwa to Chuh sien	82 "	Sept. 1, 1947
Nanchang to Shangjao	252 "	Dec. 31, 1947
Nanchang to Kiukiang	128 "	June 16, 1947
Pinghsiang to Chuchow	82 "	June 5, 1947
Nanchang to Pinghsiang	132 "	July 31, 1948

E. The Canton-Hankow Region—Railways in this region include the Canton-Hankow, Canton-Kowloon, Canton-Sam-

sui and Hainan lines and their branches. Their administration is maintained from offices in Canton. The railroads are:

Trunks:

Wuchang to Canton	1,095.872 km.
Canton to Shumchun	146 "

Branches:

Shihweitang to Samsui	65.872 "
Canton to Shaho	9 "
Chuchow to Hsiangtan	30.870 "
Hsianghokow to Yangchiachiao	13.364 "
Paishihitu to Yangmeishan	13.765 "
Kishan to Whampoa	5.4 "

Trusted Line:

Yulin to Peili (Hainan Line)	180 "
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F. The Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow Region—The Hunan-Kwangsi and Kwangsi-Kweichow lines and their branches have their administrative headquarters in Liuchow. Sections in operation included:

Hengyang to Kweilin	353.120 km.
Kweilin to Liuchow	180.104 "
Liuchow to Laiping	71.776 "
Liuchow to Hwaiyuan	107.000 "
Tsingtaipo to Nantan	208.400 "
Tafenghuang Branch	19.509 "

Parts to be constructed are:

Hwaiyuan to Nantan	152.00 km.
Tsingtaipo to Kweiyang	152.335 "
Laiping to Litang	69.440 "
Litang to Chennankwan	352.053 "
Litang to Chankiang (Kwangchowwan)	328.183 "
Linlin to Lenshuitan	13.151 "
Kweih sien Branch	5.978 "

Railways in this region serve four provinces: Hunan, Kwangsi, Kweichow and Kwangtung. All 200.051 km. in Hunan have been completed and are in operation.

During 1947 the lines hauled 1,445,319 passengers, 2,729,670 kg. of parcels, 55,599,860 tons of freight, 22,581 military personnel, 5,664,790 tons of military supplies and 256,207,740 tons of railway materials.

G. The Peiping-Hankow Region—The railway administration of the Peiping-Hankow, and Taokou-Tsinghwa lines and their branches is maintained from Hankow. The sections in operation during 1947 were as follows:

January 1947:

Northern Section:	Peiping to Paoting Tinghsien to Shihchiachuang Shihchiachuang to Yuanshih
Southern Section:	Fenglochen to Hankow

October 1947:

Northern Section:	Peiping to Tinghsien
Southern Section:	Hsihsien to Hankow

December 1947:

Northern Section:	Peiping to Paoting
Southern Section:	Hsihsien to Hsuechang Hankow to Sinyang

In December, 1947, the southern section of the Peiping-Hankow railway was damaged extensively by the communists. Losses sustained included 27 locomotives, 53 coaches and 372 freight cars.

The total 1947 income of the railways in this region was CNC\$193,133,569,348.06 and the total expenditures, CNC\$375,-

638,538,405.83. Hence, the total income amounted to only 51.41% of the expenditures.

H. *The Lunghai Region*—The railway administration for the Lunghai railway and its branches was located at Chengchow.

TABLE 1.—MILEAGE OF LUNGHAI RAILWAY IN OPERATION, 1930 TO 1947

Year	Trunk	Branches	Kilometers	Indices
Prewar:				
1930.....	Tapu-Linpao		823	100
1931.....	Tapu-Tungkwan		893	109
1932.....	Tapu-Tungkwan		893	109
1933.....	Tapu-Tungkwan		893	109
1934.....	Tapu-Tungjwan		893	109
1935.....	Lienyun-Changan	Taierchuang-Chaotun	1,085	132
1936.....	Lienyun-Changan	Taierchuang-Chaotun	1,085	132
1937.....	Yentu-Paoki	Taierchuang-Chaotun	1,233	150
Wartime:				
1939.....	Chenghsien-Paoki		661	81
1939.....	Loyang-Paoki		541	66
1940.....	Loyang-Fulinpao	Hsienyang-Tungchuan	685	83
1941.....	Loyang-Fulinpao	Hsienyang-Tungchuan	685	83
1942.....	Loyang-Fulinpao	Hsienyang-Tungchuan	685	83
1943.....	Loyang-Fulinpao	Hsienyang-Tungchuan	685	83
1944.....	Shoutichen-Shihmen	Hsienyang-Tungchuan	488	51
1945.....	Lienyun-Loyang			
	Shouhsiang-Tiensui		1,405	171
Postwar:				
1946.....	Lienyun-Tiensui	Hsiengyang-Tungchuan		
		Kaifeng-Sinhsiang	1,601	194
1947.....	Lienyun-Paitapu	Hsienyang-Tungchuan		
	Sinanchen-Kiahotsai			
	Kaifeng-Loyang			
	Tungkwan-Paoki		810	98

Source: Ministry of Communications

Note: All figures were compiled at the end of the year.

I. *The Kunming Region*—The Kunming region railways included the Szechwan-Yunnan, Yunnan-Burma and Yun-

nan-Indo-China lines and their branches.

Sections in operation in 1947 were as follows:

Yunnan-Burma Line—Kunming-Chanyi	174 km.
Yunnan-Burma Line—Shihchueh-Kunming	12 "
A short stretch connecting the Szechwan-Yunnan and Yunnan-Burma Lines ..	8 "
Yunnan-Indo-China Line—Pishehchai to Kunming	287 "

In 1947, they carried over 2,842,278 passengers and 393,636 tons of freight, with the total income amounting to CNC\$33,509-million.

J. *The Shansi-Hopei Region*—The railway administrative office for the Chengting-Taiyuan and Tatung-Puchow lines

was located in Taiyuan. The Tatung-Puchow line was originally a provincial railway but after V-J Day had been placed under the management and control of the Shansi-Hopei Railway Administration.

Sections in operation in 1947 are shown on page 614.

Chengting-Taiyuan Line:

Shihchiachuang-Taiyuan	234 km.	Jan., 1947
Yutze-Taiyuan	25 "	May, 1947
Tatung-Puchow Line:		
Taiyuan-Kaotsun	50.5 km.	1947
Taiyuan-Linshih	167 "	1947

The Shansi-Hopei railways carried 1,105,881 passengers and 356,605 tons of cargo in 1947. Their total income was CNC\$5,811-million.

K. *The Kirin Region*—The railways under the Kirin administration, located

in Kirin City, were the Changchun-Tumenkiang, Lapin-Harbin, Kirin-Hailung, Changchun-Taoan, Chaoyangchuan-Kaishantun and Lungching-Holung lines and their branches.

Those in operation in the first six months of 1947 were as follows:

Changchun-Tumenkiang Line—Changchun to Kiangpei	135 km.
Kirin-Hailung Line—Kirin to Kouchien	21.2 "
Changchun-Taoan Line—Changchun to Kwanchengtze	10 "
Tafengman Branch	25 "
Lungkiang Branch	6 "

Those sections not in operation during the same period were:

Changchun-Tumenkiang Line—Kiangpei to Tumenkiang	395 km.
Kirin-Hailung Line—Kouchien to Hailung	172.1 "
Changchun-Taoan Line—Kwanchengtze to Taoan	323 "
Harbin-Lafa Line	266 "
Chaoyangchuan-Kaishantun Line	92.1 "
Lungching-Holung Line	52 "
Chiaoho-Naitzeshan Branch	10 "
Shulan-Meiyao Branch	150 "
Hsiaokuchia-Sinchan Branch	92 "

For the first half of 1947, the railways in the Kirin region transported 1,768,206 passengers and 331,933 tons of freight.

L. *The Chinchow Region*—The regional office in Chinchow controls the Mukden - Shanhaikwan, Chinchow - Kupeikow, Tahhushan - Tungliao, Yehpeishou - Chih-feng, Yingkou - Tahshihchiao, Yihsien-Sinlitun and other lines, 1,843.7 km. of railways in all.

M. *The Mukden Region*—The railways under the Mukden administration are the Antung-Mukden railway, 269.2 km.; the 49-km. Penhsi-Liaoyang railway, the 251.2-km. Mukden-Chaoyangchuan railway, the 86-km. Kungyuan-Tienhsihfu railway, the 53-km. Suchiatun-Fushun railway, the 102-km. Kinghsien-Chengtzetung railway, the 252-km. Meihokow-Chihan railway and the Fengkwan lines, 82 km.

N. *The Taiwan Region*—Railways in Taiwan have been temporarily placed under the management of the Taiwan provincial government. The Japanese, soon after they annexed the island in 1895 began to extend the only short railway (28.6 km.) built by the Chinese. By the time of their surrender in August, 1945, railroads almost circuted the island, leaving only 157 km. on the southeastern side unfinished.

As of 1949, sections of railroads in operation were as follows:

Keelung to Kaohsiung:	409 km.
Branches	64 "
Private Railroads	3,203 "
Keelung to Suao	99 "
Chunan to Changhwa	91 "
Kaohsiung to Linpien	63 "
Hwalienkang to Taitung	176 "
Hsinchu to Chutung Branch ..	17 "

2. REHABILITATION OF RAILWAYS

The rehabilitation of war-torn railways after V-J Day was undertaken in two stages: first, the emergency repairing of lines destroyed by the communists after the war; and, second, the restoration of communications disrupted by the government itself during the war. Since the work on the former must be done quickly, improvised measures had to be taken as the needs arose rather than on a regular and planned schedule. As for the latter, all repairs were carried out on a progressive basis according to plan.

Between V-J Day and the end of 1947, altogether 16,515 km. of railways in China were either destroyed or seized by the communist rebels. Out of this 6,398 km. were repaired. For this tremendous program, the Ministry of Communications allocated to the various railway administrations below the Great Wall 525 km. of rails, 2,480,000 ties and CNC\$300-billion. Repair materials and funds for the

northeast were supplied by the Northeastern Economic Commission.

During 1947 alone, 2,057 km. of rails, 1,089 bridges and 236 stations below the Great Wall were blown up by the communist rebels. The Ministry of Communications contributed 235 km. of rails and 1,730,000 ties to the various railway administrations for the repairing of 930 km. of rails, 630 bridges and 60 stations.

The Lincheng-Tsinan section of the Tientsin-Pukow railway and the Tamiao-Sinan section of the Lunghai railway were most efficiently repaired. The most seriously damaged was the Peiping-Pao-tsing section of the Peiping-Hankow railway. The communists blew up the railway six times and the government had to change the course of the roadbed five times. The stretch between Hsuechow and Kaifeng of the Lunghai railway was repaired three times but at the end of 1947, traffic on this section was still suspended.

Some of the railways which were damaged were never repaired because of continued communist sabotage. The section of the Lunghai railway between Loyang and Tungkwan is one of these. On the Sinyang-Chengchow section of the Peiping-Hankow railway, the communists did a thorough job of destruction. Rails, ballast ties and telegraphic wires were burnt down or dismantled. Likewise, the Tsinan-Tsingtao railway in eastern Shantung suffered the same fate.

Other lines such as the Chengting-Taiyuan and Tatung-Pukow railways could not be repaired because large stretches were in the hands of the communists. The Peiping-Mukden railway was subjected to frequent communist raids, but was always quickly repaired.

At the end of 1947, 13,675 km., or less than half of the total railway length in China, were open to traffic. This was 1,137 km. short of the 1946 total.

Rehabilitation work on the most important of the damaged railways south of the Yangtze was concentrated on the Canton-Hankow, Chekiang-Kiangsi, Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow and Hainan lines.

Through traffic between Canton and Hankow was resumed in April, 1946. This great artery linking the Pearl river valley with the Yangtze in central China had totalled 109 large bridges, 603 small bridges and 23 tunnels. Much of this suffered extensively during the war. The quick advance of the Japanese from both the Hankow and Canton ends of the railway in the autumn of 1938 forced the Chinese to remove rails between Hankow and Changsha in the north and Canton and Kukong (Shaokwan) in the south.

After the first Japanese attack on Changsha in 1939, another section between Changsha and Hengyang was demolished. However, the sections between Hengyang and Kukong continued to operate until the critical months of late 1944 and early 1945, when the last Japanese thrust through central China necessitated the total destruction of the line.

As part of its military strategy, the Government, in demolishing the railroads, saw to it that the job was done so thoroughly so as to render them inoperable to the enemy for at least six months. As a result, the Japanese found they could not utilize the Canton-Hankow line, especially the 405 km. between Chuchow and the Milo river in northern Hunan. One hundred and two of its bridges were dynamited.

Such thorough destruction made post-war rehabilitation difficult. Three months after the Japanese surrender, workers began repairs on the Canton-Hankow railway. By February, 1946, south-bound trains could reach Hengyang. Two months later, the renovated line extended to Kukong in northern Kwangtung. Repair work on the whole line was completed in June, 1946. Thus, the Canton-Hankow railway, the worst war railway casualty, was the first trunk line to be restored in China.

UNRRA supplies played an important part in its rehabilitation. It received 22 locomotives in April, 1946, and in October ten more locomotives, 1,239 coaches, 2,499,723 ties and 4,946 sections of rails.

Before receipt of UNRRA supplies, the Canton-Hankow railway, with the approval of the Ministry of Communications, removed rails between Hengyang and Chuanhsien on the Hunan-Kwangsi line so that work could start immediately. Lumber was used instead of steel in the construction of the smaller bridges. Where steel had to be used, as in the case of the bridges spanning the Laotao and Liuyang rivers in northern Hunan, it was dismantled from other bridges on the line.

A projected improvement for the railway was the construction of steel bridge across the Yangtze between Hankow and Wuchang to connect it with the Peiping-Hankow railway, which, however, has been postponed indefinitely after the communist occupation of Hankow in May, 1949.

In 1933, the Ministry of Communications thought it feasible to extend the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway westward to meet the Nanchang-Kiukiang railway in Kiangsi and the Canton-Hankow railway in Hunan. This was completed in seven

years (1929-36), making it 1,153 km. in length. It served the Chientang valley in Chekiang, the Kan valley in Kiangsi and the Hsiang valley in Hunan. In the autumn of 1937, the bridges spanning the Chientang river were completed, connecting the entire area with the sea port of Shanghai.

One year after its completion, however, this vital line had to be destroyed. In December, 1937, after Hangchow—its eastern terminus—fell to the Japanese, rails from the north bank of the Chientang river to Chuki were torn up. The Chientang bridge was bombed earlier by the Chinese Air Force.

The Japanese moved up the Yangtze the following year. The rails of the Nanchang-Kiukiang railway were removed in June 1938. In March, 1939, after the loss of Nanchang, provincial capital of Kiangsi, the western section of the Chekiang-Kiangsi line was also demolished to prevent enemy usage. Only 480 km. between Chuki in Chekiang and Tunghsiang in Kiangsi remained intact until June 1942, when finally this, too, was torn up to prevent Japanese capture.

The autumn of 1942 there was a lull in the fighting. The Chinese quickly started to rebuild. On December 1, 1942, the first rail was laid for a line between Kiangshan in Chekiang and Shangjao in Kiangsi. On New Year's Day, 1943, trains were again running over this 86 km. route.

Out of military necessity, the Japanese later repaired the Chientang-Kinhwa section of 185 km. In the summer of 1945, the Japanese began to remove the rails to impede counter-attacking Chinese troops. V-J Day found only a short stretch of 77 km. between the Chientang river and Chuki serviceable. The whole line had but one locomotive, nine coaches and 59 freight cars, whereas effective operation of the whole railway would require at least 140 locomotives, 300 coaches and 1,250 freight cars.

The government began repairs immediately, but this was hampered by a delay in the arrival of materials. On New Year's Day, 1947, traffic was resumed between Kiangshan and Chuhsien. The following month, rails were laid from Chuki to Kinhwa. Traffic was resumed in March 25, a month ahead of schedule. Repair work on the Kinhwa-Lanchi branch was completed on June 20 and three days later the people in western Chekiang saw trains running for the first time since 1938.

The 150-km. railway between Nanchang and Kiukiang received 73 km. of rails

from UNRRA and 77 km. from the Ministry of Communications for its reconstruction work which started simultaneously from both ends. On June 15, 1947, the two repair crews met, and three days later, trains were running.

The Chekiang-Kiangsi railway administration then concentrated on the Shangjao-Pinghsiang stretch and through traffic between Hangchow and Kiukiang was restored early in 1948. The last section between Pingsiang and Nanchang was completed on July 31, 1948.

Through traffic on the 535-km. Hunan-Kwangsi railway in southwest China, built during the war, was resumed on November 28, 1947.

The government started this line in 1939 from Hengyang on the Canton-Hankow railway in central Hunan, mainly for military reasons. To prevent Japanese seizure, the railway administration was soon compelled to stop its construction and began to remove the rolling stock, rails and ties on the eastern section. Later, the entire line was destroyed.

In the interval between its destruction and the end of the war, the Japanese repaired 236 km. from Hengyang to Chuanhsien on the Kwangsi border, but the four bridges were not rebuilt until after V-J Day.

The Ministry of Communication had given top priority to the Canton-Hankow railway in China's reconstruction program. Rails on the Hengyang-Chuanhsien section and wrecked bridges on the Hunan-Kwangsi line were salvaged for use on this route. Its speedy repair by June, 1946, made it possible to begin rehabilitation immediately on the Hunan-Kwangsi railway.

At the request of the Ministry of Communications, authorities of the four provinces through which the line traverses, mobilized villagers into hundreds of working corps. Because of the fluctuation of prices, in addition to wages, the workers were paid in rice, clothing material and other daily necessities. They were also given travelling expenses, free lodging, medical care and entertainment, which made for high morale and the early completion of the project.

From the 60 km. of rails returned by the Canton-Hankow railway, and others salvaged from less important lines, the Hunan-Kwangsi railway succeeded in completing the 60-km. Liuchow-Laiping section in August, 1946.

The arrival of more supplies made possible the rebuilding of the Kweilin-Yungfu section by November 28, 1946. On January 16, 1947, train service was extended

to Liuchow which was linked with Yishan on February 23. The first postwar east-bound train reached Chuanhsien on May 5, 1947.

A survey made by the Ministry of Communications early in 1947 indicated it would take about one year for the reconstruction of the remaining 354 km. from Kweilin to Hengyang. Thus the resumption of through traffic on the entire line on November 28, 1947, was effected a month ahead of schedule.

In repairing the Hunan-Kwangsi railway, although the engineers had 701 tons of spikes, 327,500 pairs of fishplates and 795,770 ties to work with, they had to rely much on improvisation. Odd lengths of rails were handsawed. Their heads became hammers; their thin midsections, spikes; and their thick bases were cut and drilled to make fishplates.

No modern machinery was available, often not even hand tools. In building trestle bridges, several tiers were first piled up high enough across streams to provide temporary crossings. Then the workers gradually raised them by small handjacks, until by this crude method the old spans, including steel girders, were raised on wooden piles as high as 60 meters.

Under the same difficulties new construction on the Tuyun-Kweiyang section, which was left unfinished during the war, progressed. Actual work was started as early as December 1946, with 5,370 workers organized into 93 groups. It is estimated that the completion of this section involves the construction of 21 tunnels, with a total length of 3,100 m.; 15 large bridges, with a total length of 1,500 m.; 21 small bridges; and 104 drainage ditches.

3. THE HAINAN RAILWAY

The idea of building a round-the-island railway on Hainan island originated with Dr. T. V. Soong, whose ancestors were natives of the island. The Chungyeh (Hainan) Railway Engineering Office was established in 1936. Surplus 35-lb. rails from the Chekiang-Kiangsi railway were available for the eastern terminal—from Maniakang of Linkao through Hailow, Chungshan, Wenchang, Lohwei, Kiachih, Wanning and Linsui to Yulin. Four survey groups were sent out simultaneously, but the work was suspended in 1937 because of the war.

The Japanese landed on Hainan island in 1939 and turned Yulinkang and Sanyeh into Japanese naval bases. During their six-year occupation, they built five short railways: (1) The Hainan line, from

Yulin to Peili, 179.9 km.; (2) The Sanyeh branch, from Sanyeh to Liuhsiang, 7.7 km.; (3) the Hsiehieh branch, from Hsiehieh to Kankow, 0.36 km.; (4) the Shihlu branch, from Shihlu mines to Pasuo Port, 51.7 km. and (5) the Tientu branch, from Anyu opposite Yulin to the Tientu mine, 11.8 km.

But the work was hurriedly done. After V-J Day, it was already in great disrepair. The typhoon in September, 1946, damaged 15 bridges, totalling 828 m., three wooden bridges, totalling 612 m., 16 drainage ditches, and 538 telegraph poles. In addition, 13,185 sq. m. of roadbed were levelled off and another 9,546 sq. m. cut by rapid currents at innumerable places.

In November, 1946, Wu Ting-wei of the Canton-Hankow railway was appointed to head an engineering office to rehabilitate the Hainan railway. The original plan was to complete repairs in three months. Shortages in material and transportation, labor and weather difficulties handicapped its operation until September 18, 1947. Subsidiary lines also gradually resumed activities. The railway and its branches are now under the management of the Canton-Hankow railway administration.

4. CONSTRUCTION OF NEW RAILWAYS

High on China's postwar plan of building railways was the completion of the main artery linking the southwest with the northwest. The system, when finished, will connect Chankiang in the former French leased territory at Kwangchowwan in Kwangtung, with Liuchow in Kwangsi, Kweiyang in Kweichow, Lungchang and Chengtu in Szechwan, and Tienshui and Lanchow in Kansu. Under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Communications, work began in four parts: the Laiping-Kwangchowwan, Tuyun-Kweiyang, Chengtu-Chungking and the Tienshui-Lanchow sections. A survey group was in the field to chart another line from Lungchang to Kweiyang.

During 1947, 14% of the construction work on the Tuyun-Kweiyang section, 39% on the Chengtu-Chungking section, and 27% of the Tienshui-Lanchow section were completed. If necessary materials were supplied in time, completion of the entire system could be expected within three years.

Survey work on the Fukien-Kwangsi, Szechwan-Hankow and Kiangsi-Kwangtung lines has also been completed. Others surveyed included the Paotow-Ningsia, Lungchang-Kweichow and Yunnan-Kwangsi lines.

TABLE 2.—EMERGENCY REPAIRS ON RAILWAYS IN CHINA DURING 1947

Railways	Destruction						Repair Materials		
	Track		Bridges		Stations		Rails	Ties	Steel (tons)
	Times	Length	Times	Number	Times	Number			
Tsingtao-Tsinan.....	275	390 km.	224	215	42	42	45,870	501,593	3,619
Tientsin-Pukow.....	165	155	33	100	16	24	9,555	259,129	2,073
Peiping-Hankow.....	577	715	182	268	47	61	131,661	971,172	7,742
Chengting-Taiyuan*	24	9	4	10	29	29	152	1,703	..
Tatung-Puchow.....	36	75	5	4	22	16	8,709	93,366	..
Lunghai.....	125	521	90	411	33	48	26,378	623,741	2,548
Peiping-Mukden.....	424	123	21	31	10	10	1,909	42,572	74**
Peiping-Suiyuan.....	39	8	24	25	3	3	677	8,159	14**
Peiping-Kupeikow.....	97	61	25	25	2	3	1,051	21,605	9**
TOTAL.....	1,762	2,057	608	1,089	204	236	225,962	2,523,040	

*Large sections of this railway were then already in communist-occupied territory, hence figures given do not actually represent the whole line. But before its seizure by the Reds, 930 km. had been repaired. Reconstruction material included 4,861 ties and 632 km. of rails.

**Spans of railway bridges.

Source: Ministry of Communications

TABLE 3.—REPAIR WORK ON CHINESE RAILWAYS DURING 1947

Repair Work	Unit	Nanking-Shanghai	Tientsin-Yenchow	Yenchow-Pukow	Tatung-Puchow	Chengting-Taiyuan	Peiping-Chengchow	Chengchow-Hankow
Rails changed.....	piece	13,392	1,106	1,294	1,294	91	2,869	1,027
Ties changed.....	piece	233,417	140,882	38,248	40,950	15,482	41,133	137,432
Ballast added.....	cubic meter	71,994	34,867	10,519	9,549	412	22,004	13,700
Spans erected.....	span	13	4	103
Piers erected.....	span	..	8	11	..	5	..	35
Piers repaired.....	..	10	11	..	2	41
Tunnels.....	meter	5
Station buildings.....	square meter	5,285	2,859	1,620	4,190	3,309
Water supply.....	place	12	4	..	1	5
Houses newly-built.....	square meter	21,124	5,671	950	1,225	..	390	24,960
Houses repaired.....	square meter	8,528	7,482	45,200	17,680	7,130
Factories newly-built.....	square meter	2,346	..	2,500	8,995	6,847
Factories repaired.....	square meter	1,923	9,883	7,600	14,401	..
Telegraph wires.....	kilometer	367	311	554	179	..	40,000	1,564

Repair Work	Unit	Chekiang-Kiangsi	Peiping-Tientsin	Lunghai	Hunan-Kwangsi-Kweichow	Szechwan-Yunnan	Yunnan-Indo-China	Canton-Hankow
Rails changed.....	piece	4,684	6,247	5,170	198	165	1,045	5,966
Ties changed.....	piece	111,494	312,118	149,040	99,862	23,292	4,927	378,120
Ballast added.....	cubic meter	4,500	32,488	19,366	10,554	12,335	1,877	139,254
Spans erected.....	span	8	238	103	52	2	..	299
Piers erected.....	span	20	10	11
Piers repaired.....	..	18	11	27	31	4	..	412
Tunnels.....	meter	28	..	400	55
Station buildings.....	square meter	63	907	4,036	2,263	187	234	1,800
Water supply.....	place	2	9	13	1	1	1	4
Houses newly-built.....	square meter	264	211	5,436	22,064	3,696	2,602	25,500
Houses repaired.....	square meter	205	5,012	3,406	580	5,601	7,500	2,500
Factories newly-built.....	square meter	429	112	3,952	1,006
Factories repaired.....	square meter	18	..	308	250	2,126	0	1,600
Telegraph wires.....	kilometer	148	808	15	244	1,294

Source: Ministry of Communications

HIGHWAYS

The first Chinese highway, a provincial line, was built in 1913 between Changsha and Hsiangtan in Hunan. Four years later, a commercial company opened a line from Kalgan to Urga, capital of Outer Mongolia. Systematic development of highways, however, did not begin until after the establishment of the National Government in 1927. From then on new roads were built each year along with improvements on existing highways. Progress in highway development in 21 years from 1927 to 1947 is summarized in Table 4.

NATIONAL HIGHWAYS NETWORK

With a view to establishing a nationwide standardized highway system, the Executive Yuan formulated, shortly after the end of World War II, plans for a national highways network.

Main features of the plans provided that (1) National highways are divided into three categories—basic, longitudinal and lateral. Except for the northeast (Manchuria), Taiwan and Hainan island where national highways will be grouped into another separate category, all roads

below the Great Wall will include four basic lines, five longitudinal lines, and six lateral lines and 22 connecting branch lines. These 37 lines have an aggregate length of 57,223 km.

(2) In the first stage, 38,608 km. of highways are to be nationalized. The Directorate-General of Highways will instruct various district offices to improve the roads and to assume duties of transportation and administration on them according to a fixed standard. The remaining highways will remain under the provincial governments for the time being.

(3) Communication control on all highways, whether nationalized or not, must be operated in accordance with orders and regulations promulgated by the Ministry of Communications.

(4) Of the highways to be nationalized, some have been under the management of the Central Planning Board such as highways in the northwest, southwest and Szechwan-Sikang districts. Those highways will continue to be operated by the central authorities. For others which have been functioning under provincial governments, the Ministry of Communications will negotiate for their transfer.

TABLE 4—HIGHWAY DEVELOPMENT, 1927-1947

Year	Length Built	Accumulated Length
	kilometers	kilometers
1927.....	3,059	29,170
1928.....	1,380	30,550
1929.....	3,894	34,444
1930.....	12,222	46,666
1931.....	19,445	66,111
1932.....	4,788	70,899
1933.....	1,353	72,252
1934.....	12,558	84,810
1935.....	11,444	96,254
1936.....	19,449	115,703
1937.....	1,594	117,297
1938.....	973	118,270
1939.....	2,583	120,853
1940.....	949	121,802
1941.....	2,616	124,418
1942.....	755	125,173
1943.....	1,571	126,744
1944.....	1,419	128,163
1945.....	1,871	126,256*
1946.....	274	130,220*
1947.....	1,071	131,291

* The independence of Outer Mongolia took 3,778 km. away from Chinese highways while the retrocession of Taiwan brought an addition of 3,690 km.

The projected national network* covered the length and breadth of China Proper in the following manner:

First Basic Line—from Shanghai to Lhasa via intermediate stations in Kiangsu, Anhwei, Hupeh, Szechwan, Sikang and Chinghai provinces. No road has been built between Yushu in Chinghai and the terminal city of Lhasa.

Second Basic Line—from Kowloon to Pangkiang in Chahar by way of cities and towns in Kwangtung, Hunan, Hupeh, Honan, Hopei, Shantung and Chahar.

Third Basic Line—from Mamoi in Fukien to Holgos in Sinkiang, traversing through the provinces of Fukien, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, and Sinkiang.

Fourth Basic Line—from Wanting on the Yunnan-Burma border to Chengteh in Jehol through Yunnan, Szechwan, Shensi, Shansi and Hopei into the Jehol capital.

First Longitudinal Line—from Hainan island to Shanhaikwan via Kwangtung, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shantung and Hopei.

Second Longitudinal Line—from Swatow to Chouchiakow in Anhwei with intermediate stations in Kwangtung, Kiangsi and Anhwei provinces.

Third Longitudinal Line—from Changteh in Hunan to Pangkiang in Suiyuan through Hupeh, Honan and Shansi.

Fourth Longitudinal Line—from Chankiang (Kwangchowwan) to Pailinmiao in Suiyuan via Kwangsi, Kweichow, Szechwan, Shensi and Suiyuan.

Fifth Longitudinal Line—from Talo in Yunnan to Shenpa in Ningsia covering the provinces of Yunnan, Sikang, Szechwan, Kansu and Ningsia.

First Lateral Line—from Amoy to Chennankwan through Fukien, Kiangsi, Kwangtung and Kwangsi.

Second Lateral Line—from Shanghai to Tienshengchiao through Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, Kweichow and Yunnan.

Third Lateral Line—from Luszekang in Kiangsu to Paocheng in Shensi by way of Kiangsu, Anhwei, Honan, Hupeh and Shensi.

Fourth Lateral Line—from Lienyun-kang (Haichow) in Kiangsu to Ming-takai mountain pass in Sinkiang with intermediate stations in Kiangsu, Honan, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai and Sinkiang.

Fifth Lateral Line—from Tsingtao to Ningsia traversing Shantung, Hopei, Honan, Shansi, Shensi and Ningsia provinces.

Sixth Lateral Line—from Tuolun in Chahar to Shenpa in Ningsia, linking Chahar, Shansi, Suiyuan and Ningsia.

In addition, a branch highway on the Second Longitudinal Line would run from Sih sien to Wuhu, both in Anhwei province; and a branch on the Third Longitudinal Line links Juwenchiao with Kaifeng in Honan. The Fourth Longitudinal Line has three branches (Yulin to Lien-tang in Kwangsi, Kweilin in Kwangsi to Chuanhu in Hunan, and Lipu in Kwangsi to Sansui in Kweichow), the Fifth Longitudinal Line has three branches (from Pakhoi in Kwangtung to Shatze in Kweichow), and the Sixth Longitudinal Line has five branches (from Chennan to Hsiaokwanho in Yunnan, from Siwu to Taotangho in Chinghai, Kiuchuan in Kansu to Chatao in Ningsia, Nchiang to Kurleh in Sinkiang, and Wusu to Tacheng in Sinkiang).

Similarly, each of the six lateral lines also has one or more branch roads. The branches are: one on the First Lateral Line (from Canton to Hsintu in Kwangsi); three on the Second Lateral Line (from Taiho in Kiangsi to Yushuwan in Hunan, Yungkia in Chekiang to Yangwan in Kiangsi, and Hsiangshan to Hangchow in Chekiang); two on the Third Lateral Line (Paoshan in Yunnan to the Yunnan-Burma border; and Sanchiaoping in Hunan to Chienkiang in Szechwan); two on the Fifth Lateral Line (from Ansi in Kansu to Hungliukow in Sinkiang; and Paiyangho to Shachu in Sinkiang); and one on the Sixth Lateral Line (from Weihsien to Weihaiwei in Shantung).

ADMINISTRATION FOR NATIONAL HIGHWAYS

In order to unify the administration of national highways, and to prepare for the enforcement of the five-year highway reconstruction plan, the Directorate-General of Highways has divided the country into nine regions, each with a District Directorate of Highways to supervise and direct affairs pertaining to highways, such as construction, improvement and maintenance of roads, traffic control, assistance to the provincial highway authorities, etc.

There are 2,647 km. of national highways in the first region (Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei); 5,118 km. in the second region (Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi); 3,683 km. in the fourth region (Yunnan and Kweichow); 5,031 km. in the fifth region (Szechwan, Sikang and Tibet); 6,377 km. in the sixth region (Sinkiang); 8,160 km. in the seventh

* Wide-spread communist rebellion in 1948-49 prevented materialization of these plans.

region (Kansu, Ningsia, Chinghai, Shensi and Suiyuan); and 4,299 km. in the eighth region (Shansi, Hopei, Shantung, Honan, Chahar and Jehol). The ninth region covers the nine Northeastern Provinces. But due to early communist disturbances there, it was never established.

During 1947, the government began construction work on 2,047 km. of highways, of which 1,071 km. were completed. It also improved 3,619 km. and repaired 6,412 km. of national highways.

Among the newly-constructed national highways, the two most important are the Chinghai-Sinkiang and the southern Sinkiang highways. The Chinghai-Sinkiang highway from Taotangho to Kinghung-shankow extends 1,247 km. Actual construction began in 1946 from both ends and the whole line was completed in two years.

The southern Sinkiang highway starts at Tunhuang and ends at Yutien. Important stations between these points include Nochiang, and Chumo.

PROVINCIAL HIGHWAYS

Formerly there was no standardized management and administration of provincial highways. With each province having its own system, there was little co-ordination. In 1946 the Directorate-General of Highways formulated a set of standards for highways in 15 provinces—Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Szechwan, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kweichow, Shensi, Shansi, Honan, Hopei and Shantung—and gave financial assistance to various provinces in the construction and repairing of roads.

The length of provincial highways in 1947 was increased by 20% and the number of motor vehicles by 15% over corresponding figures of 1946.

To solve partially the problem of shortage of motor vehicles, all the vehicles of the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration were transferred to transportation authorities of the central and local government upon the closing of CNRRA at the end of 1947. Provincial highway administrations and bureaus received 517 vehicles which were distributed as follows: Kwangtung, 64; Kwangsi, 50; Hunan, 100; Hupeh, 15; Kiangsi, 80; Fukien, 4; Kiangsu, 12; Chekiang, 4; Anhwei, 20; Honan, 80; Shantung, 40; Jehol, 20; Hopei, 10; Chahar, 6; Suiyuan, 6; and Shansi, 6.

SHIPPING

China's coastline from Antung at the mouth of the Yalu river in the extreme north down to the mouth of the Pilun

river in southwestern Kwangtung extends 8,630 km. in length. Of the rivers, canals and lakes, it is estimated that some 15,000 km. of waterways are navigable for steamships and another 24,000 km. for junks and sailboats.

The history of shipping in China is closely linked with that of the economic rivalry of the Western powers. China first surrendered her coastal navigation rights after the Opium War of 1839-41. The year 1896 marked the beginning of ships of foreign flags sailing into China's inland waters. From that time on China's shipping industry had been largely owned and operated by foreign interests, notably Great Britain, the United States, Japan, France and Italy. Expansion of Chinese owned and operated shipping concerns began only in recent years.

Her long coastline notwithstanding, China's prewar shipping tonnage was only 570,000 tons (the prewar combined tonnage of Chinese and foreign merchant shipping was 1,280,000). Purchase of various types of vessels from foreign countries after World War II together with reparations from Japan brought the total tonnage at the end of 1947 to 1,030,000. According to the Yangtze Navigation Administration which released this figure, it represented an 80% increase over the prewar figure and almost 1,200% over the wartime total. However, it was estimated then that to meet her needs China needed at least another 500,000 tons of merchant marine craft.

The shipping administrations in Shanghai and Tientsin were restored shortly after the end of the war in 1945. The Yangtze Shipping Administration was moved back to Hankow and the Pearl River Shipping Administration resumed operation in Canton. A new Northeastern Shipping Administration was created to take charge of the entire area of the nine Northeastern Provinces (Manchuria).

Japanese and puppet shipping interests were taken over by the Ministry of Communications. In Taiwan, the provincial government succeeded to all titles of shipping interests formerly owned by the Japanese.

Ships thus taken over numbered 2,751 and aggregated 251,288 tons, including 1,234 ships (231,430 tons) in the Nan-king-Shanghai area; 590 (37,190 tons) in the Hankow area; 416 (43,972 tons) in the Tientsin area; and 511 (43,696 tons) in the Canton area. Among all the ships acquired, only 20 exceeded 1,000 tons each. Twenty-three of the ships were between 500 and 1,000 tons each, and 86 ships were

of the 100-500 ton class. The remainder comprised small steamers of less than 100 tons.

Most of the ships taken over were damaged in the war and had to be repaired or overhauled. Of ships weighing 140 tons or more, only 43 (totalling 39,519 tons) were serviceable.

During the war, China lost, directly and indirectly, 3,000 vessels totalling 495,320 tons, of which 124 ships aggregating 367,383 tons were ocean-going vessels. Hence the ships taken over from the enemy after the war—even adding the ships built during the war in Free China

—could not make good the losses.

At the end of June, 1947, the Ministry of Communications reported, ships operating in China water numbered 2,518 and totalled 808,815 tons. Of the total, ocean-going ships numbered 1,017 (628,922 tons) and river boats, 1,501 (179,893 tons).

The repairing of old and damaged ships and the arrival of UNRRA vessels were responsible for the substantial increase in the nation's shipping tonnage during the second half of 1947. By the end of 1947 3,615 ships, totalling 1,032,305 tons, were in operation along the coast and on the inland waterways.

TABLE 5.—SHIPS OPERATING IN CHINA WATERS IN DECEMBER, 1947

Classification	Shanghai Area	Yangtze Area	Canton Area	Tientsin Area	North-east Area	Taiwan Area	Total
For Passengers....	64	209	199	..	1	206	473
Tonnage.....	36,667	10,939	7,374	..	19	..	54,999
For Freight.....	705	29	370	52	26	122	1,304
Tonnage.....	648,351	2,351	25,219	7,071	916	17,029	700,937
Mixed.....	79	260	666	34	..	17	1,056
Tonnage.....	69,862	45,423	73,310	10,158	..	1,991	200,744
Tugboats.....	173	193	204	10	9	6	595
Tonnage.....	24,596	6,914	33,483	703	254	131	66,081
Trawlers.....	32	1	1	92	..	61	187
Tonnage.....	2,149	17	26	4,950	..	2,402	9,544
Ocean-going Ships.	502	..	384	117	8	190	1,261
Tonnage.....	666,151	..	59,196	21,978	474	21,317	769,116
River Boats.....	551	692	1,056	11	28	16	2,354
Tonnage.....	115,474	65,644	80,216	904	715	236	263,189
State-operated....	262	18	1	13	294
Tonnage.....	346,699	20,048	232	4,695	371,674
Provincial.....	51	148	18	20	6	75	318
Tonnage.....	53,124	9,013	1,334	1,149	217	14,159	78,996
Commercial.....	740	526	1,421	155	30	131	3,003
Tonnage.....	381,802	36,583	137,846	17,038	972	7,394	581,635
Oil-powered.....	688	200	783	161	26	204	2,062
Tonnage.....	313,136	10,239	64,526	11,201	805	21,243	421,150
Coal-powered....	365	492	657	27	10	2	1,553
Tonnage.....	468,489	55,405	74,886	11,681	384	310	611,155
TOTAL—SHIPS....	1,053	692	1,440	188	36	206	3,615
TONNAGE.....	781,625	65,644	139,412	22,882	1,189	21,553	1,032,305

Source: Ministry of Communications

Note: The state-operated ships listed above included those left over by the China Waterway Transport (a CNRRA organization) and trawlers owned by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

POSTWAR OPERATION

With the end of the war in 1945, all old shipping routes were gradually restored with Shanghai as the center. New routes between Shanghai and Taiwan were opened. By the end of 1947, there were six routes including the Shanghai-Hongkong-Canton, Shanghai-Wenchow-Amoy, Shanghai-Amoy-Foochow and Shanghai-Keelung-Amoy routes going southward from Shanghai along the coast. Eight liners operating on these lines carried on the average 400,000 persons and 270,000 tons of cargo per month.

Northward from Shanghai were eight lines, including the Shanghai-Tientsin, Shanghai-Tsingtao-Tientsin, Shanghai-Yingkow, Shanghai-Haichow-Chinwangtao, Shanghai-Hulutao, Shanghai-Haichow and Shanghai-Pukow routes. Sixteen ships plying on these lines carried an average of 70,000 persons and 110,000 tons of cargo monthly.

Foreign shipping interests almost monopolized China's sea communication with other countries before the war. From the

latter part of 1945 onward, the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company opened seven routes linking China with the outside world. The routes were: (a) Shanghai-Hongkong line, (b) Shanghai-Swatow-Hongkong-Haiphong line, (c) Shanghai-Swatow-Hongkong-Bangkok line, (d) Shanghai-Guam and Shanghai-Hongkong-Singapore-Rangoon-Calcutta lines, (e) Amoy-Manila line, (f) Hongkong-Singapore line, and (g) Shanghai-Tokyo line.

SHIPPING COMPANIES

The oldest and the largest Chinese shipping concern is the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company which was established at the end of 1872 by the Manchu government with only one ship bought from Britain. It became a commercial concern the following year and from then on was from time to time jointly operated by the government and commercial interests. Purchasing the company in 1930, the National Government in 1932 turned it over to the Ministry of

**TABLE 6.—NAVIGABLE LENGTHS OF INLAND WATERWAYS IN CHINA
(in kilometers)**

River	For Big Steamers	For Shallow- Draft Steamers	For Small Steamers	For Motor- Boats	For Junks	For Rafts	Total
Yangtze.....	1,848	609	2,764	..	11,755	..	16,976
Heilungkiang....	1,014	1,161	1,801	..	536	426	4,938
Pearl River.....	162	209	784	2,083	1,237	..	4,475
Ku.....	69	..	343	..	1,606	..	2,018
Yellow.....	1,918	..	1,918
Grand Canal....	904	..	461	..	1,365
Hwai.....	478	..	877	..	1,355
Min.....	31	..	138	..	895	..	1,064
Chientang.....	109	..	738	..	847
Liao.....	21	..	100	..	723	..	844
Luan.....	524	..	524
Yalu.....	46	..	441	..	487
Han.....	251	..	236	..	487
Ou.....	52	..	69	..	230	..	351
Chang.....	43	..	261	..	305
Hsiaoching.....	23	..	276	..	299
Yungshao Canal..	175	..	48	..	223
Chih Canal.....	185	..	185
Lin.....	69	..	69	..	138
Yung.....	22	..	58	80
Ching.....	69	..	69
TOTAL.....	3,219	1,979	8,155	2,083	23,086	426	38,948

Source: Ministry of Communications

Communications for administration and operation.

In 1937 the company had 53 ships totaling some 80,000 tons. When the Sino-Japanese hostilities broke out, many of its ships were sunk or scuttled for defense booms. The heavy losses forced it to suspend operation until 1943 when it resumed operation in Chungking with 20 ships aggregating 25,000 tons after it was revitalized with a government appropriation of CNC\$6-million. With 50% of its stocks sold to private investors, it again became a government-commercial joint enterprise in October, 1948.

Purchasing ships from abroad after the war, the China Merchants by the end of 1947 had 61 ocean-going ships (186,278.46 gross tons), 28 tugboats (56,218.24 gross tons), 142 small steamers (15,911.51 gross tons) and 229 specialized ships (74,840.64 gross tons). In addition to the seven sea routes it opened after the war, the company also maintained six scheduled lines (Shanghai-Hankow, Shanghai-Changsha, Hankow-Chungking, Hankow-Ichang, Hankow-Changsha, and Shanghai-Shasi) and one unscheduled line on the Yangtze river.

The Ming Sung Industrial Company has been from its inception a private shipping concern. It was founded in 1925 by Lu Tso-fu, a Szechwan industrialist, and began operation from Chungking. Between 1930 and 1934, Ming Sung absorbed many small shipping companies in Szechwan. When the war broke out in 1937, the Ming Sung had 46 ships, totalling over 20,000 tons. Throughout the war it remained the largest commercial shipping company in interior China.

The San Peh Steam Navigation Company was founded by Yui Ya-ching, a Chekiang merchant, at the end of the Manchu dynasty. At first he had only three small ships sailing along the Chekiang coast with Ningpo on the Yung river as the base. In 1915, he bought two more ships from a British concern and established offices at important ports along the Yangtze and also along the coast. During World War I when most of the foreign ships were transferred to European waters, San Peh made tremendous profits and expanded its service. However, when the foreign ships returned to the Far East it suffered considerably from acute competition. It managed to carry on only after a reorganization of its shipping routes. Before the war with Japan, it had more than 70 ships. During the war, however, most of its ships were sunk. Only two or three small steamers

moved upriver to shuttle between Chungking and other upper Yangtze ports. In the postwar years it has gradually recovered.

APPENDIX

A. Distances between Shanghai and other coastal ports:

Port	Distance (Nautical Miles)
Amoy	600
Antung	600
Canton	930
Chefoo	520
Dairen	560
Foochow	440
Haihow	1,110
Hulutao	680
Kaohsiung	670
Keelung	420
Kongmoon	900
Kowloon	850
Kungpei	880
Kwanchowwan	1,083
Lienyunkang	350
Ningpo	136
Pakhoi	1,240
Swatow	730
Tientsin	705
Tsingtao	400
Yingkow	700
Yulin	1,200
Yungkia (Wenchow)	344
Weihaiwei	480

B. Distances between Shanghai and foreign ports:

Port	Distance (Nautical Miles)
Aden, Arabian Peninsula	6,000
Alexandria, Egypt	7,600
Antwerp, Belgium	10,721
Athens, Greece	7,963
Auckland, New Zealand	6,693
Barcelona, Spain	8,888
Batavia, Java	2,825
Bombay, India	4,753
Calcutta, India	4,067
Cape of Good Hope	8,320
Colombo, Ceylon	3,900
Copenhagen, Denmark	11,253
Fusan, Korea	503
Genoa, Italy	8,739
Gibraltar	9,199
Haiphong, Indo-China	1,335
Hamburg, Germany	10,968
Havana, Cuba	
(via Suez Canal)	13,165
(via Panama Canal)	9,699
Honolulu, Hawaii	4,409
Istanbul, Turkey	8,084
Jinsen, Korea	784
Karachi, Pakistan	5,236

<i>Port</i>	<i>Distance (Nautical Miles)</i>
Kobe, Japan	760
Liverpool, England	10,504
London, England	10,541
Los Angeles, U.S.A.	5,673
Madras, India	4,450
Manila, Philippines	1,162
Marseille, France	8,800
Melbourne, Australia	6,005
Moji, Japan	550
Nagasaki, Japan	450
New York, U.S.A. (via Suez Canal)	12,405
(via Panama Canal)	10,694
Odessa, U.S.S.R.	8,248
Oslo, Norway	11,100
Panama, Panama	9,120
Penang, Malaya	2,600
Quebec, Canada (via Suez Canal)	12,177
(via Panama Canal)	11,720
Rangoon, Burma	3,330
Rotterdam, Netherlands	10,746
Saigon, Indo-China	1,780
San Francisco, U.S.A.	5,491
Seattle, U.S.A.	5,289
Singapore, Malaya	2,293
Southampton, England	10,342
Suva, Fiji Islands	5,385
Sydney, Australia	5,429
Valparaiso, Chile	11,149
Vladivostok, Soviet Maritime Provinces	1,000
Yokohama, Japan	1,100
Zanzibar, East Africa	6,476

C. Distances between Shanghai and inland ports on the Yangtze:

<i>Port</i>	<i>Distance (Nautical Miles)</i>
Anking	332
Chinkiang	155
Chungking	1,362
Hankow	571
Ichang	1,003
Kiukiang	424
Nanking	204
Wanhsien	1,253
Wuhu	262

D. Distances between Canton and inland ports on the Pearl river:

<i>Port</i>	<i>Distance (Nautical Miles)</i>
Wuchow	220
Liukiang	566
Lungchow	893
Kweiping	330
Nanning	698
Paisheh	957

CIVIL AVIATION

Although commercial aviation in China has had but a short history as compared with other modern means of transportation, its development and progress has perhaps been the most rapid. Civil aviation received an unprecedented impetus during the war with Japan as circumstances favored air aviation as the fastest and the "most flexible" means of transportation in time of war. In the initial postwar period civil aircraft were also most active in the return of government officials and private individuals to the coastal regions.

At the outbreak of war in 1937, 30 airplanes of the two aviation concerns (the China National Aviation Corporation and the Eurasia Aviation Corporation) operated on 13,826 km. of air routes. Fighting in and around Shanghai, which was the operating center of civil airlines, forced the partial suspension of the air services and the removal to Free China of the head offices of the two companies. When they first began operation in Free China, the two airlines had only less than 1,000 km. of routes. However, their growth and expansion of services during the war years were noteworthy. Operating out of Chungking, the wartime capital, they served the southwest, southeast and northwest by scheduled flights, and during the last phase of World War II rendered valuable service by ferrying passengers and essential material over the Himalayan "Hump" route from India into China.

The central terminus of civil aviation was shifted back to Shanghai after V-J and remained there until the communist occupation of the metropolis in May, 1949.

In the fall of 1947 the China National Aviation Corporation inaugurated a scheduled service between Shanghai and San Francisco via Guam and Honolulu. This marked China's formal entry into the competitive field of trans-Pacific air service. C.N.A.C. later also maintained flights between China and Japan and China and Singapore.

CHINA NATIONAL AVIATION CORPORATION

Pioneer in the field of commercial aviation in China, the China National Aviation Corporation was established in 1929 as a Sino-American joint enterprise. It was inaugurated after China concluded a contract with Aviation Exploration, Inc., a subsidiary of Curtiss Company (American), for the joint operation of mail and

passenger air service in China. In 1930, following a thorough reorganization of the company, a new contract was signed between the Ministry of Communications and China Airways, Federal Inc., U.S.A., providing for the joint operation of the C.N.A.C. This contract became effective on July 17, 1930, subsequent to its ratification by the Chinese Government.

In 1949, 80% of C.N.A.C. stocks were owned by the Chinese government and 20% by Pan American World Airways. In December, 1949, the Chinese government sold the Chinese interests of the concern to Major-General Claire L. Chennault and Whiting Willauer. (*see* section on "Transfer of Airlines.")

In two decades of operation, C.N.A.C. has grown rapidly and has rendered unsurpassed transportation service to China. C.N.A.C. planes carried only 220 passengers in 1929. During 1946 its airliners transported 202,510 passengers, or 920 times the 1929 total.

Freight carried by C.N.A.C. registered a rapid increase in 1943 and 1944, when in addition to its own passenger-freight-mail service, it was commissioned to fly lend-lease C-47 and C-53 transports between China and India ferrying U. S. military supplies to China, and Chinese hog bristles, tin, tungsten, mercury, silk and other essential materials to India to meet American needs.

In 1945, C.N.A.C. obtained more planes through lend-lease. A fleet of 50 transports maintained constant flights over the

Himalayan "Hump." The peak of freight from India was reached in July, 1945, when C.N.A.C. planes brought into China a total of 2,406,392 tons of cargo essential to the war effort.

The sudden increase of passenger transportation in 1946 at the expense of freight was caused by the return of large numbers of persons to the coastal areas by plane after the war ended. To cope with this rush, C.N.A.C. adopted a number of emergency measures. It diverted many planes flying between India and China to reopen lines from Chungking to the coastal cities, bought a number of surplus planes and spare parts left by the U. S. Forces in China, and also took over planes of the puppet Chung Hwa Aviation Company.

Between September, 1945, when the Japanese surrendered in Nanking and January, 1946, C.N.A.C. carried 20,857 passengers, 1,004 tons of freight, mostly government documents and property, and 164 kg. of mail.

During the war, due to enemy occupation or the shifting of battlegrounds, many C.N.A.C. lines had to be suspended. Meanwhile new lines were opened in the interior. For example, the Chungking-Hanchung-Paoki line of 530 km. and the Chungking-Lanchow-Suchow-Hami line of 1,995 km. were inaugurated in January and March, 1945, respectively after the Chungking-Kweilin line of 610 km. had been suspended in September, 1944, due to Japanese capture of the Kwangsi capital.

TABLE 7.—TRAFFIC STATISTICS OF C.N.A.C., 1931-1947

Year	Passengers	Freight (tons)	Mail (tons)
1931.....	2,784	..	43,712
1932.....	2,699	..	48,954
1933.....	4,215	..	57,577
1934.....	6,729	12,788	70,261
1935.....	14,812	42,086	73,795
1936.....	20,198	44,848	102,285
1937.....	11,610	56,193	93,488
1938.....	8,016	40,718	64,153
1939.....	17,220	117,375	102,093
1940.....	17,527	494,107	73,843
1941.....	22,583	3,559,695	90,271
1942.....	26,867	4,349,374	55,018
1943.....	33,224	19,611,124	61,183
1944.....	39,263	27,090,690	94,785
1945.....	59,177	28,193	256,592
1946.....	202,510	8,826	1,262
1947.....	173,317	14,696,404	2,451,465

Source: Ministry of Communications

TABLE 8.—C.N.A.C. FREIGHT TRANSPORTATION OVER THE 'HUMP' IN 1945

Month	Freight Carried (tons)	Month	Freight Carried (tons)
January.....	1,824,971	July.....	2,406,392
February.....	1,546,165	August.....	1,830,913
March.....	1,880,235	September.....	1,939,480
April.....	1,787,737	October.....	1,216,801
May.....	1,814,300	November.....	861,018
June.....	2,156,621	December.....	86,848
TOTAL.....			19,351,481

Source: Ministry of Communications

Reinforced with more airplanes, equipment and air and ground personnel, C.N.A.C. resumed all its prewar airlines beginning the latter part of 1945 and also opened several new domestic and overseas lines. At the end of May, 1948, C.N.A.C. had 27 airlines in operation,

with Shanghai as the main base.

At the end of May, 1948, C.N.A.C. had 17 C-47's, 23 C-46's and six DC-4's, and employed 51 pilots and 54 co-pilots. C.N.A.C. was, in 1949, rated as the 12th largest civil aviation companies in the world.

TABLE 9.—C.N.A.C. AIRLINES IN OPERATION IN 1948

Domestic Airlines	Length (km.)	Overseas Airlines	Length (km.)
Shanghai-Nanking-Tsingtao-Tsinan-Tientsin-Peiping.....	1,445	Shanghai-Foochow-Amoy-Swato-	
Chungking-Hankow-Peiping.....	1,825	watow-Canton-Hongkong.....	1,521
Peiping-Taiyuan.....	398	Hongkong-Canton-Haikow.....	604
Peiping-Mukden.....	626	Hongkong-Swato.....	290
Peiping-Hankow-Kunming.....	2,359	Hongkong-Shanghai.....	1,224
Shanghai-Nanking-Kiukiang-Hankow-Chungking.....	1,588	Shanghai-Amoy-Manila.....	1,971
Shanghai-Nanking-Chengchow-Sian-Lanchow.....	1,780	Hongkong-Swato-Tsinan-Amoy.....	931
Shanghai-Nanking-Hankow-Kweilin-Canton.....	1,850	Shanghai-Guam-Wake-Midway-Honolulu-San Francisco.....	13,497
Shanghai-Foochow-Taipeh.....	866	Canton-Hongkong-Canton-Kweilin-Hankow.....	1,403
Shanghai-Taipeh.....	684	Hongkong-Kunming-Calcutta.....	2,738
Shanghai-Peiping.....	1,047	Shanghai-Hongkong-Kunming-Rangoon-Calcutta.....	4,518
Hankow-Nanking-Shanghai.....	721		
Chungking-Kunming.....	641		
Chungking-Sichang.....	451		
Chungking-Kweiyang.....	332		
Chungking-Chengtu.....	277		
TOTAL.....	16,890	TOTAL.....	28,697

GRAND TOTAL 45,587 km.

Source: Ministry of Communications

CENTRAL AIR TRANSPORT CORPORATION

The Central Air Transportation Corporation came into existence on March 1, 1943, following a complete reorganization of the Eurasia Aviation Corporation. (Eurasia was established in February, 1931, upon the signing of a contract between the Ministry of Communications and the German Lufthansa Company. One month after the Chinese government severed relations with Germany, the corporation became, on August 1, 1941, entirely Chinese-owned and operated. The German interests were withdrawn from Eurasia and all the German staff members, including air and ground crew and advisers, left China.)

A subsidiary organization of the Ministry of Communications, C.A.T.C. had, in 1949, 20% of its stocks owned by private Chinese capital. The Chinese government in December, 1949, sold the corporation to two Americans—Major-General Claire Chennault and Whiting Willauer. (see section on "Transfer of Airlines.")

The Central Air Transportation Corporation is capitalized at CNC\$20-million (pre-war value). Although its by-laws provide for private subscriptions, its present capitalization is exclusively governmental.

During the war, C.A.T.C.'s planes operating from Chungking reached Chengtu, Kunming, Yaan and Hami. Its predecessor Eurasia suffered heavy losses at Hongkong after the outbreak of the Pacific War in December, 1941. For one whole year, it only had a single Junker transport flying short runs. After its reorganization in March, 1943, the National Aeronautic Affairs Commission (predecessor of the Chinese Air Force Headquarters) of the former National Military Council placed some old army transports at C.A.T.C.'s disposal.

After V-J Day, C.A.T.C., along with C.N.A.C., played an important part in moving government personnel and freight back to the coast. Between September, 1945, and January, 1946, its planes carried 2,676 passengers, 188 tons of government property and 24 kg. of mail from Chungking to the coastal cities.

At the end of May, 1948, C.A.T.C. operated 14 C-47 and 23 C-46 transport planes which were manned by 44 pilots and 28 co-pilots. It maintained 27 domestic and overseas scheduled routes.

CIVIL AIR TRANSPORT

A new unit among China's civil aviation concerns, the Civil Air Transport, is owned by private interests. Major-General Claire Lee Chennault (retired),

TABLE 10.—PERFORMANCE RECORD OF C.A.T.C.,* 1931-47

Year	Passengers Carried	Freight Carried (tons)	Mails Carried (tons)
1931.....	941	4,151	412
1932.....	652	16,391	2,858
1933.....	1,074	43,192	4,170
1934.....	2,109	58,881	8,796
1935.....	3,597	114,386	19,420
1936.....	7,775	201,257	16,335
1937.....	11,600	189,079	101,017
1938.....	6,641	98,193	60,483
1939.....	11,555	313,301	107,591
1940.....	11,048	443,385	85,746
1941.....	6,477	592,045	103,047
1942.....	3,986	51,065	44,860
1943.....	2,388	52,349	27,605
1944.....	560	80,208	2,114
1945.....	1,624	270	2,356
1946.....	45,479	3,914	197
1947.....	116,080	14,050	1,377

Source: Ministry of Communications

* Eurasia Aviation Corporation before August, 1941.

former Commander of the U. S. 14th Air Force, is the president of C.A.T., and Whiting Willauer its executive vice-president. It was first known as the CNRRA Air Transport when it was organized to transport relief supplies and personnel to different parts of the country for the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. When CNRRA was deactivated in December, 1947, the air transport unit was renamed the Civil Air Transport and received special authorization from the Chinese National Government to operate as a commercial airline. While operational and administrative duties and responsibilities of C.A.T. remained in the hands of executives of the company, the authorization (granted retroactive as of January 1, 1948) also placed it under the direct control of the

Civil Aeronautics Administration of the Ministry of Communications.

The C.A.T. made its first relief and rehabilitation flight in China (under CNRRA) on January 31, 1947. General Chennault accompanied a shipment of 9,000 lbs. of medical supplies from Canton to Liuchow in Kwangsi.

The small number of planes bought by General Chennault from the United States have been used to advantage. During 1947, C.A.T. planes flew a distance of 3,088,892.8 km. and C.A.T. pilots spent 16,444 hours in the air. The average monthly haul of 1947 exceeded 4-million lbs.

Until June, 1948, the C.A.T. operated only 18 planes, some of which were frequently grounded for lack of spare parts. Later it acquired six additional planes on

TABLE 11.—C.A.T.C. AIRLINES IN OPERATION IN 1948

Domestic Airline	Length (km.)	International Airline	Length (km.)
Shanghai-Chengchow-Sian- Chengchow-Sian.....	2,061	Amoy-Swato-Hongkong- Swato-Amoy-Tainan.....	1,253
Shanghai-Chengchow-Sian- Lanchow.....	1,780	Amoy-Canton-Hongkong- Swato-Amoy-Tainan.....	1,316
Shanghai-Chengchow-Sian- Hankow.....	1,933	Amoy-Swato-Canton- Hongkong-Amoy.....	1,169
Shanghai-Nanking-Hankow- Sian-Lanchow.....	1,872	Amoy-Hongkong-Amoy- Foochow-Amoy.....	1,362
Shanghai-Nanking-Tsingtao- Tsinan-Peiping.....	1,424	Amoy-Hongkong-Amoy- Tainan.....	1,223
Shanghai-Chengchow-Sian- Taiyuan-Peiping.....	2,204	Shanghai-Amoy-Canton- Hongkong.....	1,485
Shanghai-Nanking-Chengchow- Sian.....	1,281	Hongkong-Canton-Liuchow- Kunming.....	1,242
Shanghai-Nanking-Hankow- Chungking.....	1,491	Shanghai-Hongkong-Canton.....	1,361
Shanghai-Hankow-Liuchow- Kunming.....	2,237	Hongkong-Canton-Chungking...	1,121
Chungking-Sian-Taiyuan- Peiping.....	1,487		
Shanghai-Nanking-Peiping.....	1,175		
Sian-Peiping.....	909		
Chungking-Kunming.....	641		
Chungking-Chengtu.....	277		
Shanghai-Chengchow-Sian.....	1,281		
Lanchow-Suchow-Tihwa.....	1,622		
Shanghai-Foochow-Amoy.....	823		
Shanghai-Foochow-Nanchang- Hankow.....	1,347		
TOTAL.....	25,845	TOTAL.....	11,532

GRAND TOTAL 37,377 km.

Source: Ministry of Communications

a rental basis. In the first five months of 1948, C.A.T.'s performance record (in ton-km.) far exceeded that for the entire year of 1947.

TABLE 12.—C.A.T. OPERATIONS IN 1947
(Figures include cargo, mail, baggage and passengers)

Month	T/km.	Month	T/km.
January.....	64,187.2	July.....	988,740.8
February.....	93,785.6	August.....	1,219,601.6
March.....	146,148.8	September.....	1,105,516.8
April.....	175,277.2	October.....	1,838,584.0
May.....	458,148.8	November.....	1,881,684.8
June.....	516,512.0	December.....	2,755,558.4
TOTAL.....		11,243,746.0	

Source: Civil Air Transport

TABLE 13.—C.A.T. OPERATIONS IN FIRST FIVE MONTHS OF 1948

Month	Cargo Actual T/kms.	Passengers Actual T/kms.	Total	Kilometers Flown
January.....	2,193,451	190,909	2,384,360	524,652
February.....	1,634,827	267,451	1,902,278	461,427
March.....	2,031,832	382,541	2,414,372	580,044
April.....	3,170,717	546,944	3,717,660	845,685
May.....	3,386,293	672,656	4,058,948	898,435
TOTAL.....	12,417,120	2,060,501	14,477,618	3,310,243

Source: Civil Air Transport

CIVIL AERONAUTICS ADMINISTRATION

The Civil Aeronautics Administration of the Ministry of Communications was created in January, 1947, to unify the planning, development, management and operation of civil aviation enterprises. Its organization—in the interest of greater safety in air travel—was prompted by the series of airline accidents which occurred during the Christmas season of 1946.

Improvement of Airfields.—As the first step toward effective improvements of civil aviation facilities, the C.A.A. sent out, shortly after its inception, several survey groups to inspect civil airfields in various parts of the country. Results of the surveys culminated in the recommendation that airfields in Shanghai, Nanking, Kiukiang, Wuchang, Canton, Tientsin and Amoy be rebuilt. Improvement work was undertaken soon afterwards on

the Shanghai, Nanking, Kiukiang, Wuchang and Foochow airfields.

At the Lunghwa airfield in Shanghai, a new concrete runway 6,000 feet long and 150 feet wide was completed on June 2, 1947 and opened for use on June 24. The second step was to build an asphalted taxi strip and a concrete parking ground for airplanes to complete the airfield system and to improve the surface on the whole airfield. All these projects were in conformity with the standards set by the International Civil Aviation Organization. Facilities for night and instrument landings in inclement weather were also installed.

At the Ming Palace airfield in Nanking, the runway had been extended by 200 m. before the capital city fell to the communists in April, 1949.

Improvement projects on other airfields, including those at Kiukiang, Wuchang

and Foochow, were also carried out according to plan.

Weather Intelligence.—Aids to better and safer flying were maintained by the C.A.A. before the communists overran the mainland of China in 1949. Prior to the establishment of C.A.A., aviation corporations operated their own limited meteorological installations. A unified standard was lacking and facilities were inadequate. Carrying out the plan of a nation-wide weather intelligence network, the C.A.A. completed in 1947 a central meteorological observatory, nine regional observatories and 45 weather stations spread over the length and breadth of the country. It took over 41 weather stations formerly run by the Ministry of National Defense and relocated most of the stations to cover wider areas. C.A.A. also took over four weather stations previously under the Central Weather Bureau.

Unification of Aviation Signals.—In radio communication, C.A.A. succeeded in coordinating existing facilities and adding new installations. It established a radio communication center in Shanghai with three regional stations (located in Shanghai, Canton and Hankow) and some two dozen stations. These radio stations for aviation were responsible for domestic and international communications as well as ground-air contacts.

The regional station in Shanghai completed in 1947 was, until the communist occupation of the city in May, 1949, in constant communication with aviation wireless stations in Tokyo, Guam, Manila, Saigon, Bangkok and Hongkong as well as aircraft operated by C.N.A.C., C.A.T.C., Pan-American World Airways, Northwest Airlines, Philippine Air Line, and Air France.

Three homing beacon stations with strong signals were added at Shanghai, Canton and Hankow. C.A.A. maintained airfield control towers at four airports—Shanghai, Canton, Hankow and Kiukiang.

Air Traffic Control Zones.—Plans were formulated in 1948 by C.A.A. to divide the country into eight air traffic control zones with each one maintaining an air route traffic control station. As initial steps in the implementation of these plans, air route traffic control stations (to control movements of aircraft in flight between two airfields) and approach towers were established in Shanghai and

Canton in 1948 to effect a partial air traffic control.

TRANSFER OF AIRLINES

On November 9, 1949, 12 Chinese civil airplanes (ten of which belonged to C.N.A.C. and two to C.A.T.C.) cleared their Hongkong base ostensibly for cities in government-controlled area. These planes, however, never arrived at their pretended destination but instead all landed at Peiping. This defection to the communists left 70-odd Chinese commercial planes in Hongkong which were immediately contested for by employees of the two companies who remained loyal and those who had defected.

On December 18, 1949, retired Major-General Claire Chennault and his business partner Whiting Willauer of the Civil Air Transport announced that they had bought the Chinese National Government's interest in C.N.A.C. and C.A.T.C., including planes and equipment impounded by Hongkong authorities. Notifying the American and British governments as well as Hongkong authorities of their purchase of the two airlines, they demanded protection and release of planes and equipment grounded at Kaitak airport. General Chennault stated that "assets of the two airlines will be utilized in the best interests of the free people of China" and pledged himself to protect interests of stockholders of the two corporations.

The founder of the Flying Tigers, who is now president of Civil Air Transport operating in China, and Mr. Willauer, C.A.T.'s executive vice-president, said that they made the purchase from the Chinese government in their capacity as private individuals and citizens of the United States.

With injunctions granted by Hongkong authorities both to the National Government authorities and the Chinese communist regime to protect the Chinese airplanes remaining in Hongkong, the new owners retained American lawyers to represent their and other American interests in the two airlines concerned and filed applications with the Hongkong courts for the appointment of receivership for both companies. Up to the end of 1949, however, disposition of the 70-odd airplanes impounded in Hongkong was still awaiting decision of the Supreme Court of the British colony.

CHAPTER 29

POSTAL SERVICE AND TELE-COMMUNICATIONS

POSTAL ADMINISTRATION

Postal service in China dates back to the government posts of the Chou dynasty (1122-781 B.C.). Modern postal system, however, was not inaugurated until 1896 when Emperor Kwang Hsu issued a special decree giving official recognition to the "European" postal system. The General Post Office was established in 1911, after the Chinese Maritime Customs had operated postal service for 15 years.

On March 1, 1914, China became a party to the International Postal Convention. China is now a member of the Universal Postal Union.

The Directorate-General of Posts of the Ministry of Communications is in charge of all matters relating to postal service, with the country divided into a number of postal districts (26 in 1947). A district head office supervises all classes of post offices and agencies within the district. Postal establishments of all classes numbered 54,722 at the end of 1947, as compared with 68,808 at the end of 1946 and 60,777 at the end of June, 1947. The sharp drop in the number of postal establishments was largely caused by the widening areas involved in the civil war and communist occupation of cities and towns.

Forty-one years after the establishment of the modern postal system, the total number of post offices and postal agencies had reached the all-time high of 74,587 at the end of 1937.

MAIL SERVICE

Postal matters are carried by virtually every available and practicable means of transportation, ranging from slow couriers, who cover their assigned rural routes on foot, to fast airplanes. As transportation facilities are not well developed in the interior provinces, courier routes comprise more than half of the total of all types of mail routes. At the end of 1947, the aggregate length of mail routes was

552,087 km. (of which 50,322 km. were opened in 1947), with courier routes totaling 316,467 km. The 1947 mail routes showed an increase of approximately 40% over that of 1944.

Striving to speed up transmission and delivery of postal matters, the Postal Administration decided shortly after the end of World War II to make maximum use of civil aircraft freight capacity. Airplanes with small freight loads were used to transport mail. At times when there was ample capacity, some first-class letters as well as mail from members of the armed forces were carried by air either part of the way or to their respective destinations without charging the senders additional postage.

Airmail letters and small parcels totalled only 288 m. tons in 1945. In 1946, postal matters sent by air amounted to 1,575 m. tons, more than five times the volume of the previous year. Reaching an all-time high record, the airmail volume in 1947 of 8,117 m. tons was more than 28 times that of 1945.

Development of airmail service from 1937 to 1947 is summarized in Table 1.

The Postal Administration, in extending its services and expediting handling and delivery, adopts and tries out new methods and services from time to time. Before Nanking and Shanghai fell to the communists, some post offices in the two cities maintained a 24-hour service which made possible the delivery to the addressees of ordinary (first-class) letters between the two important centers within ten hours after they were posted. Different colors were painted on mail boxes on the main streets to differentiate the types of mail. Red-topped post boxes, for instance, were designated as receptacles for special delivery or express letters. Collection was made at half-hour intervals. Blue and green tops were marked for ordinary and local mail, respectively.

Perhaps the first of its kind, mobile post offices were put into service in 1948 in the metropolitan areas of Nanking,

TABLE 1.—DEVELOPMENT OF AIRMAIL SERVICE, 1937-47

Year	Airmail Routes (in kilometers)	Airmail Weight (metric tons)		Total
		Letters	Parcels	
1937.....	7,600	84	93	177
1938.....	8,050	144	148	292
1939.....	11,000	197	11	208
1940.....	9,600	267	..	267
1941.....	8,100	259	..	259
1942.....	9,700	152	..	152
1943.....	8,600	125	..	125
1944.....	8,680	121	..	121
1945.....	25,992	282	6	288
1946.....	30,202	1,417	158	1,575
1947.....	37,329 (May)	5,403	2,714	8,117

Source: Ministry of Communications

Shanghai, Tientsin and Hankow. Special postal motor vehicles made scheduled trips through such places as factories, schools and government offices to collect or deliver letters, to receive or disburse postal remittances, as well as to sell postal stamps. A similar service was maintained on board trains along the Nanking-Shanghai railway.

POSTAL REMITTANCES AND SAVINGS

Postal remittances and savings are among the important functions of the Postal Administration. Earnings from these two branches of postal service were used to offset some of the huge deficits incurred by the postal system in the postwar years. (In 1946, postal revenue amounted to CNC\$548,400-million while expenditures totalled CNC\$1,481,000-million. The operational deficit of CNC\$933,400-million was largely made up for by government subsidies amounting to CNC\$785,500-million. Part of the year's losses was offset by profits from postal remittances and savings. The Postal Administration's aggregate operational deficits for 1947 was CNC\$6,174-billion—with income of CNC\$5,842-billion and expenditures of CNC\$12,016-billion. Government subsidies for the year, amount to CNC\$3,073.5-billion, covered nearly half of the deficits.)

In 1947 a total of 17,887 postal establishments throughout the country handled an aggregate CNC\$5,223,102-million of postal remittances. Domestic money orders and telegraphic transfers constituted the bulk of the postal remittances.

Three types of postal savings service—passbook savings, fixed deposits, and

checking accounts—are maintained. In addition, the Postal Remittances and Savings Bank was the first to introduce the savings certificate service in China in 1939.

In 1938, only 863 postal establishments handled postal savings with a total of 209,000 accounts. In 1944, 2,009 postal establishments maintained savings service with 284,000 accounts. At the end of 1947, 3,091,802 accounts were maintained in 2,620 postal establishments, with a total savings of CNC\$670,773-million.

TELE-COMMUNICATIONS

With the first telegraph line put into service in 1879 between Tientsin and Taku, a nation-wide telecommunications system was beginning to take shape at the founding of the Republic of China. Substantial expansion and improvements were made in the decade between the establishment of the National Government in Nanking in 1927 and the outbreak of the war with Japan in 1937. Despite heavy losses and shortage of essential equipment and materials, tele-communications services were maintained during the war years throughout Free China.

After the end of World War II the Directorate-General of Tele-Communications, a subsidiary organ of the Ministry of Communications, adopted a 20-year reconstruction plan. However, military operations and political development made implementation of the plan largely impossible.

The Directorate-General of Tele-Communications supervises and administers tele-communication services through its

subsidiary organs—district head offices, bureaus, head offices, and offices and agencies. At the end of June, 1948, there were nine district offices, six special telecommunications bureaus, and two head offices (one in Sinkiang and one in Taiwan). Under the head offices and special bureaus were first-class, second-class, third-class and branch offices as well as agencies throughout the land.

TELEGRAPH

Postwar rehabilitation and development of telegraphic service progressed rapidly shortly after Japan's surrender. By the end of April, 1947, 1,595 telegraph offices were functioning in the country—325 more than at the time of the outbreak of the war in 1937. The aggregate length of telegraph lines at mid-year in 1947 was 115,678 km., as compared with 105,902 km. before the war. Considerable amount of telegraphic equipment and materials were lost in the coastal provinces after the war started. Some equipment, how-

ever, were dismantled in time and transported to the interior where they were set up and put into operation.

Business concerns as well as individuals have through the past decade made increasingly fuller use of telegraphic facilities. In domestic telegrams, the volume of commercial and personal messages in April, 1947, represented an increase of 530% over that of June, 1936.

RADIOGRAM

The first wireless stations in China for commercial use were inaugurated in 1908 in Shanghai and Tsungming. In 1928 the Ministry of Communications established short-wave radio stations in Shanghai, Ichang and Chungking, and the National Reconstruction Commission started wireless operations in Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, Peiping, Hangchow and Canton. In June, 1929, all wireless stations in China were brought under the administration of the Ministry of Communications. When Japan invaded China in 1937,

TABLE 2.—LOCATION OF TELE-COMMUNICATION OFFICES IN JUNE, 1948

Name	Location	Jurisdiction
Directorate General	Nanking	11 district head offices, 6 special bureaus, 1 Government Radio Administration
1st District Head Office	Sian	146 offices in Shensi and Honan
2nd District Head Office	Nanking	318 offices in Chekiang, Kiangsu and Anhwei
3rd District Head Office	Hankow	218 offices in Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi
4th District Head Office	Chungking	129 offices in Szechwan, Sikang and Tibet
5th District Head Office	Kunming	77 offices in Yunnan and Kweichow
6th District Head Office	Canton	179 offices in Kwangtung, Kwangsi and Fukien
7th District Head Office	Peiping	99 offices in Hopei, Shantung, Shansi, Suiyuan and Chahar
8th District Head Office	Lanchow	73 offices in Kansu, Ningxia and Chinghai
9th District Head Office	Mukden	77 offices in nine Northeastern Provinces
Taiwan Head Office	Taipeh	176 offices in Taiwan
Sinkiang Head Office	Tihwa	22 offices in Sinkiang
Chinese Gov't Radio Administration	Shanghai	(1) in charge of China's international telecommunications, (2) 1 branch in Nanking
Nanking Special Bureau	Nanking	(1) concurrently conducting city telephone service, (2) 11 branches
Shanghai Special Bureau	Shanghai	(1) concurrently conducting city telephone service, (2) 12 branches
Peiping Special Bureau	Peiping	(1) concurrently conducting city telephone service, (2) 16 branches
Tientsin Special Bureau	Tientsin	(1) concurrently conducting city telephone service, (2) 13 branches
Wuhan Special Bureau	Hankow	(1) concurrently conducting city telephone service, (2) 7 branches
Chungking Special Bureau	Chungking	(1) concurrently conducting city telephone service, (2) 15 branches

Source: Ministry of Communications

there were some 170 stations, with international stations in Shanghai to communicate with Hongkong, Manila, Batavia, San Francisco, London, Tokyo, Rome and Khabarovsk; and other stations at Amoy, Tientsin, Canton and Kunming which communicated with Manila, Tokyo and Hanoi, respectively.

Key machines of the stations in Shanghai were dismantled after the war began in 1937 and moved inland. Improved stations were in the meantime first set up at Hankow and Canton and later at Chengtu and Kunming to enable the country to be in radio contact with the outside world. To supplement telegraph service, radio facilities were extensively used during the war. By V-J Day, there were nine major radio stations in Free China located at Chungking, Chengtu, Kunming, Kweiyang, Nancheng, Kangting, Sian, Sichang and Lanchow, in addition to some 100 medium and small stations in the interior provinces.

At the end of June, 1947, wireless transmitter-receivers in operation included 112 of 1-20 kw. class, 290 of 100-watt to one kw. class, and 238 of 5-100 watt class. The total of 640 was four times the pre-war figure.

With the war over, the main international wireless stations were moved from Chungking and Chengtu to Shang-

hai. The transmitters were located at Chenyu and the receivers at Liuhang, both suburban towns of Shanghai.

Before the communist occupation of Nanking and Shanghai in 1949, the Chinese Government Radio Administration's offices in the two cities communicated directly with tele-communication companies in San Francisco, Manila, Sydney, Buenos Aires, Batavia, Hongkong, Saigon, Macao, Colombo, Bangkok, Bombay, London, Paris, Geneva, Moscow and Irkutsk.

TELEPHONE

The first telephone service in China was installed in Nanking in 1900 for the exclusive use of local officials. There were only 14 lines. In the summer of 1936, the Ministry of Communications operated more than 73,000 telephone lines, and some 70 provincial and commercial telephone companies—each with a few hundred to a few thousand lines—operated a total of 30,000 lines. In Shanghai, the American-owned Shanghai Telephone Company served more than 40,000 telephone subscribers.

During the war with Japan it was necessary to expand existing telephone services in cities in Free China. Thus in Chungking the 1,560 telephone numbers in July, 1938, were increased to 2,700 at

TABLE 3.—COMPARISON OF TELE-COMMUNICATION FACILITIES BETWEEN JUNE, 1937 AND JUNE, 1947

Item	Unit	June, 1937	June, 1947	Increase
Long-distance Telephone lines.	pair-kilometers	52,245	113,024	116%
Telegraphic lines	kilometers	105,902	115,678	9%
Carrier-wave single channel . . .	sets (telephone)	4	34	750%
Carrier-wave three channels . . .	sets (telephone)	..	58	58
Carrier-wave five channels . . .	sets (telephone)	..	10	10
Carrier-wave six channels	sets (telephone)	..	4	4
Carrier-wave single channel . . .	sets (telegraphic)	..	1	1
Carrier-wave four channels	sets (telegraphic)	..	8	8
Carrier-wave six channels	sets (telegraphic)	..	6	6
Carrier-wave 12 channels	sets (telegraphic)	..	3	3
Wheatstone cable machine	sets	122	347	185%
Morse telegraphic machine	sets	1,598	850	748
Sound telegraphic machine	sets	15	357	342
Teleprinters	sets	6	72	66
Radio transmitter 5-100W	sets	23	238	215
Radio transmitters 100W-1KW . .	sets	131	290	159
Radio transmitters 1-20KW	sets	17	112	95
Micro-wave circuits	circuits	..	16	16
City telephone machines		76,231	167,240	91,008

Source: Ministry of Communications

the end of 1939. By the end of 1943, the wartime capital had 4,300 telephones, of which 3,300 were automatic. There was a similar expansion of telephone service in other important cities in the interior.

At the end of June, 1947, the Ministry of Communications operated 167,240 telephone numbers in various cities, doubling the prewar total.

As to long-distance telephone service, one of the important prewar programs was the establishment in 1933 of the Nine-Province Long-Distance Telephone Engineering Office by the Ministry of Communications. The office was created to take charge of installing long-distance telephone services in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Hopei, Shantung, Honan, Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi.

When the war broke out in 1937, the Ministry of Communications had some 52,200 km. of long-distance telephone lines. In addition, there were 50,000 km. of lines operated by the provincial authorities and a comparable length of lines operated by *hsien* authorities.

As long-distance telephone was an indispensable means of communications during the war, the National Government endeavored to strengthen and improve long-distance facilities and service. Lines under the Directorate-General of Telecommunications totalled 66,700 km. at the end of 1943, and 113,024 km. up to June, 1947.

Overseas long-distance telephone services (radio-phone) between China and the United States were first established in July, 1947. In July, 1948, services linking China with Canada, Cuba, and Mexico were inaugurated.

RADIO BROADCASTING

Central Broadcasting Administration.—The Central Broadcasting Administration was formed in 1932 and placed directly under the Central Broadcasting Advisory Committee whose chairman and vice-chairman were appointed by the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang. Four years earlier, in 1928, the Central Broadcasting Station was inaugurated by the Kuomintang C.E.C. The station operated in Nanking until 1937 when the war necessitated the removal of its equipment to Chungking.

The Central Broadcasting Advisory Committee became defunct following the inauguration of constitutional rule in March, 1948. Preparations were subsequently made for the reorganization of the broadcasting administration into a corporation.

During the war years, 12 broadcasting

stations under the Central Broadcasting Administration were in operation in Free China. The stations were located in Chungking (2), Kunming, Kweiyang, Fukien, Sian, Yuanling, Lanchow, Sichang, Nancheng, Shaowu and Chengtu. China's only wartime radio broadcasting channel to the outside world was XGOY, the "Voice of China," in Chungking which broadcast daily programs to the United States, Great Britain and all parts of Asia.

Between V-J Day and March, 1948, the government had taken over 30 broadcasting stations formerly under the auspices or supervision of the Japanese. This brought the total number of stations under the C.B.A. to 42.

Until the end of 1948, all these stations were affiliated with the national network centers at Nanking, Shanghai and Chungking. Newscasts and news commentaries in *kuoyu* (national spoken language) and in English prepared in the studios of XGOY in Nanking were rebroadcast by the affiliated stations. In addition, a number of the stations regularly rebroadcast programs which originated in the United States or the United Kingdom.

All C.B.A. stations devoted considerable broadcast time to newscasts which were given in 18 languages and dialects.

Besides offering entertainment and news and commentary programs, radio also serves as a means of extending education in China. In Taiwan, for instance, special use is made of radio broadcasts to teach the national tongue to native inhabitants. Some radio stations also offer elementary lessons in English language.

Commercial Radio.—No private broadcasting stations existed in Free China during the war. Commercial radio has had a rapid growth in the postwar years. By the end of March, 1948, 84 private stations were in operation. Of these, 38 were located in Shanghai, ten in Nanking, eight in Peiping and seven in Tientsin. Most of the stations were small, with one-quarter to one-half kw. transmitters.

Receiving Sets.—The lack of good equipment and a scarcity of receiving sets are still the chief difficulties facing Chinese radio broadcasting enterprises. Of the vast population of China, it was estimated in 1948 that approximately 6,000 persons shared a receiving set.

Radio receiving sets are manufactured by government-operated factories and on a very limited scale by private firms. In 1947 China imported 37,858 radios, of which 32,495 were of United States manufacture.

CHAPTER 30

EDUCATION

PRIMARY EDUCATION

The primary education system is composed of primary schools, *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus schools, *pao* people's schools, primary extension schools and kindergartens.

Children between the ages of 6 and 12 attend the primary school, which covers a period of six years. The lower grades, which can be set up independently, take up four years, while the higher grades, which are a continuation of the lower grades, two years.

In the 1945-46 academic year, there were 269,937 primary schools with an aggregate enrolment of 21,831,898 students, as against 273,433 institutions and 18,602,239 students in the 1943-44 academic year. Although the number of schools decreased by 3,496, there was a gain of 3,229,659 students.

The *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus and *pao* people's schools were established in accordance with a five-year plan adopted at the National Conference on People's Education held in March, 1940. Thirteen provinces (Szechwan, Yunnan, Kweichow,

Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Hunan, Fukien, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Shensi, Kansu, Honan, and Hupeh) and one municipality (Chungking) were first designated for the enforcement of this program beginning the second half of 1940. In 1942, the program was enforced in five other provinces (Anhui, Ningsia, Sikang, Chinghai, and Sinkiang). In these 18 provinces and one municipality, there were altogether 254,377 such schools with a total enrolment of 17,221,814 students during the 1944-45 academic year.

The Ministry of Education extended the program for five more years beginning in January, 1946. At the same time 16 other provinces (Kiangsu, Hopei, Shantung, Suiyuan, Jehol, Chahar, Liaoning, Antung, Liaopei, Kirin, Sungkiang, Hokiang, Heilungkiang, Nunkiang, Hsingan and Taiwan) and seven municipalities (Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Shanghai, Nanking, Dairen and Harbin) initiated the first five-year program.

The following table shows the progress made from 1940 to 1946 in public education:

TABLE 1.—GROWTH OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

School Years	Number of Schools	Number of Classes	Number of Pupils	Number of Graduates
1940-41.....	220,213	382,971	13,545,837	2,787,923
1941-42.....	224,707	424,227	15,058,051	2,952,148
1942-43.....	258,283	505,371	17,721,103	3,308,307
1943-44.....	273,433	530,993	18,602,239	3,798,116
1944-45.....	254,377	513,969	17,221,814	3,871,688
1945-46.....	269,937	680,298	21,831,898	4,688,606

Source: Ministry of Education

When the first five-year plan for public education was completed at the end of 1945, 198,695,066 of China's estimated 373,905,000 persons of or above school age had received the basic course of learn-

ing. This left 175,209,934 to be given some form of schooling.

The following table shows progress made from 1936 to 1946 toward eliminating China's illiteracy:

TABLE 2.—LITERACY STATISTICS OF CHINA

School Years	Number of Literates	Number of Illiterates	Percentage of Literates
1936-37	87,572,464	286,332,536	23.4%
1942-43	151,170,279	222,734,721	40.4%
1943-44	167,867,199	206,037,801	44.9%
1944-45	182,973,919	190,931,081	48.9%
1945-46	198,695,066	175,209,934	53.1%

Source: Ministry of Education

The above figures were computed on the basis that of China's 450-million population, 75,095,000 were children below school age, while the remaining 373,905,000 were of or above school age. The term "literates" included all those who had been enrolled in schools at one time or another regardless of the length of attendance.

To accelerate the educational movement, the National Government on February 17, 1945, revised its compulsory education law which was first enacted on July 18, 1944. The law requires all children of school age to attend the *pao* people's or *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus schools, or else their parents are to be fined. Among other main points in the compulsory education law are:

(1) The enforcement of compulsory education in the *hsiang* or *chen* shall be left to a special committee composed of the *hsiang* or *chen* chief, its cultural affairs section chief, *pao* chiefs, principals of the *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus or *pao* people's schools, and representatives of the people of the community. The *hsiang* or *chen* chief shall be its chairman.

(2) The number of school-age children shall determine the number of schools and classes. Each class is to accommodate 50 pupils. The *pao*, *hsiang* or *chen* chiefs, in cooperation with the principals of the *hsiang* or *chen* nucleus and *pao* people's schools, are to notify all households to send their children to school whenever accommodations are available.

(3) Where school-age children are to leave with their parents for another locality, their *pao* chief shall report the transfer to the committee in charge of compulsory education in the new community.

Upon receipt of this report, the local committee should see that the children are enrolled in the school of the *hsiang* or *chen* where their parents will live.

(4) The regulations shall apply to illiterate adults.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Institutions of the secondary education level are the ordinary middle schools, normal schools and vocational schools. Ordinary middle schools have junior and senior grades. Middle and vocational schools are of two kinds: public and private. Normal schools are all public.

The Ministry of Education introduced a secondary education program in 1938, designating districts where such schools are to be organized. Each province is to set aside land for the establishment of middle, normal and vocational schools within a specified period. In the junior level, there were to be six middle schools for every three normal and two vocational schools; while for the senior level the ratio was two senior middle schools to one normal school and one vocational school.

In the 1943-44 academic year there were 2,573 middle schools (19,229 classes and 902,163 students); 498 normal schools (3,223 classes and 130,975 students); and 384 vocational schools (2,212 classes and 69,929 students). Faculty and staff members in the 3,455 secondary educational institutions for the same year totalled 84,850, of whom 64,197 worked in the middle schools; 11,596, normal schools; and 9,057, vocational schools.

Statistics from the Ministry of Education show that in the 1945-46 academic

year there were 4,266 middle schools (32,818 classes and 1,495,874 students); 902 normal schools (6,000 classes and 245,609 students), and 724 vocational schools (4,365 classes and 137,040 students). Faculty and staff members in the 5,892 secondary educational institutions totalled 143,502, their distribution being 104,570 for the middle schools, 21,576 for the normal schools, and 17,356 for the vocational schools.

The following table lists the composition of the three types of secondary educational institutions for the 1945-46 academic year:

I. MIDDLE SCHOOLS

The Chinese middle school is generally divided into a junior and a senior division, each requiring three years to complete. Many Chinese educators feel that the period to go through the middle school should be shortened to five years. A new 5-year system was tried out with gratifying results in the Third National Middle School. Subsequently in 1945, the Ministry of Education recommended that the five-year system, found to be more suitable to China's educational program, should replace the old system. Thus

**TABLE 3.—CLASSIFICATION AND NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS,
1945-46 ACADEMIC YEAR**

Classification	Schools	Classes	Students	Graduates	Faculty and Staff Members
<i>Middle Schools</i>					
Middle Schools (both junior and senior grades).....	1,603				54,676
Senior Middle Schools....	51	7,261	317,853	70,985	1,567
Junior Middle Schools....	2,612	25,557	1,178,021	255,140	48,327
TOTAL.....	4,266	32,818	1,495,874	326,125	104,570
<i>Normal Schools</i>					
Normal Schools.....	358	1,895	73,852	15,417	11,753
Rural Normal Schools....	15	80	3,139	836	538
Short-course Normal Schools.....	436	3,408	140,888	26,541	7,511
Short-course Rural Normal Schools.....	93	617	27,730	4,990	1,774
TOTAL.....	902	6,000	245,609	47,784	21,576
<i>Vocational Schools</i>					
Vocational Schools (both junior and senior grades).....	167				5,597
Senior Vocational Schools.....	286	2,359	63,124	11,557	7,612
Junior Vocational Schools.....	271	2,006	73,916	13,999	4,147
TOTAL.....	724	4,365	137,040	25,556	17,356
GRAND TOTAL.....	5,892	43,183	1,878,523	399,465	143,502

Source: Ministry of Education

far, however, it has not been universally adopted.

The middle school curriculum has undergone several revisions in recent years to meet the needs of the changing times. The latest revision was made in December, 1947, when a standardized curriculum for the middle schools was adopted by the Ministry of Education. It aimed at:

1. *Chinese.* The teacher should guide the students to express their ideas succinctly in the Chinese language, at the same time urging them to do extensive reading and creative writing to develop their reasoning power and appreciation ability.

2. *English.* The number of English words a middle school student is expected to grasp must be reduced from 7,000 to 6,000. For practical usage, a student with a vocabulary of 5,000 to 6,000 English words can do fairly well in class work.

3. *Mathematics.* Practical application such as the construction of plans and designing should be stressed in the teaching of geometry in the junior middle schools. Analytic geometry and algebra for the senior middle school students should be simplified. The last middle school term should be devoted to a general mathematics review.

4. *Physics and chemistry.* In the study of nature's physical and chemical phenomena, both teaching and experimentation should be emphasized.

5. *Biology and natural sciences.* Knowledge of animals, plants and minerals in their living environment should be taught, and the value of observation and research should be stressed. Obsolete materials used in former texts must be deleted.

6. *Physiology and hygiene.* The aim here is to impart to the students a practical knowledge of the human constitution and to assist him in effecting a balanced development of his body and mind. Materials on nutrition and mental hygiene should be included in the texts.

7. *History, geography and civics.* A working knowledge of history, geography, economics, politics and law should be the object of the course. The problem-center methods should be employed in compiling texts for junior middle school students.

8. *Manual labor.* The objective is to discipline the students by teaching them some useful skills, and to increase their productive ability.

The Ministry of Education encourages middle school teachers to take advanced

courses in the normal colleges as one way of elevating their teaching standards. In 1944, the Educational Department of the Yunnan Provincial Government, in cooperation with the Normal College of the National Southwest Associated University, conducted such a course for over 100 middle school teachers.

In 1942, the Ministry of Education announced that any teacher after having taught continuously for nine years and having passed the teacher's qualification examinations would be granted a year's vacation to do advanced or research work. From 1942 to 1946 over 100 middle school teachers availed themselves of this privilege.

II. NORMAL SCHOOLS

The normal schools are divided into the following types: those which offer a three-year course to junior middle school graduates; rural normal schools which are operated on a similar basis as the normal school; short-course normal schools and short-course rural normal schools, which provide graduates of primary schools with an additional year of study. Normal schools for prospective kindergarten teachers offer courses lasting from two to three years. All normal schools with the exception of national ones, are financed by provincial, municipal or *hsien* governments.

Normal school districts for all provinces were marked out in 1938. Under the first development program (1938-1941), each district is to have one normal school for male students and one for female students. There should also be at least one *hsien*-established short-course normal school for every three *hsien* districts. The second program, 1942 to 1945, aimed at the establishment of two normal schools for each district and one short-course normal school in each *hsien*.

To attract more qualified personnel to teach in normal schools, the Ministry of Education gave teachers and staff members of normal schools salaries 25% higher than those received by the faculty and staff members of ordinary middle schools.

In the 1943-44 academic year, the enrollment in all normal schools totalled 130,975. It rose to 245,609 in the 1945-46 academic year.

The Ministry of Education recently established scholarships for the needy and worthy students in various national, provincial and municipal normal schools. Teachers too are given opportunities for further study.

III. VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

Vocational schools are left to the local authorities, with junior grades to be established by the *hsien* or town, and senior grades by the province or municipality. Any *hsien* or town where unusual conditions exist may petition to establish senior grades. Factories, shops and agricultural organs also may set up vocational schools.

Emphasis has been laid on the expansion of vocational education in interior cities. The Ministry of Education founded a number of junior institutions in Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kansu, Chinghai, and Ningsia during the war and then turned them over to local authorities. Programs offered by the provinces vary considerably. In Szechwan, the training includes brewery, pottery, leather tanning and sericulture; in Kiangsi, sugar manufacturing, tea processing, paper-making and weaving; in Kansu, pottery and woolen weaving; in Shensi, cotton spinning and weaving; in Kweichow, agriculture; in Fukien, paper and lacquer manufacturing; and in Shansi and Kwangsi, small industries. According to statistics compiled by the Ministry of Education, in the 1945-46 academic year there were altogether 724 vocational schools, of which 32 were supported by the Central Government and had an enrollment of 112,684 male and 24,356 female students, totalling 137,040.

From the 1943-44 to the 1945-46 academic year, the number of agricultural vocational schools increased from 141 to 273 and their enrollment from 24,107 to 47,732. During the same period industrial vocational schools increased from 100 to 157 and their enrollment from 22,871 to 41,911. There has been a steady increase in both the number and enrollment of other types of vocational schools since V-J Day.

In 1946, the Ministry of Education ordered schools equipped with electrical engineering and water conservancy apparatus to offer instructions in these lines to meet the nation's need for technical personnel. Later, in cooperation with the Ministry of Economic Affairs, it has ordered factories or mining enterprises employing more than 300 workers to conduct supplementary training for their workers.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education is offered by universities, independent colleges, and polytechnical institutes.

In the 1946-47 academic year, there were 207 institutions of higher learning in China, 31 being national universities,

24 private universities, 23 national independent colleges, 21 provincial independent colleges, 31 private colleges, 20 national polytechnical institutes, 33 provincial polytechnical institutes, and 24 private polytechnical institutes.

Shortly before the war ended there were 145 such institutions with an enrollment of 69,959 students. By the end of 1946, the number of such institutions had risen to 207 with an increase of 59,265 students.

I. REDISTRIBUTION AND REHABILITATION

The removal of universities and colleges to the west, northwest and southwest China began in August and September, 1937, when large numbers of students and faculty members fled from the Peiping-Tientsin area upon the approach of the enemy. As hostilities spread, more schools sought places of safety in the interior. A number of universities and colleges were compelled to move more than once, and in one case one was known to have moved five times during the eight years of war.

During the war the Ministry of Education sought to redistribute the institutions of learning evenly throughout the country. Those of a similar nature were merged for economy. Others were split up and re-located. This flight of the universities and colleges from the enemy provided many interior provinces for the first time with much needed facilities for a higher education.

When the war ended in August, 1945, many of these institutions began to shift back to their former campuses. The National Central University returned from Chungking to Nanking; the National Chiaotung University from Chungking to Shanghai; the National Chinan University from Kienyang, Fukien, to Shanghai; the National Wuhan University from Loshan, Szechwan, to Wuchang; the National Chekiang University from Tsunyi, Kweichow, to Hangchow; and Yenching University and the University of Nanking from Chengtu to Peiping and to Nanking, respectively.

The 207 universities, colleges and polytechnical institutes were distributed as follows at the end of 1946: Kiangsu, 10; Chekiang, 5; Anhwei, 2; Kiangsi, 8; Hupeh, 10; Hunan, 6; Szechwan, 14; Sinkang, 2; Hopei, 3; Honan, 2; Shantung, 3; Shansi, 3; Shensi, 2; Kansu, 4; Fukien, 9; Kwangtung, 2; Kwangsi, 6; Yunnan, 3; Kweichow, 3; Sinkiang, 1; Liaoning, 5; Kirin, 3; Taiwan, 4; Nanking,

11; Peiping, 13; Shanghai, 36; Tientsin, 8; Tsingtao, 1; Chungking, 7; Sian, 6; Canton, 14; Hongkong, 1.

II. ENROLLMENT

China's institutions of higher learning recorded an enrollment of 41,922 at the time the war broke out in 1937. Except for the year 1944 when large numbers

of students joined the armed forces in answer to President Chiang's call, the enrollment had been on the increase throughout the war years.

For the second semester of the 1946 academic year, 129,224 enrolled in the 207 institutions. The following table presents a more composite picture of this enrollment:

TABLE 4.—HIGHER EDUCATION ENROLLMENT, SECOND SEMESTER, 1946 ACADEMIC YEAR

Classification	National	Provincial	Private	Total
Arts and Social Sciences—				
Liberal Arts.....	7,013	1,225	6,183	14,421
Social Sciences.....	15,961	640	14,220	30,821
Commerce.....	4,742	1,343	7,995	14,080
Education.....	1,224	943	1,897	4,064
TOTAL.....	28,940	4,151	30,295	63,386
Natural Sciences—				
Natural Sciences.....	4,836	359	3,628	8,823
Engineering.....	17,728	1,738	3,538	23,004
Medicine.....	6,527	1,809	2,550	10,886
Agriculture.....	5,911	1,598	1,794	9,303
TOTAL.....	35,002	5,504	11,510	52,016
Teacher's Courses.....	10,879	2,908	35	13,822
GRAND TOTAL.....	74,821	12,563	41,840	129,224

Source: Ministry of Education

III. FACULTY AND STAFF

Faculty members of national, provincial and private institutions of higher learning totalled 17,742 during the second semester of the 1946 academic year. Of this

14,944 were full time and 2,798 served on a part-time basis.

The following table lists the various classifications of faculty members in the Chinese universities, independent colleges, and polytechnical institutes:

TABLE 5.—HIGHER EDUCATION FACULTY, SECOND SEMESTER, 1946 ACADEMIC YEAR

Classification	Universities	Independent Colleges	Polytechnical Institutes	Total
Professors.....	4,519	1,783	985	7,287
Assistant Professors.....	1,383	686	519	2,588
Lecturers.....	2,220	1,033	667	3,920
Instructors.....	12	16	13	41
Assistants.....	2,617	736	282	3,635
Special Instructors.....	100	128	43	271
TOTAL.....	10,851	4,382	2,509	17,742

Source: Ministry of Education

Staff members in the institutions of higher learning during the second semester of the 1946 academic year totalled 11,909. Of these 9,397 were men and 2,512, women. National institutions employed 8,070 members (6,285 men and 1,785 women); provincial institutions 1,619 (1,317 men and 302 women); and private institutions 2,220 (1,795 men and 425 women).

IV. IMPROVEMENTS IN CURRICULUM

In the past, courses of study offered by the institutions of higher learning were not standardized, resulting in much confusion and duplication of effort. In 1935, the curriculum for medical colleges was revised and standardized. Normal colleges, colleges of arts, of natural sciences, of law, of agriculture, of commerce, and of engineering did likewise in 1938 and 1939. Further revisions were made in 1944.

The conference of university presidents called by the Ministry of Education in Chungking in March, 1945, adopted resolutions on the following: (1) centralization and concentration of courses; (2) reduction in the number of points (credits) of study; (3) elimination from the universities, independent colleges, and polytechnical institutes of such courses which may be given in research institutes; and (4) courses which are highly technical shall be made elective.

In February, 1947, another conference was called by the Ministry of Education in Nanking to revise existing university curricula. The resolutions reached were: (1) general requirements not closely related to the nation's educational policy shall either be deleted or be made elective; (2) thesis-writing shall be required of all graduating students except those majoring in philosophy, history, and education; (3) Three People's Principles and ethics shall remain as common requirements for all students; (4) students of arts and law shall take at least one science course; and (5) the general history of China shall no longer be a prerequisite for science students, but, in its stead, a second foreign language shall be required.

V. PROPOSED 10-YEAR EDUCATION PLAN

Dr. Hu Shih, chancellor of National Peking University, proposed on September 18, 1947, a 10-year education plan with a view to attaining academic independence for China. The plan would provide intensive improvement for 5 to 10 universities in the next decade. In the first five years five universities would be

chosen for improvement, and in the second stage, another five. Upon completion of the entire plan, it is hoped that China would no longer have to depend on educational institutions in other countries for training of her scholars and experts.

The following is Dr. Hu's eight-point proposal:

(1) The government shall not establish any additional university or independent college within the next 10 years.

(2) After the constitution takes effect, the government shall strictly enforce Article 164, which provides that expenditures for educational, scientific and cultural purposes shall be, in the case of the Central Government, not less than 15% of the national budget; in the case of the province, not less than 25% of the provincial budget; and in the case of the *hsien*, not less than 35% of the *hsien* budget. The people through their representatives shall check from time to time to see that these provisions are rigidly observed.

(3) The government shall adopt a 10-year educational plan to be carried out in two stages of five years each.

(4) In the first five years, five universities would be selected for special educational attention, the emphasis to be on the development of their post-graduate research institutes as centers of learning.

(5) In the second five years, five more universities would receive the same concentrated improvement effort.

(6) During this period the 40 or so national universities and independent colleges, not chosen to participate in the improvement plan, should be granted government funds to enlarge their facilities. Private universities and independent colleges of good standing shall also be the recipients of government aid under a national policy first initiated in 1933 in order that they may continue to develop.

(7) In selecting the 10 universities, no discrimination should be based on whether a university is a national or a private institution. Competent teaching personnel, sufficient research facilities and past achievement should be the criteria of selection.

(8) This 10-year educational plan should bring about a thorough revision of the Chinese system of higher education and a fundamental change in the concept of a university.

VI. PROMOTION OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Graduate courses are offered by many institutions of higher learning. A ruling

handed down by the Ministry of Education in 1929 limits such work to institutions which have an annual budget of more than \$1-million, adequate library and laboratory equipment and faculty members qualified to make contributions toward the advancement of learning. A graduate department must offer at least three courses of advanced training and a school of graduate studies must have at least two such departments.

The first regulations governing graduate departments or schools were passed in August, 1929. At that time both National Sun Yat-sen University in Canton and Yenching University in Peiping had made preparations for the establishment of post-graduate schools. In 1934, more detailed regulations covering qualifications for the deans, professors and students for graduate departments and schools were announced. The following year a law governing the conferring of degrees was adopted. It set forth that those who have completed two years' work in the graduate departments of schools of national or accredited private universities or independent colleges and successfully passed their examinations may be recommended by their school authorities as candidates for the master's degree. After 1935 and prior to the war, there were 26 departments of graduate studies offering 45 courses in 12 institutions of higher learning. Most of these, however, were suspended when the schools migrated to the interior because of the hostilities. In 1938, the Ministry of Education had to subsidize a number of national universities to maintain their graduate schools.

Records of the Ministry of Education show that during the first semester of the 1947 academic year, there were 32 graduate schools in 24 universities and eight independent colleges.

The government institutions of higher learning with graduate schools were: National Central University, National Sun Yat-sen University, National Wuhan University, National Chekiang University, National Szechwan University, National Northeast University, National Tsinghua University, National Fuhtan University, National Taiwan University, National Nankai University, National Peking University, National Chiaotung University, National Hunan University, National Tungchi University, National Kweichow University, National Amoy University, National Chungking University, National Shantung University, National Northwest Normal College, National Northwest College of Engineering, National Medical

College of Shanghai, National Medical College of Kiangsu, National Medical College of Mukden, National Northwest College of Agriculture, and National Normal College of Peiping. The seven private institutions which offered graduate work were: University of Nanking, Yenching University, Catholic (Fu Jen) University, Soochow University, Lingnan University, Cheeloo University and Chaoyang College. One hundred fifty-four polytechnical institutes maintained graduate schools of which 132 were national and 22 were private institutes.

The Ministry of Education also reported that these graduate schools operated 157 departments which offered Chinese classics and literature, foreign languages, philosophy, history, geography, political science, law, economics, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geology, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, civil engineering, metallurgical engineering, chemical engineering, aeronautical engineering, telecommunications, physiology, anatomy, surgery, public health, pathology, bacteriology, pharmacology, parasitology, agriculture, forestry, botany, soil, geological survey, agricultural economy, agricultural hydraulics, horticulture, veterinary science, biochemistry, legal medicine, psychology, education, sociology, oceanography, meteorology, entomology, and anthropology.

VII. SCHOLARSHIPS AND PROFESSORSHIPS

To provide worthy students with opportunities for a higher education, the Chinese Government, private endowments and individuals offer a number of scholarships and loan funds. The Chung Cheng Scholarship, (Chung Cheng is President Chiang's courtesy name) established by the Ministry of Education in 1940 makes 400 awards of CNC\$400 each. Half of these were given to new students who passed competitive entrance examinations, while the other half went to those who attained high scholastic records. A similar scholarship in commemoration of the late President Lin Sen was set up in 1942. It also offered 400 scholarships.

The two were merged into the Chung Cheng-Lin Sen Scholarship, benefiting 1,200 students that year. In 1943, the number of recipients was increased to 1,600. Because of the depreciation of the Chinese currency, only 108 awards were made in 1946. For 1947, the number of recipients remained the same though the amount of grant was raised.

The General Chang Tzu-chung Memorial Scholarship was established in 1941. Students majoring in electrical engineering, aviation, chemical engineering, chemistry or other subjects related to national defense were eligible to apply.

The On Leong Scholarship was founded in 1941 by the Ministry of Education upon the request of the Chinese On Leong Industrial and Commerical Association in the United States. It was intended to help needy students majoring in subjects related to national defense or national reconstruction. Each recipient was entitled to a yearly grant of CNC-\$1,000. In January, 1946, the association presented an additional sum of US\$5,150 to the Ministry of Education to be distributed as scholarships among college students.

The first group of 30 "Ministry-Appointed Professors" was announced by the Ministry of Education in 1942. These professors, selected from among those recommended by national universities and independent colleges and several academic organizations, were appointed for a five-year term to teach in various national universities and colleges. They all have at least ten years' teaching experience in the

national institutions of higher learning and have made outstanding contribution in the way of teaching or writings. The Ministry of Education pays their salaries and the necessary funds for their research work.

The "Ministry-Appointed Professors" are required to make further study in their respective fields and are authorized to assist in supervising the teaching in colleges and universities throughout the country. They participate in the work of the Academic Examination Committee, which is the highest advisory body on academic affairs, in the Ministry of Education, give lectures and make inspections of institutions other than those to which they are assigned. They are required to report the results of their work to the Ministry of Education at the end of every academic year. Upon the expiration of the first term, "Ministry-Appointed Professors" may be reappointed.

The second group of 15 professors received appointment from the Ministry of Education on Teachers' Day (birthday anniversary of Confucius), 1943. Since then and up to the end of September, 1948, no other professors have been appointed.

TABLE 6.—LIST OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING, 1948

(Note: Many of the following schools have either moved to other places or suspended as a result of the spreading communist rebellion in 1948-49.)

National Universities (31)	Presidents	Location
Central University	Chow Hung-ching	Nanking
Political University	Ku Yu-hsiu	Nanking
Peking University	Hu Shih	Peiping
Tsing Hua University	Mei Yi-chi	Peiping
Sun Yat-sen University	Chen Ko-chung	Canton
Northwest University	Yang Chung-chien	Sian
Chiaotung University	Wang Chih-cho	Shanghai
Tungchi University	Ting Wen-yuan	Shanghai
Chinan University	Li Shou-jung	Shanghai
Fuhtan University	Chang Yi	Shanghai
Chekiang University	Chu Co-ching	Hangchow
Yingshih University	Tang Chi-ho	Kinghua, Chekiang
Anhwei University	Yang Liang-kung	Anking
Chung Cheng University	Lin I-min	Nanchang
Hunan University	Hu Shu-hua	Changsha
Wuhan University	Chow Keng-sheng	Wuchang
Chungking University	Chang Hung-yuan	Chungking
Szechwan University	Huang Chi-lu	Chengtu
Nankai University	Ho Lien	Tientsin
Peiyang University	Chang Han-ying	Tientsin
Shantung University	Chao Tai-mou	Tsingtao
Honan University	Yao Tsung-wu	Kaifeng
Shansi University	Hsu Shih-hu	Taiyuan
Lanchow University	Hsin Shu-chih	Lanchow
Amoy University	Wang Teh-yao	Amoy
Kwangsi University	Chen Chien-hsiu	Kweilin
Kweichow University	Chang Ting-hsiu	Kweiyang

TABLE 6.—(Continued)

National Universities (31)	Presidents	Location
Yunnan University	Hsiung Ching-lai	Kunming
Northeast University	Liu Shu-hsiung	Mukden
Changchun University	Lo Yun-ping	Changchun
Taiwan University	Chuang Chang-kung	Taipeh
Private Universities (26)		
University of Nanking	Chen Yu-kuang	Nanking
Yenching University	Lu Chih-wei (Acting)	Peiping
Catholic (Fu Jen) University	Chen Huan	Peiping
Chungkuo University	Wang Cheng-ting	Peiping
Franco-China University	Li Ling-yu	Peiping
University of Canton	Chen Ping-chuan	Canton
Lingnan University	Chen Shu-ching	Canton
Kuomin University (of Kwangtung)	Wu Ting-hsin	Canton
Soochow University	Tang Yung-ching	Soochow
University of Shanghai	Ling Hsien-yang	Shanghai
Kwanghua University	Chu Ching-hung	Shanghai
Tahsia (Great China) University	Ou Yuan-huai	Shanghai
Utopia University	Hu Kang-fu	Shanghai
Aurora University	Hu Wen-yao	Shanghai
St. John's University	Wu Ching-tai	Shanghai
Hangchow Christian University	Baen Li	Hangchow
Wuchang Chunghua University	Wang Cheng-huan	Wuchang
Huachung University (College)	Wei Cho-min	Wuchang
Minkuo University	Lu Tang-ping	Ningsiang, Hunan
West China Union University	Fang Shu-hsien	Chengtu
Cheng Hua University	Ho Po-heng	Chengtu
Cheeloo University	Wu Keh-min	Tsinan
Fukien Christian University	Yang Chang-tung	Foochow
Northeast Chungcheng University	Chang Chung-fu	Mukden
Kiangnan University	Koo Wei-ching	Wusih
Chuhai University	Huang Lin-shu	Canton
National Independent Colleges (23)		
Teachers' College of Peiping	Yuan Tun-li	Peiping
Teachers' College	Chen Tung-yuan	Hengshan, Hunan
Teachers' College of Hupeh	Wang Chih-fu	Kiangling, Hupeh
Nanning Teachers' College	Huang Hua-piao	Nanning, Kwangsi
Teachers' College of Kweiyang	Hsiao Wen-tsai	Kweiyang
Teachers' College of Kunming	Cha Liang-tsao	Kunming
Northwest Teachers' College	Yi Chieh	Lanchow
Changpei Teachers' College	Fang Yung-cheng	Yungki, Kirin
Teachers' College for Women	Chang Pang-cheng	Chungking
College of Social Education	Chen Li-kiang	Soochow
Medical College of Shanghai	Chu Heng-pi	Shanghai
Medical College of Kiangsu	Hu Ting-an	Chinkiang
Chungcheng Medical College	Wang Tse-chien	Nanchang
Hunan Yale Medical College	Ling Min-yu	Changsha
Medical College of Kweiyang	Chu Mou-keng	Kweiyang
Mukden Medical College	Liu Yao-hsi	Mukden
Veterinary College	Sheng Tung-sheng	Lanchow
Chengtu Science College	Wei Tse-luan	Chengtu
Tang Shan Engineering College	Ku Yi-sheng	Tangshan, Hopei
Northwest College of Engineering	Pan Cheng-shao	Sian
Railway Administration College of Peiping	Hsu Pei-kun	Peiping
Northwest College of Agriculture	Tang Teh-yuan	Wukung, Shensi
Shanghai College of Commerce	Chu Kuo-chang	Shanghai

TABLE 6.—(Continued)

Provincial Independent Colleges (24)	Presidents	Location
Kiangsu Provincial College	Hsu Chen-nan	Hsuehchow
Kiangsu Provincial College of Education	Tung Jeh-chih	Wusih
Anhui Provincial College	Wan Chang-yen	Wuhu
Hupeh Provincial College of Medicine	Chu Yu-pi	Wuchang
Hupeh Provincial College of Agriculture	Kuan Tsu-liang	Wuchang
Szechwan Provincial College of Education	Chai Yu-heng	Chungking
Hopei Provincial College of Engineering	Lu Ying-sheng	Paoting
Hopei Provincial Teachers' College for Women	Chi Kuo-liang	Tientsin
Hopei Provincial College of Medicine	Chi Ching-hsin	Tientsin
Fukien Provincial College of Medicine	Huang Cheng-ya	Foochow
Fukien Provincial College of Agriculture	Fu Chih-kwei	Foochow
Kwangtung Provincial College of Law and Commerce	Chang Liang-hsiu	Canton
Kwangtung Provincial College of Arts and Science	Ho Chiao-san	Canton
Kwangsi Provincial College of Medicine	Yih Pei	Kweilin
Sinkiang Provincial College	Pao R-han	Tihwa
Taiwan Provincial Teachers' College	Hsieh Tung-ming	Taipeh
Taiwan Provincial College of Agriculture	Chow Ching-san	Taipeh
Taiwan Provincial College of Engineering	Wang Shih-an	Taipeh
Hunan Provincial Kechang College	Tseng Yu-nung	Hengyang
Kwangsi Provincial Sikiang College of Arts and Science	Lei Pei-hung	Nanning
Chekiang Provincial College of Medicine and Pharmacy	Chiang Kun	Hangchow
Shantung Provincial Teachers' College	Sun Wei-yu	Tsinan
Shantung Provincial College of Medicine	Yin Hsin-nung	Tsinan
Private Independent Colleges (30)		
Chunghua College of Arts and Jurisprudence	Wu Kang	Canton
Chengyang College of Law		Chungking
Hsianghuei College of Arts and Jurisprudence	Hsu Feng-hsi	Peipei, Szechwan
China Textile Engineering College		Shanghai
Fucheng College of Law		Wanhhsien, Szechwan
Chuanpei College of Agriculture		Santai, Szechwan
Ginling College for Women	Wu Yi-fang	Nanking
Chienkuo College of Law and Commerce	Hsiao Cheng	Nanking
Chaoyang College	Chu Cheng (Acting)	Peiping
Huapei College of Arts and Jurisprudence	Wang Chi-san	Peiping
Peiping Union Medical College	Li Tsung-en	Peiping
Kwangtung Kwanghua Medical College	Chang Yung-ping	Canton
Shanghai College of Law and Jurisprudence	Li Hsin-yang	Shanghai
Shanghai College of Law	Chu Feng-yi	Shanghai
Chengming College of Arts	Chiang Wei-chiao	Shanghai
Tungteh Medical College	Ku Yu-chi	Shanghai
Tungnan Medical College	Chang Shih-chi	Shanghai
New China College of Law and Commerce	Lu Sih-jung	Shanghai
Nantung College	Tang Chi-yu	Nantung
Huanan College for Women	Wang Shih-ching	Foochow
Fukien College	Kuo Kung-mu	Foochow
College of Rural Reconstruction	James Yen	Chungking
Minghsien (Oberlin-in-China) College	Chia Ling-ping	Chengtu

TABLE 6.—(Continued)

Private Independent Colleges (30)	Presidents	Location
Tientsin Engineering and Commercial College	Liu Nai-jen	Tientsin
Taijen Commercial College	Hsiao Cheng-yi	Tientsin
Tsiaotsao Engineering College	Chang Ching-lien	Loyang
Nanhua College	Chung Lu-chai	Swatow
Liaoning Medical College	Liu Tung-lun	Liaoning
Overseas Chinese Engineering and Commercial College	Wang Shu-tao	Hongkong
Chiuching College of Commerce	Yang Chung-hsi	Chungking
National Polytechnical Institutes (20)		
Conservatory of Music	Wu Po-chao	Nanking
Academy of Dramatic Arts	Yu Shang-yuan	Nanking
School of Pharmacy	Wu Jung-hsi	Nanking
School of Oriental Languages	Lo Liang-chu	Nanking
Peiping School of Fine Arts	Hsu Pei-hung	Peiping
School of Fine Arts	Wang Ju-chang	Hangchow
Wusung Mercantile School	Chow Chun-shih	Shanghai
Shanghai School of Music	Tai Tsui-lun	Shanghai
Fukien School of Music	Tang Shueh-yung	Foochow
Territorial Waters School	Kai Shih	Hsienyu, Fukien
Border School	Hu Ping-cheng	Nanking
Central Vocational Institute of Industrial Technology	Wei Yuan-kwang	Shapingpa, Chungking
Central Polytechnical Institute	Cheng Yu	Loshan, Szechwan
Tzekung School of Engineering	Li Chi-wei	Tzeluatsing, Szechwan
Northwest School of Agriculture	Lu Pao-ching	Lanchow
Sikang School of Technology	Kao Wei	Sichang, Sikang
Kangting Teachers' School	Fang Shing-cheng	Kangting, Sikang
Teachers' School of Physical Education	Chang Chih-wu	Wuchang
Teachers' School of Chinese Gymnastics	Chang Chih-kiang	Tientsin
Liaohai Mercantile School	Shih Fu-ching	Hulutao, Liaoning
Provincial and Municipal Polytechnical Institutes (29)		
Shanghai Municipal Teachers' School	Chow Shang	Shanghai
Peiping Municipal School of Physical Education	Chang Sheng-chuan	Peiping
Shanghai Municipal School of Engineering	Yang Shu-I	Shanghai
Shanghai Municipal School of Physical Education	Ching Chao-chun	Shanghai
Kiangsu Provincial Soochow School of Engineering	Teng Pang-ti	Soochow
Kiangsu Provincial School of Sericulture	Cheng Pih-chiang	Hushukwan
Kiangsi Provincial School of Engineering	Li Yu-hsiang	Nanchang
Kiangsi Provincial School of Medicine	Meng Hsien-ching	Nanchang
Kiangsi Provincial School of Veterinary Science	Wang Cheng-chun	Nanchang
Kiangsi Provincial Teachers' School of Physical Education	Yu Yung-tso	Nanchang
Kiangsi Provincial School of Agriculture	Shang Jui-chun	Nanchang
Hunan Provincial School of Music	Hu Jan	Changsha
Szechwan Provincial School of Fine Arts	Li Yu-shing	Chengtu
Szechwan Provincial School of Physical Education	Yuan Chuin	Chengtu
Szechwan Provincial School of Accounting	Yang Yu-chih	Chengtu

TABLE 6.—(Continued)

Provincial and Municipal Polytechnical Institutes (29)	Presidents	Location
Hopei Provincial School of Marine Products	Chang Yuan-ti	Tientsin
Shansi Provincial Chuanchih School of Medicine	Ma Shih-chuin	Taiyuan
Shansi Provincial School of Agriculture		Taiyuan
Shensi Provincial School of Commerce	Tseng Jui-ling	Sian
Shensi Provincial Teachers' School	Liu An-kuo	Sian
Shensi Provincial School of Medicine	Chang Nai-hua	Sian
Fukien Provincial Teachers' School	Peng Chuan-cheng	Foochow
Kirin Provincial Chungcheng School of Physical Education		Yungki, Kirin
Kwangsi Provincial School of Fine Arts	Man Chien-tze	Kweilin
Kwangtung Provincial School of Physical Education	Hsu Ming-hui	Canton
Kwangtung Provincial School of Engineering	Wang Jen-yu	Kaoyao, Kwangtung
Kwangtung Provincial School of Fine Arts	Ting Hsien-yung	Canton
Yunnan Provincial School of English Language	Shui Tien-tung	Kunming
Kwangtung Provincial Marine School	Hsu Pei	Canton
Private Polytechnical Institutes (24)		
Chunghui School of Commerce	Ching Tsu-mou	Nanking
Shanghai School of Fine Arts	Liu Hai-shu	Shanghai
Hsinhua School of Fine Arts	Hsu Lang-si	Shanghai
Lisin Accounting School	Pan Shu-lun	Shanghai
Chungkuo School of Journalism	Chen Kao-yung	Shanghai
Shanghai School of Dentistry	Sze-tu Poh	Shanghai
Chunghua School of Engineering and Commerce	Sheng Tse-chuan	Shanghai
Nanfang School of Commerce	Hsu Chung-ching	Canton
Wusih School of Chinese Classics	Tang Wen-chih	Wusih
Soochow School of Fine Arts	Yen Wen-liang	Soochow
Kiangsu Cheng Tseh School of Fine Arts	Lu Feng-tse	Tanyang
Wuchang School of Fine Arts	Chang Chao-ming	Hankow
Wuchang Wen Hwa (Boone) Library School		
Chihshing School of Agriculture	Shen Tsu-yung	Wuchang
Hsin Kiang School of Agriculture	Chen Kun-shan	Huhsien, Shensi
Hanhua School of Agriculture	Cheng Chao-hsiung	Ngohu, Kiangsi
Southwest School of Fine Arts	Wang In-fu	Hankow
Southwest School of Fine Arts	Wan Tsun-mo	Chungking
Southwest School of Commerce	Liao Ching-cheng	Kweilin
Northwest School of Pharmacy	Hsueh Tao-wu	Sian
Eastern Asia School of Physical Education		
Shanghai School of Textile Industry	Chen Meng-yu	Shanghai
Kwangsia School of Commerce	Wang Yu-kai	Shanghai
Hainan School of Agriculture		Hainan Island
I-jen School of Accounting		Sian

Source: Ministry of Education

EDUCATION FINANCES

Article 164 of the Chinese Constitution provides that expenditures for educational, scientific and cultural purposes should be, in case of the Central Government, not less than 15% of the total national budget; of the province, not less than 25% of its total provincial budget, and in the case of the *hsien*, not less than 35% of the total *hsien* budget. Conditions being what they are, the Ministry of Education has found it difficult to carry out these provisions. Tables 7-11 show what the actual annual educational and cultural expenditures were as against what were

provided for in the national, provincial and *hsien* budgets during the period 1942-1947.

Taking 1944 as a year typical of the war period, and 1946 that of the post-war period, the following table shows how the *hsien* distributed its annual educational and cultural expenditures.

The Ministry of Education, with a view to limiting the establishment of private secondary institutions, fixed in April, 1948, the minimum costs for organizing and maintaining such schools. After the currency reform was announced in August the same year, the amounts were converted into Gold Yuan notes.

TABLE 7.—EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL EXPENDITURES

Year	Total National Budget	Educational and Cultural Expenditures	Percentage
1943.....	36,236,413,861	667,572,538	1.84
1944.....	79,501,431,808	2,490,165,865	3.13
1945.....	263,844,138,900	7,932,140,200	3.01
1946.....	2,524,934,725,000	107,989,499,000	4.27
1947.....	9,370,406,740,000	382,652,860,000	4.08
Year	Total Provincial Budget	Educational and Cultural Expenditures	Percentage
1942.....	1,567,775,477	197,333,706	12.59
1943.....	4,344,373,575	307,153,597	7.07
1944.....	5,068,318,613	363,275,077	7.17
1945.....	10,933,708,800	685,402,643	6.28
1946.....	100,241,712,635	6,859,777,850	6.84
Year	Total Hsien Budget	Educational and Cultural Expenditures	Percentage
1942.....	1,582,811,496	313,646,504	19.82
1943.....	3,074,247,569	557,892,127	18.15
1944.....	8,139,164,158	1,087,786,704	13.36
1945.....	30,933,622,074	3,149,995,377	10.18
1946.....	274,649,679,650	14,817,059,186	5.39

Source: Ministry of Education

STUDENTS STUDYING ABROAD

Because of wartime difficulties and restrictions, the number of Chinese students studying abroad decreased considerably. Between 1938 and 1944, there were only 1,142 students studying in foreign countries, as compared to 1,657 for 1929, which showed a decrease of 515.

The lowest number, however, was recorded in 1945, when the Chinese Government had to undertake the gigantic task of national rehabilitation. Only eight students were sent abroad that year.

As conditions gradually regained normalcy, and as restrictions were relaxed, the number of students going abroad

**TABLE 8.—THE DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL EXPENDITURES
IN THE Hsien**

Description	1944		1946	
	Amount	Percentage	Amount	Percentage
Administration.....	9,438,646	0.87	199,475,850	1.34
Secondary Education..	193,337,264	17.77	5,029,195,418	33.94
Primary Education....	617,942,372	56.81	7,302,097,784	49.29
Social Education.....	55,567,040	5.11	820,664,676	5.54
Others.....	211,501,382	19.44	1,465,625,458	9.89
TOTAL.....	1,087,786,704	100.00	14,817,059,186	100.00

Source: Ministry of Education

**TABLE 9.—FIXED MINIMUM ORGANIZATION AND ANNUAL MAINTENANCE
COSTS OF UNIVERSITIES AND INDEPENDENT COLLEGES**

Classification	Organization Expenses	Annual Expenses
College or Department of Arts.....	GY\$100,000	GY\$ 80,000
College or Department of Science.....	GY\$200,000	GY\$150,000
College or Department of Law.....	GY\$100,000	GY\$ 80,000
College or Department of Education.....	GY\$100,000	GY\$ 80,000
College or Department of Agriculture.....	GY\$150,000	GY\$150,000
College or Department of Engineering.....	GY\$300,000	GY\$200,000
College or Department of Commerce.....	GY\$100,000	GY\$ 80,000
College or Department of Medicine.....	GY\$200,000	GY\$150,000

Source: Ministry of Education

**TABLE 10.—FIXED MINIMUM ORGANIZATION AND ANNUAL MAINTENANCE
COSTS FOR POLYTECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS**

Classification	Organization Expenses	Annual Expenses
Class A. 1, 2, 3, 4 Technical Institutions.....	GY\$200,000	GY\$100,000
Class A. 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 15, 16 Technical Institutions.....	GY\$150,000	GY\$ 80,000
Class A. 8, 10, 12, 13, 14 Technical Institutions.....	GY\$100,000	GY\$ 80,000
Class B. 3, 4, 5 Technical Institutions.....	GY\$ 60,000	GY\$ 50,000
Class C. Technical Institution.....	GY\$ 60,000	GY\$ 50,000
Class D. Medical Institute.....	GY\$150,000	GY\$100,000
Class D. Pharmaceutical Institution.....	GY\$100,000	GY\$ 80,000
Class D. Mercantile Institution.....	GY\$100,000	GY\$ 60,000
Class D. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9 Technical Institutions.....	GY\$ 60,000	GY\$ 50,000

Source: Ministry of Education

TABLE 11.—FIXED MINIMUM ORGANIZATION AND ANNUAL MAINTENANCE COSTS OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS

Classification	Organization Expenses				Annual Expenses
	Construc- tion	Farm & Equipment	Factory & Equipment	Equipment	
Senior Middle School..	GY\$30,000	GY\$20,000	GY\$30,000
Junior Middle School..	GY\$20,000	GY\$15,000	GY\$20,000
Senior Agricultural Vocational School..	GY\$20,000	GY\$100,000	..	GY\$20,000	GY\$30,000
Senior Engineering Vocational School..	GY\$30,000	..	GY\$30,000	GY\$20,000	GY\$40,000
Domestic Science School.....	GY\$30,000	GY\$15,000	GY\$20,000

Source: Ministry of Education

suddenly increased to 730 in 1946. Of the number, 554 went to the United States; 41 to England; 68 to France; 2 to Belgium; 3 to Italy; 40 to Switzerland; 4 to Canada; 3 to the Netherlands; 6 to Denmark; 7 to Sweden; and 2 to Australia.

Table 12 shows the different fields of study pursued by students in foreign educational institutions from 1941 to 1946:

Between July, 1947, and June, 1948, a total of 185 students were permitted to study in foreign countries, 35 of them being government-supported students.

New rules governing the education of students abroad were adopted by the Ministry of Education in April, 1946. Their main features are:

(1) Students must pass an examination given by the Ministry of Education before they can go abroad.

(2) Candidates who have passed a physical examination by a ministry-appointed hospital and possess one of the following qualifications are eligible to take the examination:

(a) Graduation from government universities, or private institutions accredited to the Ministry of Education, or independent colleges;

(b) Completion of prescribed courses of study in government universities or private institutions accredited to the Ministry of Education, or independent colleges, or graduation from government or private technical institutes accredited to the Ministry of Education, plus at least two years' experience in service related to their respective fields of study and certificates showing such service;

(c) Passing of the higher examination.

(3) The prescribed subjects for the examination are:

TABLE 12.—STUDENTS STUDYING ABROAD FROM 1941 TO 1946

Classification	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946
Arts.....	3	15	37	8	..	94
Social Sciences and Law.....	11	39	53	11	..	145
Commerce.....	4	13	84	10	..	57
Education.....	2	6	7	5	..	25
Natural Sciences.....	8	32	28	27	5	92
Engineering.....	19	103	124	164	..	205
Medicine.....	4	7	9	23	..	49
Agriculture.....	6	13	17	57	3	63
TOTAL.....	57	228	359	305	8	730

Source: Ministry of Education

(a) General subjects: Chinese, Chinese history and geography, the language and literature of the country selected for further study, or English.

(b) Applicants for government support shall take the examination of three special subjects; those who have their own means of support, two subjects.

(4) The period of study or training abroad for government students is two years, to be extended for one more year if necessary. For private students the period of study or training shall not exceed four years.

(5) Government students are not allowed, unless they have previously obtained permission from the Ministry of Education, to change their course of study or to visit another country other than that designated in their permit. Violators of this regulation shall be deprived of government support.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Social education, like public education, aims at stamping out illiteracy, but it goes a step further. Besides teaching illiterate adults how to read and write, it seeks to give them a general knowledge of rural and city life, as well as of national and world affairs. Adult schools, public reading rooms, playgrounds, phonetic classes, general, commercial and industrial continuation schools, schools for the blind and deaf, reformatory schools, homes for orphans and destitute children, museums, art galleries, schools of music and dramatic arts, theaters, cinemas, music clubs, educational films, broadcasts, road troupes, libraries are some of the means employed to realize this end.

The Department of Social Education of the Ministry of Education has under it five committees: physical education, musical education, visual education, promotion of the phonetic system and fine arts. Likewise, the provinces have special sections devoted to this work.

Organizations and institutions directly under the Ministry of Education include the National Peiping Library, National Central Library, National Peiping Palace Museum, National Central Museum, Museums of Historic Relics, National Conservatory of Music, China Symphonic Orchestra, National Academy of Dramatic Arts, and a number of singing corps, road troupes, and service corps.

The provinces have their mass education institutes, libraries, public playgrounds and gymnasiums, museums, art galleries and science institutes. Under the provincial educational departments are visual education sections, motion picture studios

and mobile corps of singing and dramatic troupes. Each *hsien* also has one or more mass education institutes and, wherever finances permit, a library, a public playground and a museum.

Motion pictures and radio broadcasting are the two most effective means of social education. The Ministry of Education's China Education Film Factory produces educational films and lantern slides. In cooperation with the Central Broadcasting Station, the Ministry of Education has been presenting educational programs through the radio since 1935.

As early as 1932, the Ministry of Education instructed the provinces and municipalities to set up science institutes to promote general interest in science and technology. The Shansi Science Institute and the Fukien Science Institute were established by the respective provincial governments, while the West China Science Institute in Szechwan was founded by private individuals.

Under the direct control of the Ministry of Education is the National Kansu Science Institute at Lanchow, originally organized by the Board of Trustees for the Administration of the British Indemnity Fund in 1939, but taken over by the Ministry of Education in 1944.

Libraries are also an important medium for the dissemination of social education. The National Central Library established in 1940 has a good collection of Chinese and foreign books and periodicals. The National Library of Peiping has been collecting wartime publications, books and periodicals published in foreign languages, as well as pictorial material. The National Northwest Library in Lanchow owns 97,000 books. The National Roosevelt Library in Chungking, which has collected 8,500 volumes of rare old Chinese books and more than 3,000 modern publications, is still in its preparatory stage.

Prior to the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, there were 80 museums in China, aside from those established by the government. Most of them were destroyed during the war. After V-J Day, despite the government's rehabilitation efforts, only one-fourth of them have been restored. The National Mukden Museum, the Taiwan Provincial Museum, and the Tsingtao Municipal Museum were the outstanding new museums. Unfortunately, the Mukden and Tsingtao Museums were reduced to ruin as a result of the civil war.

Table 13 lists institutions engaged in the dissemination of social education in the year 1945-46.

**TABLE 13.—ORGANS AND INSTITUTIONS OF SOCIAL EDUCATION
IN CHINA IN 1945-1946**

Organs and Institutions	Total
<i>General Organs</i>	
Mass Education Halls.....	1,269
Newspaper Rooms.....	22,669
Lecture Halls.....	1,285
Libraries.....	704
Science Halls.....	15
Fine Arts Museums.....	8
Natural History Museums.....	12
Antiquity Museums.....	43
Public Athletic Grounds.....	1,417
Recreation Grounds.....	215
Public Parks.....	442
Mass Education Experimental Stations.....	27
Audio-visual Education Technical Assistance Offices.....	10
Audio-visual Education Corps.....	22
Radio Receiving Stations.....	615
Broadcasting Stations.....	1
Social Education Corps.....	134
Mobile Educational Units.....	33
Committees for Promotion of Social Education.....	356
Central Meteorological Station.....	1
China Symphony Orchestra.....	1
China Educational Film Studio.....	1
Others.....	266
<i>Academic Institutions</i>	
Mass Education Schools.....	20,995
Vocational Supplementary Schools.....	82
General Supplementary Schools.....	834
Schools for the Deaf and the Blind.....	21
Reformatory Schools.....	17
Schools of Drama.....	22
Schools of Music.....	5
Vocational Schools and Classes.....	173
Home Education Classes.....	880
Orphanages.....	97
Training Center for Social Education Workers.....	1
Others.....	456
GRAND TOTAL.....	53,129

Source: Ministry of Education

BORDER EDUCATION

China's frontier regions are inhabited by Mongols, Tibetans, Mohammedans, Miaos, Lolos and other tribes. The Ministry of Education, through its Department of Mongolian-Tibetan Education, undertakes to provide these people with the rudiments of modern education, placing emphasis on citizenship, language, vocational and hygienic training. In secondary education, it lays stress on the development of technical abilities and a clear understanding of China as a nation. In higher education, it aims at the training of technical personnel for reconstruction pur-

poses. In social education, international affairs, scientific and engineering fundamentals are taught.

Since the establishment of the Department of Mongolian-Tibetan Education in 1930, considerable progress in the promotion of this branch of education has been made. Border education personnel has been trained; linguistic symbols have been devised and unified; texts and reference books have been written and loans and scholarships granted.

Up to March, 1947, the government had established three polytechnical institutes, two middle schools, 13 normal schools, eight vocational schools, and 34

primary schools in the border regions. These 60 schools had a total of 305 classes with 9,611 students.

The Ministry of Education has had special textbooks printed for use in these primary schools. In such textbooks, Mongolian, Tibetan, or Islamic languages appear side by side with the text in Chinese. The Mongolian, Tibetan and Islamic translations of the Chinese Constitution were completed in 1947, and copies have been distributed to their schools.

In 1946 a number of universities were designated by the Ministry of Education to organize courses for the study of the border races and their cultures. These institutions were: the National Yunnan University, Kweichow University, Sun Yat-sen University, Chekiang University, West China Union University, University of Nanking and Northwest Teachers' College. For three years the National Central University and National Northwest University maintained departments of border affairs to train education personnel for service in border areas. Each department had an enrollment of 100 students.

OVERSEAS CHINESE EDUCATION

To accommodate overseas Chinese students who have come to China in large numbers after V-J Day, the government has set up two middle schools in Hainan, and two normal schools, one in Fukien and the other in Kwangtung.

Up to the end of 1947, there were 3,462 institutions of higher, secondary and primary education open to overseas Chinese students from 35 countries. These included two colleges, 156 middle schools, 8 normal schools, 7 vocational schools, 2,696 primary schools, 94 continuation schools and 499 other institutions of learning.

Overseas Chinese youths may enter any educational institution in China for which they qualify. The National Chinan University formerly had the largest enrollment of these students. In 1947, however, Lingnan University ranked first with an enrollment of 105, Kwangsi University second with 91, Sun Yat-sen University 90, Fuhtan University 64, Amoy University 57, Chinan University 52, Central University 44, Tungchi University 43, Nanning Teachers' College 40, Tsing Hua University 39, Fukien College 26, and Yenching University 23.

CHAPTER 31

RESEARCH

THE ACADEMIA SINICA

As the highest research organization under the National Government, the Academia Sinica, despite its limited finances, personnel and equipment, has carried on an extensive program throughout China. It maintains 13 research institutes: mathematics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, geology, zoology, botany, meteorology, history and philology, social sciences, medicine, engineering, and psychology. The institutes of mathematics and medicine were established recently.

I. INSTITUTE OF MATHEMATICS

Because of difficulties in recruiting personnel and obtaining equipment during the war, the institute was not established until July, 1947. It has a library collection of about 3,000 volumes, mostly books and periodicals on higher mathematics, obtained since the war ended.

The scope of work of the institute at present may be classified under the following six headlines: (1) theory of series, (2) differential geometry, (3) topology, (4) number theory, (5) abstract algebra and (6) mathematical statistics.

II. INSTITUTE OF ASTRONOMY

The Institute of Astronomy serves as a research body and an almanac office. The People's Calendar, published jointly by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Interior, is computed at the institute every year.

Under its auspices are two observatories. The Purple Mountain Observatory in Nanking consists of a number of buildings including a library, a machine shop, an office building, a dormitory, and observing rooms in which a 24-inch Zeiss reflector and an 8-inch refractor are installed. The Phoenix Hill Observatory in Kunming is equipped with a library, a dormitory and rooms in which a 4-inch Ross camera and a Hale Spectroheli-

scope are installed. The latter is now operated in close cooperation with the National University of Yunnan.

Programs scheduled for 1948 included: (1) photometric and spectrophotometric study of the sun, planets and stars with the 24-inch reflector; (2) observations of cepheids and variable stars with the Ross camera and the astrocamera; (3) studies of solar activity with the spectrohelioscope.

Theoretical as well as historical research, particularly in ancient Chinese astronomical contributions, was done along with the experimental work.

III. INSTITUTE OF PHYSICS

The institute was established in March, 1928. Originally it was one of the departments of the Institute of Physics, Chemistry and Technology. In November of the same year it was given its present status.

The institute has a number of laboratories, an instrument shop, and a library. Current work is centered on the following problems: (1) preparation of large single crystals of desired orientation; (2) mechanical behavior of very fine single crystal wires; (3) study of thin metallic films with ultramicroscope; (4) behavior of lattice of polycrystalline wires; (5) effect of stress upon residual magnetization and coercive force; and (6) the relation between magnetostriction coefficient and stress effect of coercive force.

The following problems submitted by government agencies during the year 1947-48 have been solved by the institute: (1) determination of radium content of certain minerals, (2) determination of the purity of radium nitrate by physical methods, (3) test of radioactivity of certain minerals, and (4) restoration of ancient bronze pieces.

The instrument shop produces physical and chemical apparatus for school use as well as precision instruments.

The library has about 8,500 volumes consisting of books, back numbers of periodicals, handbooks, and collected works. Its reading room has about 40 current journals on physics and allied subjects.

A laboratory for nuclear physics on a modest scale is being planned. A Van de Graaff generator capable of producing 3 to 5 million volts was ordered.

Limited by personnel, equipment and present-day conditions in China, the institute must now confine its research projects to a limited field in physics. For the time being it plans to concentrate its efforts on the physics of solids and on nuclear physics. Later on it will take up electronics to be followed by other project subjects.

IV. INSTITUTE OF CHEMISTRY

The work carried on by the institute has been mainly in the domain of pure chemistry, although occasionally problems of a practical nature have been taken up in response to outside requests. Prior to 1934, the results of these investigations were published under the series title, "Papers of the Institute of Chemistry."

These studies, carefully selected, were on: (1) the ultraviolet absorption spectra of simple polyatomic molecules, especially those of the symmetrical collinear type—the investigation providing interesting information on the structure of such spectra and of these molecules, their dissociation energies and the nature of their chemical bonds; (2) the syntheses of compounds related to the sex hormones and the chemistry of fused ring systems—the results contributing significantly to the field of research so ardently pursued by the organic chemists in the 1930's; (3) the chemistry of the santonins—two new desmoposantonins and two new santonous acids having been discovered; and (4) extraction of alkaloids from medicinal herbs native to China and the study of their chemical composition and structure.

Subjects now under study include: (1) the mechanism and kinetics of the reaction of alcohols, aldehydes and ketones, with hypo-iodite solutions; (2) phosphatases from various sources and the mechanism of their action; (3) the applicability of Hofmann reaction; (4) the preparation of local anaesthetics; (5) the extraction of alkaloids from medicinal herbs and the elucidation of their chemical structure; (6) the effect of various ions on the determination of sulphate; (7) the determination of tungsten; (8) the electrodeposition of metals; and (9) the determination of uranium in columbium and tantalum-rich ores.

V. INSTITUTE OF GEOLOGY

The research work of the institute is provisionally divided into three sections: 1. physical geology, 2. palaeontology, and 3. applied geology.

The institute has one mineralogical laboratory for determining the physical as well as microchemical properties of transparent and opaque minerals, one palaeontological laboratory, one chemical laboratory and one museum for the exhibition of the minerals, rock specimens and fossils collected by members of the institute from various localities of the country.

A somewhat new branch of geology has recently developed in this institute under the title of geomechanics. Positive evidence has been obtained that rocks as they occur in nature are both elastic and plastic. Experiments made in this institute with elastoplastic material have actually shown how certain tectonic patterns might have been produced by the application of a horizontal inertia force.

The discovery of quaternary glaciation in Lushan and other areas proved to be an epoch-making contribution to the study of the geology of China. Glacial deposits have also been found by members of the institute in many parts of southern China. Much of the placer deposits occurring in parts of Kwangsi, Kweichow and western Hunan has been determined to be of glacial and fluvio-glacial origin.

A plan has been developed to study the igneous phenomena and recent displacement of strand-lines along the eastern coast of China.

Traces of uranium deposits were first discovered at Hwashan in the Chungshan district. Much work has been done in the wolframite deposit in south Kiangsi. Gold placers in western Hunan were extensively studied and it was found that their origin is closely related to the pleistocene glaciers. Iron and copper deposits have been investigated in western Hupeh.

The finding of a well-preserved fossil wood, *Psaronius*, in the Permian basalt, is of great interest. On the basis of large collections of corals from various parts of China, the Lower Carboniferous has been divided into four zones which may be compared with those of the same period of Europe. Many well-preserved specimens of Graptorites have been collected and some of them have been examined and described by an experienced member of the institute. Numerous specimens of Devonian brachiopods, Permian fusulinids and Triassic ammonoids form valuable collections in the museum.

A geological map of Kwangsi province has been completed embracing the area which extends between latitudes $22^{\circ} 30'$ and $26^{\circ} N$ and longitudes $106^{\circ} 40'$ and $111^{\circ} 30' E$ on a scale of 1:200,000. The whole map is divided into 36 sheets. Shortage of funds has delayed its publication.

VI. INSTITUTE OF ZOOLOGY

Following two reorganizations, the institute has turned its attention to the fields of fish biology, entomology, parasitology, protozoology, and experimental zoology.

1. *Fish biology*—For many years studies in fish biology have been centered on *Monopterus javanensis*. The morphology and physiology of its accessory respiratory organs, the anatomy of its blood vascular system, the intergumentary serous glands of its embryo, the function of its larval organs have been taken up in turn. The fact that *Monopterus* always starts its life as a female, undergoes a sex-reversal after laying eggs, and is eventually transformed into a male, has been revealed for the first time, and is being further investigated. The biology of fish other than *Monopterus* has also been extensively studied. The recent discovery of the occurrence of blastokinesis in the eggs of a Chinese bitterling, *Roodus ocellatus*, is of particular interest.

2. *Entomology*—Much emphasis has been laid on the systematics of the white flies, *Aleurodidae*; the fruit flies, *Tryptidae*; and the leaf beetles, *Chrysomelidae*. Economic bearings of the groups studied were also taken into consideration. Morphological investigations of the insects have been carried out on the Malpighian tubes in *Chrysomelidae*, the tibial tympanic organ of *Conocephalus* and the elytral tracheation of *Dermaptera*.

The problems of the evolution of larval forms have been propounded after a thorough study of the structure, development and habitat of the larvae, representative of which have been selected from all groups of insects. Studies have also been made on the special modifications in the structure of *Cheirochela* and other aquatic insects in regard to their respiratory adaptations.

3. *Parasitology*—In the past the work in parasitology was entirely devoted to the survey of nematodes from wild and domesticated animals. Recently, however, a new plan has been laid for the study of fish parasites, including fungi, sporozoa, copepods, isopods, acanthocephala, cestodes and trematodes in addition to nematodes.

4. *Protozoology*—In the field of protozoology work is confined mostly to the dinoflagellates and Infusoria. For dinoflagellates, investigations have been centered on the thecal morphology, especially in the plates that constitute the ventral area. The study of Infusoria consists of the life history of Suctorina, the fibrillar system of ciliates and the systematics of fresh water forms. Cytological investigations on the intestinal flagellates have also been undertaken.

5. *Experimental zoology*—Contributions that may be mentioned from the studies of experimental zoology include the excretion of uric acid from the Malpighian tubes of centipedes, the osmotic regulation and "chloride secreting cells" of the paradise fish and the common eel, and the polarity and its inducing action on embryonic tissues of amphibia.

In addition to the above topics, the institute has yet to resume its work on oceanography which was carried out before the war in the Gulf of Po Hai and along the coast of Shantung peninsula.

VII. INSTITUTE OF BOTANY

The institute has eight laboratories, namely phanerogamic taxonomy, mycology, algology, plant physiology, forestry, plant morphology, plant pathology, and cytogenetics.

Research work in progress includes: (1) phanerogamic botany—survey of higher plants in eastern China; (2) mycology—continuation of the study of higher fungi; (3) algology—studies of fresh water algae in southwestern China will be continued, and studies of marine algae in the South China Sea will be started soon; (4) plant physiology—problems now under way are: (a) the effect of micro-elements, auxin and colchicine, upon starch hydrolysis and starch synthesis in the leaves of kidney beans, and (b) the effect of the above chemicals on the starch digestion in the germinating wheat seeds; (5) forestry—studies of nursery practices and silvicaland management problems of principal timber trees of China; (6) plant morphology—embryonic development of Gymnosperms and weed anatomy are the principal problems analyzed in this laboratory; (7) plant pathology—projects in progress include (a) preventive therapy of soybean disease, (b) the effect of 2-4-dichlorophenyl acetic acid on the germination of fungal spores, and (c) survey of diseases of fruits and crops; (8) cytogenetics—cytogenetical studies have been made with

wheat and its relations, millet and sorghum, and recently, in cooperation with the Taiwan Sugar Company, cyto-genetical on sugar cane.

VIII. INSTITUTE OF METEOROLOGY

The institute is mainly interested in studies of meteorological science, with seismology as a minor activity. In 1947, the Division of Terrestrial Magnetism of the Institute of Physics was incorporated and a new Division of General Geophysics was inaugurated. Research programs already under way, despite many handicaps and difficulties, are in three directions: (1) climatology, (2) dynamical meteorology, and (3) long range forecasting. The map of magnetic anomalies in South China is in preparation and phases of the theory of seismic waves are studied.

For the convenience of research, the following facilities are provided:

(A) Library—In 1947, the former Shanghai Science Institute, including its excellent collection of geophysical literature published mostly before 1939, was taken over by Academia Sinica. The library, originally containing some 6,000 volumes, was by far the best reference center in China for students of geophysics, meteorology and allied subjects.

(B) Magnetic Observatory—The observatory serves as the standard station for making determinations of the magnetic elements. It consists of an absolute room and a variation room, both being built of non-magnetic material. It is equipped with a Schuster-Smith standard magnetometer, a Smith portable magnetometer and a La Cour variometer. Besides routine observations, field work is also conducted.

(C) Seismology Station—The institute used to have two seismographs of the Wiechert type and one Galizin instrument. The latter was lost during the war while the sensitivities of the first two are too low from the point of view of modern developments. Purchase of a new instrument of the Benioff type is planned.

(D) Meteorological Material—Since the establishment of the institute, the collection of meteorological records of China as well as of neighboring countries has been carried on for nearly 20 years without interruption. The weather maps of eastern Asia are kept to date without lapse. Both the historical weather maps published by the Allied nations during the war and the upper air records taken in the different war theaters are among the collections.

IX. INSTITUTE OF HISTORY AND PHILOLOGY

The institute consists of four sections. Section I studies historic problems and edits ancient Chinese classics and the Cabinet Archives of the Ming and the Ching dynasties. The principal subjects of study of the second section are Chinese language, non-Chinese languages within the Chinese boundary and general linguistic problems. The archaeological section, known as Section III, deals mainly with artifacts and excavations of human remains, both historical and prehistorical. Anthropology and ethnology of China define the scope of the work of the fourth section.

The activities of each section are as follows:

(1) Historical Section—Works like: *The Outline of Northeastern History*, *On the Original Meaning of "Hsing"* and *"Ming," On the Origin of the Political System of the Sui and Tang Empires*, *On the Political History of the Tang Dynasty*, *The Grand Canal and the Sui and the Tang Empires* have been published in addition to articles found in the regular institute bulletin.

Thirty volumes of the *Cabinet Archives of the Ming and Ching Dynasties* have been published and ten more are being printed. The editing and transcription of the wooden slats of the Han dynasty discovered in Etzina have been published with commentary, and the editing of the bulky *"Authentic Records"* of the Ming Dynasty (*Ming Shih Lu*) will be completed soon. Textual studies include a review of ancient Chinese classics and manuscripts of later dynasties. *A New Commentary of Chuantze*, *Manuscripts from Tunhuang*, and *A Catalogue of Tunhuang Manuscripts Preserved in the Peiping Library* have been published.

Many books have been written on the study of bronze and stone inscriptions. Among them, *Chinese Paleography Compiled from Bronze Inscription*, and its supplementary volume, *Collections of Inscriptions of the Chin and the Han Dynasties*, *Funerary Inscriptions of Han-Wei and the Six Dynasties*, may be mentioned. For folk literature, *The Catalogue of Chinese Folk Songs*, and *Customs of Peiping* have been compiled.

In addition to these publications, a *Territorial History of China* has been written for the Institute of Pacific Relations.

(2) Linguistic Section—Hundreds of dialects in southern Kiangsu, Chekiang, central Shensi, Kwangtung, Kwangsi,

Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Yunnan, and Szechwan have been surveyed. All of them were recorded in phonetic notation, and some were further recorded on aluminum disks.

The phonetic system of ancient Chinese is reconstructed with the aid of rhyme books, rhyme tables and the transcription of Sanskrit in Buddhist texts; while that of archaic Chinese with the aid of *Shih King* rhymes and *Hsia-sheng* characters. Attention has also been paid to the grammatical structure of the classics.

A comparative study of non-Chinese languages of the Tibetan family has been made. Various languages used in China's southwestern borders, which were formerly either unknown or novel, such as the languages of Chungchia, Tao, Chuangchia, Chinese Shan, Miao, Yao, Mingchia, Lolo, Moso, and several Tibetan dialects in western Szechwan, have been accurately recorded and studied. A comprehensive work dealing with the phonology of Tai dialects is in active preparation.

(3) Archaeological Section—From 1942 to 1945, a number of field expeditions sent to the northwest discovered some 20 sites in southern Shensi, about 30 sites in Kansu, ranging from the prehistoric period to the Tang dynasty. Based on results of excavations, reports and papers have been written to interpret the nature of the Lungshan culture which furnished an important link for the study of Chinese culture of the prehistorical period. Studies of the oracle-bones, bronzes and potteries from the Yin ruins threw new light upon civilization of the early historical period. *Studies on the Calendar of the Yin Dynasty* was published during the war. Four reports on *Anyang Excavations* and three volumes of *The Chinese Journal of Archaeology* already have been published.

(4) Ethnological Section—For 20 years, this section has periodically sent out anthropological and ethnological expeditions. Many tribes such as the Goldi in the Northeast; and Miao, Yao, Shemin, Kachin, Chiang, Gyarung, Lolo, Moso, Liso, Lahu, Shan, and Chungchia, in the southwestern provinces of China were investigated. The ethnological reports of *A Survey on the Yao of Linyun, Kwangsi*, *The Primitive Aborigines of Formosa*, *Lolo Specimens*, *Die Hsiamin Tsemuschan*, *The Goldi Tribe on the Lower Sungari River*, *The Miao Tribe of Western Hunan*, and the anthropological reports of *An Anthropological Study of the People of Shantung*, *A Preliminary Classification of Asiatic Races on Cranial Measurements and Detailed Anthropol-*

metric Measurements of the Chinese of the North China Plain were published. A monograph of the ceremonial customs of the Miao tribe on the source of the Yungzing River and a report on the study of suspended coffins in southern Szechwan are in active preparation.

X. INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

In the early days the institute undertook its research work in four sections: Law, economics, sociology and ethnology. Upon the amalgamation with the Institute of Social Research in 1934, the ethnology section was transferred to the Institute of History and Philology. The scope of its present investigation, including the continuation of the work of the staff of the Institute of Social Research, may be grouped into eight divisions, namely, modern economic history, industrial economics, agricultural economics, foreign trade, banking and currency, public finance, population, and statistics. In 1936 a new branch in public administration was established and the scope of economic historical studies was further extended to include research on Chinese social history. Since July, 1937, the greater part of the investigations has been devoted to problems arising out of the economic and financial conditions of the country during the war. In 1942 a new project, the study of China's national income, was begun and has since become the principal study of the institute.

Apart from the requisites for computing and charting, there is a special library for its research staff, which contains a collection of about 69,000 volumes, of which 50,000 are in Chinese or Japanese and the remainder in other languages. There are 212 current periodicals in Chinese and 164 in foreign languages.

XI. INSTITUTE OF MEDICINE

The institute is still in its organization stage, but three research units have been initiated: a physiological unit centering its activities around the neuromuscular system; an organic chemistry unit working on the antibiotic citrinin; and a biochemical unit dealing chiefly with nutritional and enzyme chemistry.

The institute library carries more than 80 current journals in medical and related sciences. About 40 are complete sets or have a considerable series of back numbers. Laboratories are stocked with such experimental specimens as toads, dogs, rabbits, albino rats, mice, guinea pigs and pigeons. A mechanical shop with a fairly complete assortment of the necessary machines is also maintained.

XII. INSTITUTE OF ENGINEERING

The institute was organized in March, 1928. Its purpose is to apply the fundamental principles of engineering science to industrial problems, with special attention to the improvement of existent Chinese industries and the development of new ones. The problems taken up by the institute pertain to the following subjects: porcelain, iron and steel, glass, cotton industry, internal combustion engine, wood and certain topics on industrial chemistry.

The research work on porcelain began with a systematic study of ancient Chinese porcelains known to art, especially the glazes and colors used in their production. The ceramic laboratory of the institute has succeeded in reproducing many of the famous varieties.

For work on iron and steel, general metallurgical problems were first investigated. The products supplied by the iron and steel laboratory of the institute include: plain carbon steel casting, Hadfield manganese steel casting, chrome steel casting, nickel-chrome steel for machine parts, stainless steel for various purposes, carbon tool steel, highspeed tool steel, acid-resisting silicon iron castings, highest cast iron and alloy cast irons.

The research work on glass originally carried out in the Institute of Chemistry was taken over by this department. Studies are continued on general problems pertaining to the manufacture of special glasses for scientific purposes such as chemical apparatus glass, acid-resistant glass, heat-resistant glass, gauge glass, neutral glass, and electric-resistant glass.

The services rendered by the institute in collaboration with the China Electric Steel Works include: (1) steel rods of special quality for making wire ropes for raising salt solutions from deep wells in Szechwan; (2) permanent magnetic steel for the Central Electric Works; and (3) silico-manganese spring steels for communications system and the Services of Supply of U. S. Armed Forces in China.

Towards the end of the war, at the joint request of the U. S. Armed Forces in China and the Bureau of the Yunnan-Burma highway, the institute made a survey of the forests along the Chinese section of the highway paying special attention to timbers for bridge construction. Work was also carried out on the dry distillation of some selected kinds of wood so that further studies might be made on the utilization of their distillates in the various industries.

XIII. INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY

The Institute of Psychology was established in May, 1929. Its research programs before the war were developed along three lines: physiological psychology, comparative neuroanatomy and industrial psychology. In the first, studies on the action of potentials in the central nervous system, more particularly the different levels of the visual apparatus, on the compensatory reactions of unilaterally labyrinthectomized animals, and on the sense organs of the viscera may be specially mentioned.

In the neurological field, there were works on the histology of the cerebral cortex of the Chinese brain, the descending tracts from the inferior colliculus of the hedgehog brain, the high level decussation of the pyramidal tract in pangolin and others.

Industrial psychological studies were carried out in the factories near Peiping and Shanghai.

The relation between the development of the central nervous system and the development of behavior in amphibians were the chief subjects of study of the institute during the war. A new program of neurophysiological research has been planned.

ORGANIC LAW OF THE ACADEMIA SINICA

*(Promulgated on November 9, 1928;
and amended May 27, 1935,
November 6, 1936, November 17, 1943
and March 13, 1947.)*

Article I.—The Academia Sinica shall be established as the highest institution for scientific research in China under the direct authority of the President of the Republic of China.

Article II.—The functions of the Academia Sinica shall be as follows: (1) to pursue scientific research; and (2) to direct, coordinate, and promote scientific research.

Article III.—The Academia Sinica may organize the following institutes of research and such others with the approval of the Council, whenever necessary: (1) Mathematics, (2) Astronomy, (3) Physics, (4) Chemistry, (5) Geology, (6) Zoology, (7) Botany, (8) Meteorology, (9) Philosophy, (10) Education, (11) Chinese Literature, (12) History and Philology, (13) Law, (14) Economics, (15) Social Sciences, (17) Medicine, (18) Pharmacology, (19) Physical Anthropology, (20) Engineering, (21) Psychology, (22) Geography, (23) Archaeology, and (24) Ethnology. The qualifica-

tions for the director and the research staff members of the institutes shall be stipulated by the Council.

Article IV.—There shall be a president for the Academia Sinica appointed by the President of the Republic of China to be in general charge of the administrative affairs of the Academy.

Article V.—There shall be a number of members of the Academia Sinica to be elected from among Chinese scholars and scientists of distinction in accordance with one of the following qualifications: (1) having made outstanding contributions to a specialized line of study; or (2) having directed or administered meritoriously an academic institution in his (her) own line of study for five years or more.

Article VI.—An initial group of members of Academia Sinica, numbering from 80 to 100 persons, shall be elected by the Council; subsequently a maximum of 15 new members may be elected each year by the members.

Article VII.—Nominations to membership in the Academia Sinica shall be submitted by various colleges, universities, learned societies or research institutions (in China) or by five members of Academia Sinica, or five members of the Council, to the Council for reviewing of the nominee's qualifications. A list of the nominees admitted to candidature shall be published.

The by-laws governing the election of the members of Academia Sinica shall be drawn up by the Council of Academia Sinica.

Article VIII.—All members of Academia Sinica shall be honored for life.

Article IX.—It shall be the duty as well as the privilege of the members of Academia Sinica: (1) to elect new members and honorary members, (2) to elect members of the Council of Academia Sinica, (3) to formulate national policies on research, and (4) to execute academic planning, to carry out scientific investigation and research, or to review scientific studies at the request of the government. The by-laws governing the general assembly of the members of Academia Sinica shall be drawn up by the council.

Article X.—The members of Academia Sinica shall be grouped into the following three divisions: (1) mathematical and physical sciences, (2) biological sciences, and (3) social sciences and the humanities. The number of the members allocated to each division shall be determined by the council.

Article XI.—There shall be a Council of Academia Sinica consisting of ex-

officio members and 30 to 50 members elected by the members of Academia Sinica and appointed by the President of the Republic.

The president of Academia Sinica, the director general and the directors of the different institutes of the Academia Sinica shall be ex-officio members of the council.

The president of the Academia Sinica shall be the chairman of the council.

The constitution of the Council of Academia Sinica shall be promulgated separately.

Article XII.—There shall be a number of honorary members of the Academia Sinica. A foreign scholar or scientist having made outstanding contributions may become an honorary member of the Academia Sinica upon the nomination of ten or more members of Academia Sinica and elected by a majority of all the members. The citation for the election of each honorary member shall be published.

Article XIII.—There shall be a director-general of the Academia Sinica to execute the administrative affairs of the academy under the direction of the president of the Academia Sinica, a chief for the secretariat, a chief for the business department, one to three secretaries, and two to five managers to take care of the secretarial and the business affairs of the academy. All these staff members shall be appointed by the president of the Academia Sinica.

There shall be a chief accountant and a statistician to take care of the budgeting, the accounting and the statistical compilation of the academy under the supervision of the president of the Academia Sinica and to be directly responsible to the Ministry of Audit in accordance with the latter's organic law.

The number of assistants to the chief accountant and the statistician shall be decided jointly by the Academia Sinica and the Ministry of Audit.

Article XIV.—The by-laws of the Academia Sinica shall be drawn up by the Academia Sinica.

Article XV.—The organic law shall become effective on the day of its promulgation.

CONSTITUTION OF THE COUNCIL OF ACADEMIA SINICA

*(Promulgated on May 27, 1935; and
amended November 17, 1943, and
March 13, 1947.)*

Article I.—There shall be a Council of the Academia Sinica in accordance with Article XI of the Organic Law of the Academia Sinica.

Article II.—The members of the council shall be elected by the members of the Academia Sinica.

Article III.—The elected members of the council shall be distributed among the divisions as stipulated in Article X of the Organic Law of the Academia Sinica.

Article IV.—It shall be the duty as well as the privilege of the members of the council: (1) to determine the policy of scientific research of the Academia Sinica, (2) to promote scientific cooperation in China and internationally, (3) to elect three candidates for the presidency of the Academia Sinica, when that office becomes vacant, to be presented to the President of the Republic for his choice and appointment, (4) to prosecute scientific research at the request of the government, (5) to review the publications or the discoveries of those who have successfully passed the civil service examinations and are being appointed to government positions at the request of the Examination Yuan.

Article V.—The term of office of the elected members of the council shall be three years, but upon re-election a member of the council may continue to serve.

Article VI.—Three months before the expiration of the term of the elected members of the council, members of the Academia Sinica shall elect members of the next council. The by-laws of such elections shall be drawn up by the council.

Article VII.—When there is a vacancy in the council, the unexpired term of the vacancy shall be completed by a new member elected by the council and appointed by the President of the Republic.

Article VIII.—Members of the council are honorary positions but may be compensated for their traveling expenses when attending the meeting of the council.

Article IX.—There shall be at least one meeting of the council each year to be convened by the president of the Academia Sinica. If necessary, or at the request of one-third of the members of the council, the president of the Academia Sinica may also call a meeting of the council.

Article X.—There shall be an honorary secretary for the council to be elected by the members of the council.

Article XI.—Whenever the office of the president of the Academia Sinica becomes vacant, a special meeting of the council shall be convened by the honorary secretary to elect three candidates for the president of the Academia Sinica.

Article XII.—The by-laws governing the meeting of the council and the administration of the council shall be drawn up by the council.

Article XIII.—The constitution shall be effective on the day of its promulgation.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF PEIPING

The National Academy of Peiping was founded in 1929 in accordance with an act passed by the Executive Yuan of the National Government. It consisted of eight institutes, devoted to research in physics, atomic energy, chemistry, materia medica, physiology, zoology, botany, historical studies and archaeology. It had 266 staff members including research professors, assistant research professors, senior and junior assistants and technicians, in addition to 18 Chinese and foreign correspondent members.

As a national research organization, the National Academy of Peiping has been carrying on a vast program. After the enemy occupation of Peiping in 1937, the academy moved to Kunming. After V-J Day the academy moved back to Peiping.

In accordance with the general policy of the academy, the greater portion of its research activities has tended to be practical and economically important to meet the needs of the nation. Its publications, which in former years amounted to nearly 50 kinds of bulletins, journals, memoirs, books and maps, plus 600 papers and reports, have been maintained though on a much reduced scale owing to the lack of funds.

Following is a brief summary of the research work done by the different institutes of the National Academy of Peiping, during the 1946-48 period.

I. THE INSTITUTE OF PHYSICS

To comply with the general policy of the academy, the Institute of Physics, whose studies were chiefly in photography, spectroscopy, piezoelectricity and geophysics, in recent years has emphasized the practical problems of industry and national defense.

With the spectroscopic equipment, a laboratory of spectrum analysis has been set up to serve China's young metallurgical industry. Under the direction of Dr. Ny Tsi-ze, optical parts like achromats, prisms and flats have been abundantly supplied to various institutions for educational and research purposes. Microscopes have been made available to university students in accordance with directives from the Ministry of Education.

The establishment of a gravity map of China and the precise determination of longitudes and latitudes have been the two main undertakings in geophysics of the institute.

The work in geophysical prospecting has been limited to the study of ore deposits. Six mining districts (the National Resources Commission's I-Men iron mine, Anning iron mine, Kuchiu tin mine, Lutien lead-silver mine, Chaotung lignite field, and Tungchuan copper, lead-zinc and pyrite mines) have been thoroughly worked over with magnetic and electrical apparatus by field teams.

In cooperation with the Geological Survey of China, the institute has organized a geophysical committee, which publishes contributions by the geophysical investigators of the country.

II. THE INSTITUTE OF ATOMIC PHYSICS

The Institute of Atomic Physics, headed by Dr. Tsien Santsiang, was established in Peiping in September, 1948, to replace the former Institute of Radium. Essential equipment was ordered from abroad, and a portion of it arrived in China in October, 1948. Its staff members have been recruited from among college graduates, while its physical faculties such as laboratories and office rooms have come from the Institute of Physics.

III. THE INSTITUTE OF CHEMISTRY

Like most other institutes, the Institute of Chemistry has been for the past eight years, devoting much effort and time to problems of applied science.

Its sphere of study falls along four lines: (1) extraction of dyestuffs from local plants and their application to various textiles, (2) preparation and manufacturing of medicines on a small scale, utilizing local raw materials, (3) recovery of used engine oils, replacement of diesel oil by vegetable oil, and preparation of a gasoline substitute from molasses and sawdust, (4) miscellaneous experiments such as the analysis of water samples taken from various places in the vicinity of Kunming, the extraction of potash from different kinds of ashes.

As for pure chemical research, attention has been centered mainly on problems of organic chemistry. Topics studied include: (1) synthesis of organic compounds related to vitamin K, (2) molecular rearrangements of organic compounds, (3) preparation of angular methyl group, (4) synthesis of rotenon derivatives.

IV. THE INSTITUTE OF MATERIA MEDICA

Research work in this institute has been concentrated on Chinese drugs. The active elements of various herbs have been isolated and their constituent properties as well as the pharmacological actions have been studied. Besides chrysophenol, a new phenol, denticulatol $C_{15}H_{10}O_3$, M.P. $162.5^{\circ}C$, has been derived from Tu-Da-Hwang, *Rumex Denticulata*. From Shehkan, Iris Wattu, a new glucoside iso-Shehkanen $C_{22}H_{22}O_{11}$, M.P. $253^{\circ}C$, has been isolated. The total synthesis of iso-Shehkangenin, however, is still under way.

A new research program in the field of thiazole and pyrimidine was recently started. For the time being the work has been directed toward the synthesis of compounds of the atabrin and plasmöquin types with a thiazole ring attached to the aminalkyl side chain, thus attempting to find new antimalarials. It was hoped that the work could later be extended to the synthesis of vitamin B1 analogues which contain both thiazole and pyrimidine rings.

V. THE INSTITUTE OF PHYSIOLOGY

Research of this institute was initially confined to pure studies in experimental biology and physiology proper, while special emphasis was laid also on the physiological effects of various Chinese drugs. However, within the last eight years problems applicable to daily living have usurped most of the attention. Experiments in nutrition values of foods used by inhabitants in the southwestern provinces, the treatment by sulfamylamide of chicken suffering from cholera, also typhus by Chinese medicines are of significance.

Problems now under study are on the types of Chinese drugs produced in Yunnan and the basal metabolism of the Yunnanese people.

In collaboration with Chang Ko, Dr. Tchou Su, director of the institute, has worked on maturation in vitro. In a series of experiments, employing hypo- and hypertonic solutions, he has succeeded in using an artificial medium to cause the egg of Rana and Bufo to undergo maturation, which is cytologically comparable to what occurs in nature.

Dr. Tchou has also studied the phenomenon of dissociation of kinetic rhythms in the egg of silkworm, *Bombyx Mori*. He has been able, by the use of KCN, to cause the centrosome and the spindle of the dividing embryonic cells (from a

fertilized egg) to take its own cause of evolution in a manner unlike the usual harmony of kinetic rhythms.

The institute is now located in Shanghai. It cooperates closely with the Shanghai Biological Institute.

VI. THE INSTITUTE OF ZOOLOGY

Studies conducted in this institute were formerly restricted to that of seashore animals of China. However, during the war, following its removal to Kunming, part of its work has been directed to the limnological fauna of Yunnan.

To intensify such investigations, an experimental station for lacustral biological studies was started in 1939, under the joint auspices of the institute and the Yunnan provincial authorities. This was the first of its kind in China and, in spite of its brief history, has been able to make systematic studies of the principal fresh water fauna of Yunnan, particularly the fish of the inland lakes, their diseases and enemies, together with the chemical and physical properties of the lake waters. Besides aquatic animals, terrestrial animals like reptiles and spiders of Yunnan have also been collected and catalogued.

Since its return to Peiping after V-J Day, the institute has emphasized both experimental and systematic zoological studies. In addition to pure entomological research, the study of insects injurious to agricultural crops and their products has been started.

VII. THE INSTITUTE OF BOTANY

After its removal to the interior, the Institute of Botany began on the problems of economic botany. Experiments in the fields of agriculture and forestry had been in progress for several years.

Under the joint auspices of the institute and the National Northwestern Agricultural College, a special botanic survey was planned and organized for the purpose of conducting research on plant life in northwest China, and its economic value. Field teams were dispatched to the various centers of botanic interest throughout the northwest, particularly around the great western mountain ranges. The material brought back was abundant and valuable. The entire collection of plant specimens now numbers more than 150,000.

During the Japanese occupation of Peiping, the botanical garden erected by the institute was destroyed. In the spring of 1948, a small botanical garden was set up. At the time of the communist occupation

it was devoted to the cultivation of plants of ornamental value, which total about 300 species.

VIII. THE INSTITUTE OF HISTORICAL STUDIES AND ARCHAEOLOGY

The historical and archaeological studies delve into the literary materials in ancient Chinese history; the classification of archaeological materials excavated at Paoki, Shensi; and the collection of relics belonging to the inhabitants in the border regions of China.

The Shensi provisional government started an excavation in 1934 of Towkитай, a ruined site in Paoki. It collected much material of historical significance which threw light in the kind of people who dwelled there in the Stone Age. It also explored the relics of ancient city walls and of more than 100 tombs. A general report on the archaeological excavation was published by the institute in collaboration with the committee in 1938 under the title *Studies of Li-Tripods Excavated at Towkитай*.

Among the literary studies of ancient Chinese history, the most important is a book of seven chapters entitled *The Legendary Period in Chinese Ancient History* by Hsu Ping-chang. Another outstanding contribution is the *Collected Papers of Historical Studies*.

The institute has in its library 70,000 volumes of rare books. There also is a room for the exhibition of archaeological specimens.

THE NATIONAL GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF CHINA

The National Geological Survey of China was established in Peiping in October, 1916. It was moved to Nanking in 1935. During the war years, it carried on first in Changsha (1937-38), then in Chungking, and Peipei (1938-46). After V-J Day, it was moved back to Nanking.

The survey functioned smoothly under Dr. V. K. Ting (1916-26); Dr. Wong Wen-hao (1926-37); Dr. T. K. Huang (1937-40); and Dr. T. H. Yin, acting (1940-42). The present director is Dr. C. Y. Lee, under whose leadership there are over 30 senior geologists working in its various divisions.

The survey has a library of more than 80,000 volumes of scientific journals and over 20,000 books on geology and related sciences and some 100,000 maps. It also is equipped with up-to-date scientific instruments for investigation, map-drawing and computation, and photography.

A majority of the specimens now on hand were collected on field trips, some by exchange and very few by purchase.

In spite of financial difficulties, the survey still issues several publications and periodicals among which are: *Geological Bulletin*; *Geological Memoirs, Series A, B, C*; *Soil Bulletin*; *Special Soil Publications*; *Soil Quarterly*; *Geographical Memoirs*; *Cartographic Records*; *Bibliography of Chinese Geology*; and *Bulletin of the Geological Society of China*.

It maintains three branches, one in Peiping, another in Lanchow, and the third in the northeast.

Following is a resume of the work conducted by its various divisions during the year 1947-48:

I. GEOLOGIC DIVISION

Work is concentrated on field investigations and map compilation. Newly revised geographical maps in 14 sheets on a scale of one to one million have been completed and will be published. A geological wall map on the scale of one to three million covering the whole territory of China will be off the press soon. Geologists have made on the spot studies of Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei provinces.

II. PALAEOONTOLOGICAL RESEARCH LABORATORY

Work of this division centered on:

(1) **Vertebrate Fauna**—Special emphasis is laid on the study of the *Lufengosaurus huenei Young Fauna*, its results being reported and published in the *Palaentologia Sinica, Series C*. Members have been sent out to collect fossils in Kansu and Chinghai provinces.

(2) **Invertebrate Fauna**—Results of this second phase of study are published in the *Palaentologia Sinica, Series B*. At present, members are studying the Silurian Stratigraphy, Triassic formation, Trilobites and Brachiopods fossils.

(3) **Plant Fauna**—Its study of plant remains is published in the *Palaentologia Sinica, Series A*.

III. RESEARCH LABORATORY OF CENOZOIC GEOLOGY

The research laboratory was established in 1919 with funds furnished by the Rockefeller Foundation through the China Medical Board. Its outstanding achievement was the discovery of the *Sinanthropus Pekinensis* or "Peking Man," which greatly stimulated the study

of human evolution. At present, it is exploring the Choukoutien ruins, and investigating and excavating ancient human, porcelain and stone traces in Kansu.

IV. MINERALOGICAL AND PETROLOGICAL LABORATORY

Its study of the minerals and rocks is published in the *Geological Memoirs* and the *Bulletin of the Geological Society of China*. More than 100 papers on the subject have been published.

V. RESEARCH LABORATORY OF ECONOMIC GEOLOGY

The laboratory's study of minerals of economical value is contained in its *Geological Bulletin* and *Geological Memoirs*, and in many other publications such as the *Mineral Resources of China*, the *Iron Ore and Iron Industry in China*, the *Geology of Iron Deposits of the Lower Yangtze*, *Geology and Tungsten Deposits of Southern Kiangsi* and the *Salt Deposits of Szechwan*. For mining statistics, *A General Statement of Mining Industry* was published in 1945. During the war, this division was responsible for the discoveries of rock-phosphate and bauxite in Yunnan and oil fields in Kansu. It is conducting explorations in Kwangsi, Hunan and Kiangsi provinces and compiling a minerals distribution map of China.

VI. RESEARCH LABORATORY OF ENGINEERING GEOLOGY

The main emphasis is on the geology of applied engineering. Among its completed works the most prominent are: *Geological Reconnaissance Survey of Railway Line from Chungking to Kwangchowwan*; *Geological Reconnaissance Along the Projected Railway Line from Nanking to Canton*; *Geological Survey of the Water Power of Hukou, Shansi*; *Geological Survey of the Dam-base of Tainingho, Liaoning*; and *Geological Survey of the Yangtze Gorge Dam Engineering Project*.

It also attacks problems of underground water sources, and engineering water power. The underground water of the Nanking and north Anhwei areas, the water power for electro-engineering of Wongkiang, Kwangtung, and the engineering of the lower Chientang river in Chekiang are being studied and investigated.

VII. GEOPHYSICAL LABORATORY

The recording of earthquake and mineral prospecting are chief pursuits of

study. Under the leadership of H. K. Lin and the China Foundation, a seismological station was erected in the Western Hills, Peiping, in 1930. Equipment such as the Wiechert seismographs, radio receiver and astronomical clocks were installed. Formal work began in September, 1930, and earthquakes all over the world have since been recorded and reported. During the war, the division was the only earthquake-recording institution in free China. After its return to Nanking, it carried on the same work without interruption. As to mineral prospecting, its accomplishments in the Shuikoushan (Hunan), Kikiang (Szechwan) and Shuicheng (Kweichow) areas are well known.

VIII. SOILS LABORATORY

One of the important contributions of this division is the completion of its one to three million scale soil map of China. Its investigations cover Hunan, Chekiang, Kiangsu, Kiangsi, Fukien, Kwangtung and Taiwan provinces.

IX. CHEMICAL LABORATORY

The division was formerly known as the Fuel Laboratory, established with grants from the Sohtsu G. King endowment fund and the China Foundation. It has made exhaustive coal and oil analysis studies, and completed many tests for industrial application of fuels. During the war, its members were assigned to the Kansu Petroleum Corporation and the Chungking Fuel Oil Works.

X. CARTOGRAPHIC DIVISION

Compiles and prepares all kinds of geological maps.

XI. MUSEUM

The museum contains the following rooms: (1) Archaeology, (2) Choukuotien, (3) Pre-Tertiary Vertebrates, (4) Cenozoic Stratigraphy and Palaeontology, (5) Mineralogy, (6) Soils, (7) Petrography, (8) Dynamical Geology, (9) Palaeontology, and (10) Stratigraphy. A special room is set aside for the custody of the complete skeleton of *Lufengosaurus huenei Young Fauna*.

Though seriously handicapped by the ravages of war, especially in its loss of the "Peking Man," the museum still possesses over 20,000 specimens of Chinese origin.

THE CHINA INSTITUTE OF GEOGRAPHY

The China Institute of Geography was established in Peipei, Szechwan, in Aug-

ust, 1940, by the Board of Trustees for the Sino-British Educational and Cultural Endowment Fund. Its objective is to make a systematic study and investigation of the regional geography of China and its geographical problems. After its return to Nanking, it became a joint enterprise of the Ministry of Education and the said Board of Trustees.

The institute now maintains three sections: (1) Regional geographic research, (2) exploration, and (3) cartography.

Dr. Lin Chao is its director. It is staffed by 22 members, including 14 research fellows, two cartographers, and a librarian.

When in Peipei, the institute had in its library about 5,000 books and periodicals in Chinese and Western languages. At present, there are over 100,000 books and periodicals in addition to 17,090 maps. It has carried on its functions mostly with essential instruments borrowed from other institutions.

The following is a brief summary of the work it has done since August, 1947.

1. FIELD RESEARCH

Prior to its removal to Nanking, in cooperation with the Institute of Economic Research of the National Resources Commission, it sent a field team to study the Yangtze Gorges area preliminary to the YVA (Yangtze Valley Authority) project. This preliminary survey was completed by January, 1947.

After its removal to Nanking, it has conducted work on the Yangtze Delta, including 32 *hsien* in Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei provinces. Several excursions were made to such *hsien* as Kiangning, Chenkiang, Kiangtu, Tanyang, Chintan and Chuyung in September and October, 1947.

2. COMPILATIONS

Because of financial difficulties, compilation work constitutes a higher percentage of the institute's activities than field research. These studies have already been started:

(1) Regional Geography of Szechwan. The work, to be completed in two years, uses such background material as the *Economic Atlas of Szechwan*, published by the institute in Peipei.

(2) Geography of Northwest China. The various reports analyzing the results of the several expeditions conducted by the institute, either alone or jointly with others, to the northwest provinces of Sinkiang, Chinghai, Shansi and Kansu will be the basis for a comprehensive

regional geography of Northwest China. The section on Sinkiang has been started.

(3) Hydrography of the Han River, a tributary of the Yangtze. The important role of the Han River on the Hydrography of the Yangtze is the subject of this study.

(4) Report on the Yangtze Gorges Region. A comprehensive field report on the gorges district has already been completed by the Institute of Economic Research of the National Resources Commission. Its geographical phases are being covered by the members of the institute who participated in the survey.

(5) Geography of Chaochow, Kwangtung. In pursuing their plan to complete a new chorography of Chaochow, the people in charge have assigned to this institute the chapters on geomorphology, hydrography and climate. This coincides with the institute's long proposed plan to study the regional geography of the Han Valley in Northeastern Kwangtung.

(6) The Quarterly of "Geography." The institute has thus far published five volumes of its quarterly, "Geography."

3. OTHER ACTIVITIES

At the request of the West China Museum of Science in 1947, the institute sent a research fellow and a cartographer to help arrange a geographical room in the museum. The work was completed in three months.

A bi-weekly discussion on geographical problems has been held regularly in this institute since October, 1947. Scholars, either from this institute, the Institute of Economic Research of the National Resources Commission, or from other institutions have been invited to conduct the discussions.

To augment its library, the institute has been collecting materials from the following:

1. Exchange of periodicals with other geographical institutions, both in the country and abroad;

2. Exchange of maps with foreign map agencies;

3. Exchange of publications with other publishers in the country.

THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR COMPILATION AND TRANSLATION

The National Institute for Compilation and Translation, founded in 1932, is under the Ministry of Education. Before the war it had a staff of about 80, but the number has increased within the last few years to over 200. Its library comprises

some 60,000 volumes, including 4,000 volumes in foreign languages.

The first job of the organization is to compile a scientific nomenclature, reference books, textbooks for schools and colleges, dictionaries and encyclopedias, and popular literature. Its second function is to translate Western classics and textbooks into Chinese, and Chinese classics into English.

The following is a summary of its work during the 1947-48 period:

A. COMPILATION

I. Nomenclature—Heretofore, China did little to standardize scientific terms so essential to research. To meet this need, the institute has been compiling a series of scientific terms. The process of standardization involves the laborious collection of foreign terms and their existing Chinese equivalents, the selection of appropriate translations, the frequent circulation of drafts to experts, and the final standardization by a conference of experts. Up to the end of 1948, 35 classifications of terms have been standardized, including those dealing with mathematics, physics, astronomy, meteorology, geology, chemistry with an index on chemical compounds, chemical apparatus and equipment, chemical engineering, mineralogy, comparative anatomy, human anatomy, bacteriology and immunology, embryology, pharmacology, psychology, psychopathology, pathology, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, sociology, economics, education, statistics. Thirty collections have been compiled for studies in plant physiology, plant pathology, plant histology, civil engineering, human geography, physical geography, philosophy, political science, international relations, government and administration, law, finance, international trade, accounting. Forty-one collections are being compiled for work in general physiology, general zoology, entomology, clinic, hygiene, forestry, history, linguistics. Altogether, about 300,000 terms have been compiled.

II. Collection of reference books—(a) Compilation of source materials for the study of Chinese literature.—The chief anthologies of Chinese literature compiled by the institute include the complete poems of the Sung dynasty in 20 volumes, already published, and the complete plays of the Yuan dynasty. Other projects either underway or completed are: a short history of Chinese drama; a comprehensive history of Chinese literary criticism from the early periods down to the Sung dynasty; a handbook for the study of Tang dynasty novels; an index

of Sung dynasty prose; biographies and other source books.

(b) Compilation of source books for the study of political, economic and social history—So far source books of the economic history of the Ch'in, Han, Wei, Tsin, Northern and Southern dynasties, Sui, Tang, Sung, Yuan and Ming dynasties have been prepared. The source book of each dynasty is divided into 15 chapters dealing with economic geography, communications, land, population, labor, agriculture, industry, commerce, monetary system, capital, price of commodities, economic changes, economic policies, social policies and finance.

(c) Making of Chinese historical maps—The institute is making a set of historical maps to illustrate the political boundary, population, races, and communications of each dynasty, with commentaries.

(d) Compilation of Chinese philosophical books—Ancient Chinese philosophical texts are being re-edited and commentaries are being added. So far texts and old commentaries of the *Lun Yu* (Analects), *Meng Tze*, *Shih Ching* (Book of Poems), *Yi Li*, *Chou Li*, and *Erh Ya* have been completed.

(e) Compilation of Chinese historical books—Over 100 short research papers on ancient Asiatic history have been completed, and will be published in two volumes as *Studies in Ancient Asiatic History*. Source materials dealing with the early history of the Ouigours, the Comans and the Burmese are also being compiled.

III. Compilation of textbooks for schools and colleges—The institute compiles textbooks for schools and colleges. A hundred textbooks have already been published, 57 textbooks are being printed, and 298 textbooks are in preparation. Apart from these textbooks, the institute has also undertaken the compilation of certain supplementary teaching materials, such as instructions on gliding, broadcasting, industrialization and vocational guidance.

IV. Compilation of dictionaries and encyclopedias—The institute is compiling a Chinese Encyclopedia of Education. The *Chinese Educationists' Year Book, Third Edition*, has been completed. Two kinds of dictionaries are under preparation, those for advanced studies and for schools. Of the former group, those containing astronomical, psychological and sociological terms are in process of compilation. Dictionaries for the use of middle school students are being printed. Their subject matter includes the Chinese language,

civics, history, geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and mineralogy. So far the dictionaries on mathematics, physics, chemistry and education have been completed.

V. Compilation of popular literature—This work aims at the collection and revision of folk plays, and the compilation of mass education pamphlets. The dramas of Peiping, Hupeh, Szechwan, Shensi, Hunan and other provinces, together with stage properties are being collected for posterity. The revised plays comprise over 130 Peiping dramas and 30 Hupeh dramas. A synopsis has been made of more than 500 Hupeh, Szechwan and Peiping plays, and their ancient tunes and theatrical masks have been studied. Collected thus far are 50 wartime, 500 mass education and more than 5,300 popular pamphlets.

B. TRANSLATION

I. Translation of Western works into Chinese—Western Classics already translated include Plato's *Five Dialogues* and *Republic*, Aristotle's *Poetics*, Ten Plays of Shakespeare (translation of the complete works is anticipated), Moliere's Plays, Mommsen's *History of Rome*, Kant's *Kritik der Urtheilskraft*, Ibsen's Plays, Thackeray's Novels, Darwin's *Origin of the Species*. On the translation list are 150 books.

Reference and textbooks already translated include Hirth's *China and the Roman Orient*, Bretschneider's *Medieval Researches from Eastern Asiatic Sources*, Hudson's *Europe and China*, Stebbing's *Introduction to Modern Logic*, Wood's *Physical Optics*, Bell's *Analytical Geometry*, Cohen's *Differential Equations*, Terman's *Wireless Engineering*, Haye's *Political and Social History of Europe*, Sidney Webb's *Soviet Communism: A New Civilisation*, Pigou's *Wartime Economy*, Thomson and Johnson's *Introduction to Medieval Europe*; Haig and Dodwell's *Shorter Cambridge History of India*, Saintsbury's *History of English Literature* and various sinological works by Japanese scholars.

II. Translation of Chinese Works into English—The *Tze Chih T'ung Chien* ("Mirror of Governance"), a summary of Chinese chronicles from the age of the Warring States to the end of the Tang dynasty in 294 volumes, compiled in the Sung dynasty by Ssuma Kuang, is now being translated into English. The sections on the Warring States, the Ch'in dynasty, the early Han dynasty and the Sui dynasty have been completed.

CHAPTER 32

INTERNATIONAL CULTURAL COOPERATION

As the UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) regarded China as one of the pioneering nations in the work of fundamental education, its first Regional Study Conference on Fundamental Education was held in China on September 3-12, 1947. Representatives of 15 Asiatic nations attended and the Chinese delegate was elected chairman of the conference. Three sections,—administrative, technical, and content—were assigned to take charge of the actual proceedings of the conference. A working plan for the promotion of fundamental education in China was discussed and passed.

As a liaison center between China and UNESCO, the Chinese National Commission for UNESCO was established in Nanking on August 28, 1947, to strengthen the cultural cooperation between China and other UNESCO member nations, and to make concrete and constructive suggestions to UNESCO for consideration and discussion.

In spite of Chinese internal strife, international cultural cooperation was maintained in 1947. Chien Ling-chao, research fellow of the National Academy of Peiping, went to the United States in June to attend the American Engineering Education Conference. Chung Tao-tsan, supervisor of the Ministry of Education, and Hu Tien-shih, director of the China International Library in Geneva, attended the Tenth International Public Education Conference in Geneva. The British Chemistry Conference and the International Chemistry Conference, held in London, were attended by Professors Chuan Chang-tai and Chu Ju-hua. The Seventh International Physiology Conference held in Oxford, England, was attended by Hsu Yen-feng, member of the Institute of Medicine of the Academia Sinica. Hu Tien-shih was sent to Switzerland to attend the 32nd Esperanto Conference and Pei Shih-chang, National Chekiang University professor, was sent to Denmark to attend the International Biological Sci-

ence Conference. The UNESCO Summer Institute held in Paris was attended by (Miss) Ling Shu-hua, Tang Shih-fang, Sung Ta-lo, Hu Chi-tsu and Tai Cheng-hua. In August, the International Broadcasting Experts Conference sponsored by UNESCO was held in Paris and Feng Chien, director of the Chinese International Broadcasting Station, represented China.

Reciprocating cultural cooperation with other nations, the Ministry of Education has since 1945 established Chinese Culture scholarships in Oxford, Cambridge and London universities in England; Chicago, Harvard, Columbia, Yale, Michigan, California, Washington, Stanford, Southern California universities and Miami Women's College in the United States; Calcutta and the International universities in India. The scholarships carry US\$1,500 each annually. Beginning 1948, the Ministry of Education planned to establish similar scholarships in universities in France, Iran, Canada, Peru, Mexico, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland and Australia.

SINO - AMERICAN COOPERATION

THE CHINA FOUNDATION

The China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture owes its origin to the decision of the United States Government to remit the second portion of the Boxer Indemnity payments for educational and cultural progress in China. In September, 1924, the Chinese government appointed ten Chinese and five Americans as members of the Board of Trustees for the administration of the fund thus made available.

The function of the foundation is twofold: to administer the fund, and to promote educational and cultural activities according to the principles stipulated in the original agreement.

With regard to the first function, the foundation, besides administering its own endowment fund, is also entrusted with the custody and management of several endowment funds, including the National Tsing Hua University endowment fund, the Fan Memorial Institute of Biology endowment fund, the Mrs. Fan Memorial Biological Fellowship fund, the Chinese Social and Political Science Association Library endowment fund, and the V. K. Ting Memorial fund.

With regard to its second function, besides its own enterprises including the National Library of Peiping (in cooperation with the Ministry of Education), the Fan Memorial Institute of Biology, the Soil Survey (entrusted to the National Geological Survey), the Committee on Editing and Translation, the Science Teaching and Research Professorships and the Scientific Research Fellowships in China and abroad, the foundation subsidizes each year a number of qualified educational and cultural institutions.

Since the suspension of the Boxer Indemnity payments in 1939, the China Foundation, being deprived of its regular income, has had to depend upon bank loans to maintain its activities. Its work in China is supervised by an executive committee with Dr. Monlin Chiang as chairman; Dr. Wong Wen-hao and Dr. J. Leighton Stuart, vice-chairmen; Dr. Y. T. Tsur, honorary secretary; Donald M. Brodie, Li Ming, joint treasurers; J. T. S. Reed (Charles F. Thomas acting) and L. T. Yip, assistant treasurers; Dr. Sun Fo and Dr. T. F. Tsiang, members of the Executive Committee; and H. C. Zen, director of the Foundation.

A report of its activities up to the end of 1947 under the three main headings of direct enterprises, joint enterprises, and subsidized institutions follows:

1. DIRECT ENTERPRISES

The China Foundation maintained two direct enterprises during 1946-47, viz., research professorships and research fellowships.

1. Research Professorships—There were established in 1946-47 three such professorships, with H. H. Hu occupying the chair in botany, C. Ping in zoology and Li Chi in archaeology.

2. Research Fellowships—Since the end of the war, the foundation has offered two types of fellowships—fellowships in China and fellowships in the United States. During the 1946-47 period, research fellowships were granted to 22

persons in China and one in the U. S. The fellowships and research grants in China included six in chemistry, five in agriculture, two each in biochemistry and physics, and one each in biology, physiology, medicine, meteorology, botany, and horticulture. The fellowship in the U. S. during the period was granted to L. C. Feng for research in soil conservation.

For the first half of the 1947-48 period, research fellowships were suspended by action of the Board of Trustees because of the ineffectiveness of the stipendiary grants for this type of award. However, the number of fellowships in the U. S. was increased to five, the fields of study as specified by the Executive Committee being soil conservation, chemical fertilizers, plastics, electronics and radiology.

II. JOINT ENTERPRISES

The China Foundation maintained in 1947 only one joint enterprise, namely, the Fan Memorial Institute of Biology.

The institute, founded in 1928, depends solely on the foundation for current support. Through the joint effort of the foundation and other agencies, a temporary working fund of over CNC\$200-million was raised in 1947.

III. SUBSIDIES TO INSTITUTES

The foundation subsidized nine institutions in 1946-47, namely, the National Library of Peiping, the Chinese Geological Society, the Sino-American Cultural Service, the Science Society of China, Society for Research in Chinese Architecture, the Institute of Social Science, the Golden Sea Research Institute of Chemical Industry, the National Yunnan University, and the Boone Library School. The table on page 673 gives particulars of these grants with a short sketch on the activities of each institution.

THE UNITED STATES EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION IN CHINA

The United States Educational Foundation in China was established as a result of an executive agreement signed by China and the United States on November 10, 1947. The foundation is one of 23 similar organizations in 23 different countries which may be organized to implement the Fulbright Act (Public Law 584, U. S. 79th Congress, approved by President Truman on August 1, 1946), which authorizes the United States to use a part of the foreign currency and credit derived from the sales abroad of surplus

GRANT-RECEIVING INSTITUTIONS IN 1946-47

Institution	Amount of Grant	Purpose	Remarks
National Library of Peiping	US \$3,000 300 special microfilms.	Purchase of books and journals in Western languages.	Two-thirds of grant spent for books, mostly current American, publications and books in Russian; one-third for subscription to journals. Films of scientific articles made at Iowa State College and distributed by air to interested institutions of higher learning or research in China.
Chinese Geological Society	CNC \$4,000,000	Printing.	Four numbers each of its <i>Bulletin</i> and the <i>Geological Review</i> published in 1947.
Sino-American Cultural Service	CNC \$500,000	Maintenance.	Microfilm service suspended; important project during year included establishment of scholarships for American servicemen for studies of Chinese culture in U. S. and in China.
Science Society of China and its Biology Laboratory	CNC \$1,400,000	Reconversion, Printing, etc.	Publication of <i>Science</i> and <i>Illustrated Scientific Monthly</i> continued; Laboratory resumed work in Shanghai.
Institute of Social Science, Academia Sinica	CNC \$1,000,000	Research expenses.	Work resumed in Nanking.
Society for Research in Chinese Architecture	CNC \$6,000,000	Maintenance.	Half of grant spent for printing and the remainder for one architectural investigation in Peiping and for the purchase of reference books.
Golden Sea Research Institute of Chemical Industry	CNC \$600,000	Maintenance.	Located in Szechwan.
National Yunnan University	CNC \$1,000,000	Equipment.	Grant of CNC\$1-million was for 1946 and 1947 but paid in 1946 to wind up its assistance to Dep't of Mining and Metallurgy begun in 1937.
Boone Library School	CNC \$4,000,000	Maintenance.	School moved back to Wu-chang; instructions continued with an enrolment of 70 students.

Source: China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture

property for a program of educational exchange between the United States and the countries concerned.

Specifically, the Fulbright Act authorizes the financing of studies, research, and instruction of, or by, American citizens in schools and institutions of higher learning in foreign countries. It provides for similar activities for citizens of foreign countries in American-endowed schools and institutions of higher learning located outside the continental United States. Citizens of foreign countries may also be furnished transportation to the United States to study or teach in institutions of higher learning within the continental United States, provided they have support from other sources for their maintenance and travel in America.

Responsibility for the program as a whole rests with the U. S. Secretary of State. General supervision and coordination of the program are in the hands of the Board of Foreign Scholarships in Washington, D. C., which is composed of ten outstanding persons in private and public life, appointed by the President of the United States. The United States Educational Foundation in China, which was the first of the 23 Fulbright organizations to be established, is administered by a board of five directors: Ambassador John Leighton Stuart, chairman *ex-officio*; Dr. Robert Briggs Watson, acting regional director for the Far East, Rockefeller Foundation; George Greene, Jr., sub-manager, Shanghai branch, National City Bank of New York; John F. Melby, second secretary of the U. S. Embassy in China, acting executive director and treasurer; George L. Harris, chief cultural relations officer, USIS, secretary of the board. In addition to the American board, there is an Advisory Board composed of the following: Dr. Hu Shih, president, National Peking University; the late Dr. Sah Pen-tung, director-general, Academia Sinica; Dr. Wu Yi-fang, president, Ginling College for Women; Dr. Han Ching-lien, chief, department of cultural relations, Ministry of Education.

The foundation is to operate for a period of 20 years. The funds are the equivalent of US\$20-million to be expended at a rate of not more than one million dollars annually. All funds are in terms of Chinese currency.

For its first year of operation, the United States Educational Foundation in China planned the following program: on the invitation of Chinese universities and colleges, 20 American professors were to be brought to China to teach; and 20

scholarships were to be awarded to American graduate students for study in China. Also ten fellowships were to be given to advanced American research scholars for special studies in China; and 100 Chinese students were to be awarded scholarships to study in American-endowed schools in China. In addition 30 Chinese scholars were to be awarded grants for travel to and from the United States; and two special educational projects, one involving the establishment of two institutes concerned with the improvement of English-language teaching, and the other with the development of three schools of library science, were to be set up. The English-language institutes were to be at Yenching University in Peiping and at National Central University in Nanking. The library institutes were to be at National Peking University, the National College of Social Education at Soochow, and at Lingnan University, Canton. But due to the communist rebellion, many of these programs have not been carried out.

By the end of September, 1948, grants had been awarded to five visiting professors, seven research fellows, and 17 graduate students.

SINO-BRITISH COOPERATION

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES FOR THE SINO-BRITISH EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL ENDOWMENT FUND

Following the signing of the new treaty with Great Britain on January 11, 1943, the Board of Trustees for the Administration of the Indemnity Funds Remitted by the British Government petitioned the government to have its name changed in accordance with the spirit of the new treaty. In March, 1945, by order of the Executive Yuan, the name was officially changed to the Board of Trustees for the Sino-British Educational and Cultural Endowment Fund. The work and organization of the board remain the same.

The remission of the British portion of the Boxer Indemnity dates back to December, 1922, when the British government declared that all future payments of the indemnity to Great Britain would be returned to China to be used for purposes beneficial to both countries. From that time on, instalments paid by the Chinese government were deposited in the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, London. However, it was not until 1925 when the British Parliament passed the China Indemnity Act and appointed an advisory committee consisting of 11 members, three of whom were

Chinese, whose principal task was to study how the money might best be utilized.

The board of trustees for the administration of the British Indemnity Fund was formally set up in April, 1931. It is now under the direct administration of the Executive Yuan with five British and ten Chinese trustees, all appointed by the National Government. Dr. Chu Chia-hua is the chairman, and Sir Robert Calder-Marshall the vice-chairman. Among the trustees are Han Lih-wu, T. K. Tseng, Yeh Kung-cheh, Chen Chi-tsai, Dr. J. Heng Liu, Dr. Li Shu-hua, L. S. Li, Tseng Yang-fu, T. L. Soong, Gordon King, William Empson, (Miss) Lynda Grier, W. C. Cassels and P. M. Rexby (deceased).

According to regulations drawn up by the board governing the disposal of interest receipts for the benefit of educational and cultural enterprises, the funds are distributed among five classes. Class A is allotted 25 percent of the annual receipts for the establishment of the Central Library and the Central Museum and conservation of historical and cultural sites and antiques. Class B is allotted 25 percent as grants-in-aid for higher education and research organizations with special attention to the four faculties: agriculture, engineering, medicine, and pure sciences. Class C is allotted 15 percent for educational and cultural activities abroad, laying special emphasis on sending scholarship students to England. Class D is allotted one percent as prize for technical manuscripts and textbooks for primary, middle and vocational schools. Class E is allotted 24 percent for the establishment of model primary and middle schools, industrial and agricultural vocational schools, midwifery schools and rural schools, beginning with the border and other relatively backward provinces to extend gradually to other areas.

Under Class A more than ten grants were made for conservation of cultural and historical sites and antiques. Of the latter, the most important is the compilation and photo-engraving of Buddhist writings found at Tunhuang, Kansu. Next in importance is the projected construction of the Central Museum and the Central Library, for which \$1,500,000 each was granted for construction of buildings payable over several years. At the outset, the idea had been first to build the Central Museum and the Central Library on an imposing scale in Nanking, and then to build smaller museums and libraries in each of the provincial capitals and municipalities. The Chungking branch

of the Central Library was constructed with a small part of the grant for the construction of the Central Library.

Grants made to higher education and research organizations under Class B may be divided into those for construction, equipment and professorships. So far, most institutions of higher education, whether national, provincial, or private, have been subsidized by the board, as have also the more important of the research organizations.

The sending of students to England under Class C is considered one of the most important of the board's activities. The holding of annual scholarship examinations was inaugurated in the third year of the board's establishment. The object of this program is to train a number of specialists to help strengthen the faculties of institutions of higher learning. Up to the end of 1948, 195 students have been sent in nine groups to specialize principally in the fields of science, agriculture, engineering and medicine. On account of the Sino-Japanese War, the eighth annual scholarship examination was postponed till 1944. About 150 of them have already returned with excellent records of scholarship. Most of the returned students have joined the faculties of various universities in accordance with the board's expectation.

Under Class D concerning textbooks, prizes were offered for manuals for mass education, primary school singing and history, junior middle school history and geography.

Class E comprises a comparatively large number of enterprises. The greater portion of grants under this class was used for special education in the five provinces: Hunan, Hupeh, Anhwei, Kiangsi and Fukien, owing to the urgent need for such work existing in those areas. At the same time, however, other projects under this class, such as training obstetricians, vocational education of agriculture and industries, and primary school education in the interior, were by no means neglected. For industrial vocational education, the board cooperated with the Ministry of Education and the Nanking Municipal Government in establishing the Central Vocational School of Technology (located near Chungking), by assuming expenses for its equipment. As for agricultural vocational education, two schools in Hunan were given grants. For the training of obstetricians, the board made grants from year to year to midwifery schools in 14 provinces. Most of the subsidy for primary and middle

school education was given to the north-western provinces, especially Kansu.

During the war with Japan, despite the difficulties arising from diminished interest receipts, all activities of the board were maintained as far as possible and interest receipts disposed of in accordance with the standards set for apportionment, modified to suit the wartime requirements. These activities may be divided into the following categories:

First, the board contributed to conservation of cultural antiques in two ways: rescue of antiques and compilation and photoengraving of Han manuscripts. The Han manuscripts found in Chuyen and Buddhist engravings in Tunhuang are among the nation's most valued discoveries. The work of compilation and engraving of these antiques was completed in the winter of 1941.

Second, the board started a scheme for subsidizing individual scientific workers. The problem was executed in three ways: (1) professorships were established in the universities in the interior to provide living expenses for teachers from north China, and at the same time to assist these universities in strengthening their faculties; (2) subsidies were granted to unemployed scientific workers of various organizations; (3) junior research fellowships were placed in various universities and research organizations for the benefit of recent college graduates who were interested in scientific research. All three programs are being continued, involving about 30 professors, more than 100 scientific workers, and 70 junior research fellows.

Third, during the war the board inaugurated several enterprises. At Tsunyi, Kweichow, was established the China Institute of Sericulture; and at Peipei, near Chungking, the China Institute of Geography. As Szechwan and Kweichow provinces are in an important silk-producing area in the west, the board decided to utilize the time when the war was in progress to make a scientific study of sericulture in west China as a basis for its future development.

Other enterprises of the board included the Kansu Science Education Institute at Lanchow; Hohsi Middle School at Suchow, Kansu; Huangchuan Middle School at Sining, Chinghai; and Chienkiang Middle School at Anshun, Kweichow. In September, 1944, the China Institute of Fine Arts was established at Panchi near Chungking.

In 1939, the board sent out the Szechwan-Sikang Science Expedition which made a scientific survey of western and

northern parts of Szechwan and the eastern and central parts of Sikang. After the Sino-Japanese war, the Institute of Geography was moved to Nanking and a separate Institute of Oceanography was established in Amoy in affiliation with Amoy University. The Institutes of Sericulture and Fine Arts were also moved to Hanchow and Peiping respectively. All of them are now under the joint administration of the board and the Ministry of Education. Due to financial difficulties, the Kansu Science Education Institute and the three middle schools have been transferred to the Ministry of Education.

THE BRITISH COUNCIL

The British Council was founded in 1933 by the British Government for the purpose of making the life and thought of Britain more widely known abroad, and in 1940 it was incorporated by royal charter. As the council has no political bias, its management is under a committee representing all branches of thought, a minority only being members of the government. It aims at the promotion of international understanding, friendship and peace through the interchange of knowledge concerning progress and achievements in the arts and the sciences. It now serves 35 foreign countries as well as various dominions and colonies. In these countries it sets up centers with representatives, libraries and librarians, education officers and functional officers specializing in music, film production, drama and other arts.

The first effort to inaugurate activities in China was in 1942 when Professor E. R. Dodds and Dr. Joseph Needham were asked by the council to visit China. They put forward a plan for the permanent establishment of reciprocal relations in intellectual matters. With the help of enthusiastic Chinese scientists, the Sino-British Science Cooperation Office was set up in Chungking where, in spite of desperate conditions in China and England, a staff representing both countries was engaged. Between 1943 to 1946, members of this team travelled all over China discovering and advising on its technical needs, securing gifts of publications that would assist in the furtherance of scientific knowledge, arranging for the publication in the West of about 150 original technical papers by Chinese scholars, seizing every opportunity for disseminating scientific knowledge and cementing friendship between the two countries.

In 1945, Professor P. M. Rexby took charge of the work of the British Council

in China. For the first year, the headquarters of the organization was in Chungking. After V-J Day, the office of the council was moved to Nanking where, prior to his sudden death in February, 1947, Professor Rexby built up an organization of workers in the humanities that has capably staffed centers in Shanghai, Peiping and Nanking.

Professor Rexby systematized and extended to students of all subjects a program, which had been inaugurated by Dr. Needham, providing for the visit of Chinese scientists to England. The program is divided into three categories:

(1) visitors going generally for three months, travelling in England and seeing people of importance in the subjects of their study, (2) fellows going for one year and pursuing a definite research subject in a particular university or other place of higher education in collaboration with an expert in their subject, and (3) students who must be college graduates, above 25 years in age, who desire to attend some institution of higher education, generally for two years, to work for a degree.

The following shows the total number of these categories during 1945-47:

Year	Number of		
	Visitors	Fellows	Students
1945	15	5	68
1946	10	4	12
1947	7	4	19
Total	32	13	99

The subjects studied included history, art, literature, archaeology, education, economics, geography, mathematics, physics, biophysics, chemistry, biochemistry, geology, cytology, anthropology, agriculture, cotton genetics, marine zoology, electrical engineering, medicine, neuro-physiology, pathology, nursing, social affairs, library science, plastics, history of science, Eng-

lish, music, Oriental history, international law, local government, public health, social anthropology, zoology, surgery, pharmacology, ophthalmology, preventive medicine, human nutrition, organic chemistry, plant chemistry, agronomy, animal husbandry, metallurgy, meteorology, forestry, aviation, engineering (aeronautical, mechanical, civil, electrical, mining, hydraulic and textile), architecture and naval architecture.

The educational centers in which these studies were carried on included Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, Dublin, London, Durhan, Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, Bristol and Newcastle. The medical subjects were studied in various hospitals in London and several large cities. Several scholars worked for some period with large engineering firms for the purpose of getting practical experience.

The distribution of science publications to institutions in different parts of China has been continued, but more and more the policy of establishing council libraries is being pursued. The library in Nanking, before its occupation by the communists, contained about 5,000 English books on various scientific and literary subjects. A similar one in Peiping was also opened. The council shares with the British Information Service the task of supplying a library in Canton and plans were made for a regular library in Shanghai where there had already been a sizable collection of science books. Periodicals are distributed to more than 200 educational institutions in China.

Prior to the communist occupation of Shanghai in May, 1949, a committee was maintained in the city for the translation of British Council publications.

The British Council also brings professors and lecturers from England to hold posts subsidized from England in Chinese universities, colleges and schools

CHAPTER 33

THE PRESS

The modern press in China began after the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95. The revolutionaries published many newspapers to set forth their ideas, and after the revolution the guarantee of freedom of speech in the Provisional Constitution of 1912 gave impetus to the Chinese press. During the first few years of the Republic, there were more than 500 newspapers in various parts of the country. One-fifth of them, however, were published in Peking (now Peiping), then China's capital.

The Chinese press received its first severe blow in 1914, when Yuan Shih-kai, plotting to become emperor, clamped down upon Kuomintang newspapers and others unfavorable to his monarchical ambitions. Press regulations were enforced that year, subjecting all mail, telegrams and page proofs of newspapers to censorship. He also jailed several journalists.

Spoken Chinese, *Kuo-yu*, took the place of the classic written language and turned the press into a vehicle of popular education and information. By 1921, China had 550 dailies. In 1926, the number was increased to 628. Shortly before the outbreak of the war in 1937, there were over 1,000 dailies in China. In April, 1945, there were in Free China alone 948 dailies.

NEWSPAPERS

At the end of 1948, newspapers and news publications registered with the Ministry of Interior totalled 2,069. Of these, nearly three-fourths (1,372) were daily newspapers, while the remaining consisted of two-day, three-day and five-day journals, weeklies, semi-monthlies and monthlies.

These newspapers and news publications were located in 29 provinces and nine municipalities (Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Canton, Hankow, Chungking and Dairen), and included 62 published by the armed forces.

Of the 943 daily newspapers published in the 29 provinces, Hunan ranked first

with 112 papers and Kiangsu followed with 109 dailies. In the municipalities, Nanking had 69, Canton 66, and Shanghai 65 daily newspapers. There were 15 dailies published by and for the armed forces.

Approximately 13% or 261, of all the registered news publications come under the classification of weeklies.

Development in the war with the Communists has led to the closing and suspension of many of these newspapers while others have shifted their places of publication. No up-to-date statistics showing the number and distribution of newspapers are available.

Newspaper Chains. (a) Kuomintang Papers—The Kuomintang, the major political party in China, in 1948 published 19 daily newspapers in as many key cities. The papers were published under the auspices of the Central Board of Information of the Kuomintang. The *Chung Yang Jih Pao* (Central Daily News), which in 1948 had editions in ten cities (Nanking, Shanghai, Mukden, Changchun, Chungking, Kweiyang, Changsha, Foochow, Kweilin and Kunming), was the best known among Kuomintang newspapers. The *Peiping Chronicle* was the only daily published in English under the auspices of the Board of Information.

At the end of 1949, most of these papers had suspended publication. The *Central Daily News* of Nanking moved to Taipei, Taiwan, following the communist occupation of the national capital in April, 1949.

The provincial branches of the Kuomintang owned and operated 25 dailies in 1948. Party organs in many of the cities and towns also published small dailies and news weeklies.

(b) Chinese Army Paper—The *Sao Tang Pao* was first published in Hankow in 1938 as an organ of the Chinese Army. The paper moved to Chungking when the government set up China's wartime capital there. In 1944 the daily underwent a

reorganization and emerged as a publishing company which started to publish its Nanking edition after V-J Day the next year. With the Sino-Japanese war over, the newspaper changed its name to the *Peace Daily*. However, in the spring of 1949 the daily resumed the name of *Sao Tang Pao* and later moved its head office to Taipeh, Taiwan, where it has continued publication. At the end of 1949 it had suspended its editions formerly published in Nanking, Shanghai, Hankow and Chungking.

(c) *The Ta Kung Pao*.—*The Ta Kung Pao* (L'Impartial) was founded in Tientsin in 1902. A Shanghai edition began publication in 1935. During the war with Japan, the paper operated in Hankow for less than one year in 1937-38. The Chungking edition of the daily, started after Chungking became the wartime capital, was published throughout the war. The *Ta Kung Pao* later published a Kweilin edition and an evening paper in Chungking. The Hongkong edition, started in 1938, but suspended following Japanese occupation of the British colony in December, 1941, resumed publication in 1948. In 1948, the *Ta Kung Pao* Corporation, Ltd. published editions in Tientsin, Shanghai, Chungking and Hongkong.

(d) Catholic Newspapers.—The Catholic Church in China published the *Yi Shih Pao* (Social Welfare Daily) in Tientsin, Peiping, Shanghai and Nanking.

All these editions have suspended publication as a result of communist occupation of their cities. A Taipeh edition was planned but up to the end of 1949 the project had not materialized.

(e) Young China Party Papers.—The Young China party formerly published two daily newspapers—*The Chung Hua Shih Pao* in Shanghai, and the *Hsin Chung Kuo Jih Pao* in Chengtu. Both dailies stopped publication following communist occupation of the cities.

(f) *The World Daily*.—*The World Daily*, or *Shih Chieh Jih Pao*, had editions in Peiping, Chungking and Nanking as well as an evening edition in Peiping. The paper closed its offices when the three cities fell to the communists. Publication of a Taipeh edition has been planned. The group was affiliated with the *Li Pao* of Shanghai and the *Min Sheng Pao* (evening paper, now suspended) of Nanking.

(g) *The Sin Min Pao*.—In 1949 the *Sin Min Pao* published morning and evening editions in Chungking, a morning edition in Peiping, and an evening edition in Shanghai. Its morning and evening editions in Nanking were both banned and closed by the government in July, 1948, for spreading communist propaganda.

(h) Communist Newspapers.—The Chinese Communist party published the *Sin Hua Jih Pao* (New China Daily News), first in Hankow and later in Chungking, during the war against Japan. After World War II, the *Chieh Fang Jih Pao* (Liberation Daily), which was published in Yenan during the war, began to appear in areas under the control of the communists.

Newspapers in Taiwan.—Development of the vernacular press in Taiwan province gained new impetus during 1949. Established, large newspapers such as the *Central Daily News* and the *Sao Tang Pao*, both formerly of Nanking, began publication in Taipeh. At the end of October, 1949, there were 14 daily newspapers in Taipeh. They are:

	Publisher
<i>Central Daily News</i>	Ma Hsin-yeh
<i>Hsin Sheng Pao</i>	Hsieh Jan-chih
<i>Chung Hua Jih Pao</i>	Lu Kwan-chun
(morning edition)	
<i>Chung Hua Jih Pao</i>	Lu Kwan-chun
(evening edition)	
<i>Sao Tang Pao</i>	Tsao Hsien-kun
<i>Kung Lun Pao</i>	Li Wan-chu
<i>Chuan Min Jih Pao</i>	Lin Ting-li
<i>Chien Pao</i>	Su Tai-chieh
<i>Kung Yeh Hsin Pao</i>	Wang Yi-han
<i>Kuo Yu Jih Pao</i>	Hung Yen-chiu
<i>Hua Pao</i>	Chu Ting-yun
<i>Cheng Kung Jih Pao</i>	Chen Len
<i>Min Chu Pao</i>	Chow Chih-ming
<i>Tze Li Wan Pao</i>	Chow Chuang-po
(evening)	

In addition to the Taipeh paper, the *Kuo Sun Pao* (publisher, Tan Bin-hen) is published in Kaohsiung; and the *Chih Yu Jih Pao* (publisher, Huang Wu-cheng), *Chung Hua Ming Pao* (publisher, Cho Hwei), and the *Ho Ping Jih Pao* (publisher, Li Shang-ken) are published in Taichung.

NEWS AGENCIES

In 1948, news agencies registered with the Ministry of Interior numbered 943, including two operated by the armed forces. They were located in 22 provinces and eight municipalities. Distribution of the 941 agencies was as follows: Kiangsu 37, Chekiang 125, Fukien 40, Taiwan 14, Anhwei 40, Kiangsi 64, Hupeh 7, Hunan 47, Kwangtung 46, Kwangsi 2, Yunnan 3, Kweichow 3, Szechwan 80, Sikang 11, Shantung 23, Honan 47, Shensi 14, Kansu 6, Chahar 1, Suiyuan 4, Sinkiang 1, and Liaoning 11; Nanking 86, Shanghai 50, Peiping 23, Tientsin 21, Tsingtao 17, Canton 76, Hankow 31, and Chungking 11.

Most of the news agencies in China are small in scope and local in nature.

Central News Agency.—The only Chinese news agency comparable to big press associations in foreign countries is the Central News Agency.

Founded in Canton in 1924, the Central News Agency was organized by the Kuomintang for the dissemination of news of party activities to newspapers in various parts of the country. When Nanking became the capital of China in 1927, it was still a subsidiary organ of the Kuomintang Central Headquarters. It was not until 1931 when Hsiao Tung-tze took over its management that the agency began to expand along the lines of a modern journalistic enterprise.

It was detached from the Kuomintang headquarters. Correspondents were sent to key cities throughout the nation. Establishment of a nation-wide radio network made it possible to collect and disseminate news in metropolitan and inland publishing centers. For cities and towns in the interior not accessible to its radio network, news service was relayed by voicecast at dictation speed through the facilities of the Central Broadcasting Administration. Thus small newspapers in remote areas were able to copy such "dictation news" for publication. To many small papers this service provided their only source of national and international news.

Developments in the general situation in China during the past two years have hit the Central News Agency hard. Many of the domestic bureaus were closed or suspended. In the summer of 1949, its foreign service was greatly curtailed when lack of funds forced the closing of Central News bureaus in Australia, Batavia, Berlin, Buenos Aires, Canada, Geneva, Moscow and Paris. Later in the year the San Francisco office of the CNA was also closed. Of its foreign service, only the London, New York and Washington, D. C. bureaus remained in operation at the end of 1949.

PERIODICALS

At the end of 1948, 1,899 periodicals, mostly weekly and monthly magazines, were registered with the Ministry of Interior. Of these, 751 were located in 27 provinces and 1,089 were published in eight municipalities (Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Canton, Hankow and Chungking). The armed forces published 59 periodicals.

Weekly and monthly publications, numbering 412 and 981, respectively, together comprise some 73% of all the periodicals.

Of the remaining, two were published daily, two every other day, 15 once in three days, five at five-day intervals, 115 every ten days, 250 fortnightly, 20 bi-monthly, 92 quarterly, three semi-annually, and two annually.

NEWSPRINT

Most of the newsprint used in China is imported. During the World War II when newsprint imports were cut off, newspapers were generally printed on native-paper of various grades. In the postwar years, the government, owing to a shortage of foreign exchange, has restricted importation of newsprint and also placed the use of newsprint under a strict control. As a conservation measure, no newspaper is permitted to increase its size, the largest being eight pages for week-day editions.

China imported 530,377 quintals of newsprint in 1946 and 516,062 quintals in 1947. More than half of the imported newsprint was consumed in Nanking and Shanghai. Of the 1946 imports, 8,318 quintals were re-exported, the Chinese Maritime Customs reported.

Newsprint imports came from 24 countries, with Canada as the leading supplier. (China imported from Canada 181,748 quintals of newsprint in 1946 and 273,409 quintals in 1947.) The U.S.S.R. (Asiatic), Norway and the United States are the next largest sources. (1946—from U.S.S.R., 132,868 quintals; Norway, 95,399 quintals; and U.S.A., 40,088 quintals. 1947—from Norway, 86,399 quintals; U.S.S.R., 44,771 quintals; and U.S.A., 27,809 quintals.) The 1947 imports also included a total of 8,099 quintals of newsprint from Japan.

JOURNALISM EDUCATION

Journalism training as a part of the college curriculums in China is relatively new. In 1949, only seven Chinese universities and colleges maintained departments of journalism. They were the National Chengchi University (Nanking), National Fudan University (Shanghai), National China University (Shanghai), St. John's University (Shanghai), Yenching University (Peiping), Kwangtung Kuomin University (Canton), and the National College of Social Education (Soochow). In addition, the China School of Journalism in Shanghai offered a two-year course.

The Central Political Institute (renamed National Chengchi University in 1946) opened a Graduate School of Journalism in Chungking in 1943, in collaboration with the Ministry of Information

and the Graduate School of Journalism of Columbia University, New York, under the directorship of Dr. Hollington K. Tong, then Vice-Minister of Information. The school is now suspended.

The departments of journalism in the various universities offer a four-year course. Subjects such as introduction to journalism, reporting and news writing, feature writing, history of Chinese journalism, editorial writing, current events, advertising and publicity, and newspaper management are required studies.

OFFICIAL INFORMATION SERVICE

Official organizations providing information and press service in China include the Chinese Government Information Office and the Bureau of Civil Affairs and Information of the Ministry of National Defense.

The Chinese Government Information Office was established in April, 1947, with Dr. Hollington K. Tong as Director. As an organ directly under the Executive Yuan, it had three departments in charge of domestic and foreign information and research. At the end of 1949, the C.G.I.O. was located in Taipei and was operating on a much reduced scale.

The Bureau of Civil Affairs and Information of the Ministry of National Defense is a subsidiary organ in charge of political training and information work in the armed forces. It supplies to the press military news and information about the armed forces. Its director serves as the spokesman for the Ministry of National Defense.

Organizations maintained by foreign governments in 1949 included the United States Information Service, the Information Department of the British Embassy in China, the Press Bureau of the Soviet Embassy in China, and the French Information Service. Activities and services of the foreign information offices were largely suspended in 1949 following communist occupation of those cities in which they operated.

The United States Information Service was established in China in September, 1945, succeeding the U. S. Office of War Information, China Division, which functioned in China during World War II. In 1948 it maintained offices in Nanking, Shanghai, Canton, Hankow, Peiping, Tientsin, Taipei, Chungking and Tihwa. In December, 1949, the U.S.I.S. office in Taipei was the only one in full operation.

At the height of its operations, the U.S.I.S. in China distributed daily news bulletins to more than 700 newspapers

and periodicals and to some 3,000 individuals and organizations in China. A bimonthly newsletter reached 25,000 readers. The U.S.I.S. also maintained libraries and reading rooms and conducted exhibitions and motion picture shows.

The Information Department of the British Embassy in China was opened in Shanghai in October, 1945, with branches in Canton and Tientsin. It issued daily and weekly press releases in Chinese and in English, provided feature articles, photographs and publications for the press, conducted film and film-strip shows, and arranged radio broadcasts, including relays from the British Broadcasting Corporation. In conjunction with the British Council, the Information Department formerly also maintained a lending and reference library in Shanghai.

The Press Bureau of the U.S.S.R. Embassy in China began to function in July, 1941. It published a daily bulletin in English (*News and Views from the U.S.S.R.*) and a weekly bulletin in Chinese (*Hsin Wen Lei Pien*).

FOREIGN PRESS IN CHINA

Many important foreign newspapers, news agencies and magazines maintain bureaus or station correspondents in China. In September, 1948, there were 88 foreign correspondents and Chinese representatives of foreign press organizations in Shanghai, Nanking, Peiping, Tientsin and Tsingtao. The Associated Press of America, the United Press of America, Reuters, and the Tass News Agency issued and distributed news services in Chinese and English.

Foreign press organizations represented in China included: Associated Press of America, United Press of America, International News Service, Reuters, Agence Francaise Presse, Tass News Agency, North American Newspaper Alliance, Overseas News Agency, American Broadcasting Company, *New York Times*, *New York Herald Tribune*, *Scripps-Howard Newspapers*, *Chicago Daily News*, *London Times*, *Kemsley Newspapers*, *Financial Times* (London), *Time* and *Life* magazines, *Christian Science Monitor*, *London Daily Express*, *News of the Day* (M.G.M. Newsreel), *La Nationale Belge*, *Reader's Digest*, Acme Newspictures, Inc., *Cincinnati Times Star*, National Catholic News Service, Religious News Service, Women's National News Service, *Columbus* (Ohio) *Dispatch*, *U. S. News-World Report*, *China Mail* (Hongkong), and *Los Angeles Times*.

NEWSMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS

Press guilds are now found in most of the provinces and municipalities. One of their first functions after V-J Day was to elect delegates to the National Assembly and the Legislative Yuan, as China's electoral system is on both a territorial and an occupational basis.

The Chinese press was represented by 11 delegates in the National Assembly of 1946 and 14 delegates in the National Assembly of 1948.

In 1949, five of the members of the Legislative Yuan were representatives of the press. They were: Chen Po-sheng, editor-in-chief, Central News Agency; Cheng Tsang-po, publisher of *Sin Wan Pao*, Shanghai; Chen Hsun-yu, managing director of *Shun Pao*, Shanghai; Hu Chien-chung, publisher of *Southeast Daily*, Shanghai; and Huang Shao-ku, publisher of *Peace Daily*, Nanking.

The formation of a National Press Guild has been proposed. At present, however, the only national organization is the Chinese National Press Association, established in Chungking in 1941. Hsiao Tung-tzu, director of the Central News Agency, is president of the association.

There was a Foreign Correspondents Club in Shanghai. First formed in Chungking in 1943, the club aims at furthering the common interests of foreign correspondents in China. Members include both press representatives from foreign countries and Chinese representatives of accredited foreign press organizations.

PUBLICATION LAW

The existing Publications Law* was enacted on December 16, 1930, and was revised and promulgated on July, 8, 1937. It was again revised in July, 1947, by the Executive Yuan but up to October, 1948 it has not been passed by the Legislative Yuan.

Important proposed revisions are as follows:

* For the original text of the *Publications Law*, see CHINA HANDBOOK, 1943.

(1) Article 20 of the original law, "Handbills or slogans dealing with politics shall not be printed or distributed without the approval of the responsible district administration," is to be deleted.

(2) Article 21, "No publications shall carry any speeches or propaganda calculated to undermine the Kuomintang or violate the Three People's Principles, to overthrow the National Government and damage the interests of the Chinese Republic or to disturb public order," is to be amended to read: "No publication shall carry any speeches or propaganda calculated to overthrow the government and damage the interests of the Chinese Republic, to hinder friendly international relations or to damage public interests and disturb social order."

(3) Article 22, "No publication shall carry stories injurious to the reputation of the chief executive of the Chinese Republic or of any friendly powers," and Article 24, "No publication shall carry stories injurious to the reputation and credit of individual persons," are to be incorporated as new provisions.

(4) Article 8 of the revised draft, also an addition, reads as follows: "Aliens may apply, in accordance with the provisions of this law, for registration of publication issued in this country and observe all existing Chinese laws and regulations governing publications. But in case the alien's native country accords differential treatment, under its publications law, to Chinese nationals, that alien shall not enjoy the privileges provided by this law."

(5) Article 24 of the original law becomes Article 26 in the revised draft, which reads: "In time of war, emergency, or necessity under special circumstances, publications may be prohibited or restricted, in accordance with orders issued by the government, to carry items dealing with political, military or foreign affairs or district peace and order."

No revision was proposed here because the Government reserves such rights in time of emergency.

CHAPTER 34

PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICINE

HEALTH ADMINISTRATION

The history of China's organized public health service may be traced to 1902 when the Peiyang Sanitary Department was established. In 1911, the North Manchurian Plague Prevention Service was organized to combat epidemics in north Manchuria. Another pestilence in 1917 resulted in the establishment of the National Epidemic Prevention Bureau in Peiping.

Since its inauguration, the organization of the Peiyang Sanitary Department has undergone many changes with corresponding changes in its name and status. It has functioned alternately as a health ministry or administration directly under the Executive Yuan or under the Ministry of Interior as it does today. The current director-general of the National Health Administration is Dr. Chu Chang-keng.

The administration consists of six departments:

1. *Department of Medical Administration*, which supervises medical organizations, controls the training and registration of medical personnel, and plans for medical services;

2. *Department of Epidemic Prevention*, which deals with the prevention and control of epidemic and endemic diseases, quarantine service, environmental sanitation and sanitary engineering projects;

3. *Department of Health Services*, which supervises school and industrial hygiene, maternity and child welfare, physical examination, health propaganda, compilation of vital statistics, nutrition and public health;

4. *Department of Local Health*, which deals with local and frontier health services, supervises local health organizations, finances local health projects, and coordinates the work between municipal and provincial health organizations and the administration.

5. *Department of Medicinal Control*, which controls the manufacture of drugs, narcotics, biological products and medical

instruments, analyses patent medicines, revises the *Chinese Pharmacopoeia*, and regulates the sale of foods and beverages;

6. *Department of General Affairs*, which is in charge of documents, correspondence, publications, transportation, cash payments and receipts and credentials.

Due to financial stringency, the functions of the Department of Local Health and Department of Medicinal Control are being performed, respectively, by the Department of Medical Administration and Department of Health Services. Besides these departments, the administration has an accounting section, an office of personnel, and a statistician's office. To exercise control over herbal medical practitioners, it has also organized a Herbal Medical Practitioners Committee.

SUBSIDIARY ORGANIZATIONS

The administration has the following subsidiary organizations:

The *National Health Institute*, which conducts research and field demonstration on various problems relating to public health. It is divided into two groups: the Epidemiological Research Institute and the Nutrition Research Institute, and eight departments (public health, experimental medicine, chemistry and materia medica, sanitary engineering, maternity and child health, health education, nursing, and health statistics) in addition to two demonstration centers, one in Nanking and the other in Kiangning, near Nanking. Two branch institutes, one in Peiping and the other in Mukden, were established after V-J Day, while the former Northwest Health Institute was reorganized into the Northwest Branch. Those branches were responsible for conducting research on technical problems of public health in north China, and the northeast and the northwest prior to the communist occupation of these regions;

Central Hospitals in Nanking, Chungking, Canton, Lanchow, Tientsin and

Tihwa; the *Nanking Hospital for the Insane*, and the *Chungking Herbal Medical Hospital* which specializes in the treatment of sickness by herbs;

The *Anti-Epidemic Medical Corps* in Nanking, the *Tuberculosis Centers* at Peiping, Nanking, Shanghai, and Chungking, the *Southeastern Anti-Plague Medical Unit* in Foochow, and the *Kala-azar Medical Unit* in Nanking;

The *National Epidemic-Prevention Experimentation Bureau* in Peiping and the *National Bio-chemical Pharmaceutical Manufacturing Bureau* in Shanghai, which make biological products and drugs;

The *First Pharmaceutical Manufacturing Factory*, the *Medical Supply Bureau*, and the *Narcotics Bureau* in Nanking, which supervise the production, supply and control of drugs, and the *Bureau of Medicine and Food Testing* in Nanking;

Quarantine Stations at Shanghai, Tientsin, Tangku, Chinwangtao, Tsingtao, Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, Canton and Hoikow, and *Yangtze River Quarantine Station* at Hankow; and

Health Centers in the frontier provinces at Sichang, Huili, Ulanhab League, Ikhchao League, and Alashan Banner.

LOCAL HEALTH ADMINISTRATIONS

(a) *Provincial Health Administration.*—The provincial health department, which is directed by the provincial government, is in charge of all health services in the province. It maintains a provincial hospital, a health institute, a health personnel training institute, a factory to manufacture medical supplies, and a sanitation unit. It also directs and supervises all *hsien* health centers in the province, and undertakes all public health work not handled by *hsien* or municipal health organs.

In June, 1934, the first provincial health department was organized in Kiangsi, which marked the beginning of the establishment of local health administrations. The *Regulations Governing the Organization of Provincial Health Department* was promulgated in June, 1940. Up to June, 1948, health departments were functioning in the following 26 provinces: Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Yunnan, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechwan, Sikang, Fukien, Taiwan, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Kweichow, Hopei, Shantung, Honan, Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, Jehol, Chahar, Suiyuan, Ningsia, and Sinkiang. Health administrative work in the other provinces was handled by their civil affairs department. Functioning under the provincial health administrations in 1947 were the following 215 units: 110 provincial hospitals (7,398

beds); 13 maternity and child welfare centers (186 beds); 4 tuberculosis centers (275 beds); 6 epidemic prevention hospitals (216 beds); 2 insanity hospitals (115 beds); 3 leprosy hospitals (994 beds); 3 provincial health centers; 12 health institutes; 1 endemic diseases prevention center; 37 anti-epidemic medical corps, 1 sanitary unit; 4 highway health stations; 5 medical supply depots; 3 medicine supply bureaus; 6 health education committees, and 5 public health personnel training institutes.

Medical personnel employed by the provincial health administrations consisted of 1,483 doctors; 114 pharmacists; 1,983 nurses; 304 midwives; 169 medical laboratory technicians; 241 dispensers; 36 sanitation inspectors; 647 nurses; and 1,669 other technicians.

(b) *Municipal Health Administration.*—In a municipality, public health work is done by a special bureau. Where there is no such bureau, the work is either entrusted to the police bureau or is undertaken directly by the municipal government. Generally, each municipal public health bureau has under it a municipal hospital, a maternity and child welfare center, an isolation hospital, and several sanitation units.

Up to June, 1948, public health bureaus had been established in ten special municipalities (Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Hankow, Tsingtao, Chungking, Canton, Mukden, Sian) and 33 ordinary municipalities (Hangchow, Swatow, Tsingkiang, Kweiyang, Taiyuan, Changchun, Changsha, Hengyang, Taipeh, Kaohsiung, Taichung, Tainan, Keelung, Hsinchu, Pingtung, Hsuehchow, Nanchang, Wuchang, Chengtu, Sinhua, Tzekung, Tangshan, Shihmen, Tsinan, Lanchow, Chinchow, Foochow, Amoy, Chiayi, Kweilin, Kunming, Sining, and Kirin).

The following units were operating under the municipal public health bureaus in 1947: 52 municipal hospitals (4,228 beds); 13 maternity and child welfare centers (309 beds); 1 pediatric hospital (100 beds); 3 dental hospitals; 19 isolation hospitals (1,946 beds); 2 tuberculosis centers (180 beds); 1 leprosy hospital (10 beds); 3 anti-narcotic hospitals (220 beds); 91 health service centers; 7 health institutes; 5 venereal disease centers; 2 medical supply depots; 1 medicine supply bureau; 5 health education committees; 2 anti-epidemic medical corps; 35 sanitary units, and 2 insanity hospitals (939 beds).

Medical personnel working under the public health bureaus in 1947 consisted of 1,132 doctors; 74 pharmacists; 1,584 nurses; 341 midwives; 120 medical labora-

tory technicians; 220 dispensers; 123 sanitary inspectors; 469 assistant nurses, and 549 other technicians.

(c) The *Hsien* Health System.—The *hsien* health system calls for the establishment of a health center in every *hsien* under the guidance of the provincial health department. There shall also be a health center in each district, a health station in each town or village, and a health-worker in each *pao* (6 to 15 *chia* which comprises 6 to 15 households each). Each *hsien* health center is to maintain a hospital of 20-40 beds, an out-patient department and a mobile unit. In case of epidemics, a separate isolation ward is to be set up. Each *hsien* health center shall be staffed by an officer in charge, one to three doctors, one to eight nurses, two to four midwives, one or two dispensers, one or two laboratory technicians, two to four sanitation inspectors, one to three clerks, and several health workers.

The enforcement of the *hsien* health system is responsible for the standardization of all branches of health work in the country. Even the drugs and medical instruments distributed among the health organizations of all levels have been standardized, and so are the designs of buildings, construction, and lists of equipment and furniture.

Established in the different provinces in the country in 1947 were 1,440 health centers; 21 temporary health centers; 4 special health centers; 352 district health centers, and 783 *hsiang* and *chen* health centers.

Medical personnel working under the *hsien* health administrations consisted of 2,569 doctors; 3,530 nurses; 1,496 midwives; 260 laboratory experts; 1,085 dispensers; 1,001 sanitary inspectors; 1,755 assistant nurses, and 795 other technicians.

(d) Frontier Health System.—Establishment of the Mongolian Health Center

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF *Hsien* HEALTH CENTERS IN CHINA, 1947

Province	<i>Hsien</i> Health Centers	District Health Centers	<i>Hsiang</i> and <i>Chen</i> Health Stations
Kiangsu.....	50	..	17
Chekiang.....	76	22	17
Anhui.....	61	4	..
Kiangsi.....	83	13	19
Hupei.....	70	..	16
Hunan.....	75	5	11
Szechwan.....	134	101	118
Sikang.....	21	..	12
Fukien.....	66	..	43
Taiwan.....	8	11	43
Kwangtung.....	100	100	375
Kwangsi.....	99	46	28
Yunnan.....	128	27	18
Kweichow.....	79	18	31
Hopei.....	14
Shantung.....	33
Honan.....	102	4	11
Shansi.....	22	..	1
Shensi.....	73	..	29
Kansu.....	54	..	3
Chinghai.....	5
Jehol.....	12
Chahar.....	16
Suiyuan.....	9
Ningsia.....
Sinkiang.....	26
Liaoning.....	18
Kirin.....	6	1	9
TOTAL.....	1,440	352	783

Source: National Health Administration

in Suiyuan province by the National Health Administration in 1936 marked the beginning of a program for the improvement of public health work in the frontier provinces. The Mongolian Health Center was divided into the Ikhchao League Health Center and the Ulanbatai League Health Center in 1941. Three more such centers have been functioning in Sichang, Huili, and Alashan Banner since 1942. Two health stations at Yaan and Fulin in Sikang, and a hospital at Labrang, Kansu, which were established by the National Health Administration, have been placed under the provincial health departments of Sikang and Kansu.

The 1947 activities of the frontier health centers showed: Clinical attendance, 178,036; hospital in-patients, 1,060; smallpox vaccinations, 9,220; preventive inoculations, 39,661; delivery, 846; pre-natal examinations, 4,170; health talks, 843; home visits, 2,721; sanitary inspections, 1,290.

Working in the frontier health centers in 1947 were: 5 directors; 11 doctors; 1 pharmacist; 20 nurses; 8 widwives; 2 sanitary inspectors; 2 dispensers; 4 personnel officers; 17 assistant nurses; 4 technicians; 10 health officers, and 22 accountants and clerks.

MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS

Lack of adequate medical service, rapid spread of epidemics, and the scarcity of hospital beds have been held as reasons for the high mortality rate in China. There were about 30,000 hospital beds in the country before the war. The number has been increased to 48,663 since V-J Day. Together with the beds in private hospitals, the total is estimated at below 60,000.

CENTRAL HOSPITALS

1. Nanking Central Hospital.—The Nanking Central Hospital was founded in 1930 by the National Health Administration. During the war it was moved first to Changsha and later to Kweiyang. Its branch in Chungking served as a co-operating unit of the Chungking Municipal Hospital. After V-J Day, it was returned to Nanking from Kweiyang. Up to April, 1949, the hospital had a total bed capacity of 528, as compared to 300 before the war. Through the assistance of UNRRA, the World Health Organization, the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China, it had been able to expand its facilities rapidly. Besides curative service and preventive work, it served as a training center for internes, surgeons, dentists, opticians, and X-ray experts. In 1946-1947, 61 internes and 38 doctors completed their training courses. The hospital had also assisted in the training of nurses in cooperation with the National Central School of Nursing.

2. Chungking Central Hospital.—The present Chungking Central Hospital is an amalgamation of the Chungking Central Hospital at Kaotanyen and the Shapingpa-Tzechikow Hospital, formerly under the National Health Institute. The combined bed capacity of the two is 335.

3. Lanchow Central Hospital.—The Northwest Hospital, established at the end of 1941, was reorganized into the Lanchow Central Hospital in 1947 with accommodations for 250 patients. In January-June, 1947, out-patients totalled 31,197, while in-patients, 976.

4. Canton Central Hospital.—The Canton Central Hospital was founded in the winter of 1946 with accommodations for

TABLE 2.—CENTRAL HOSPITALS AND TUBERCULOSIS CENTERS IN CHINA, 1947

Hospital Unit	Beds	Medical Personnel			
		Doctors	Nurses	Midwives	Pharmacists
Nanking Central.....	526	111	173	8	5
Chungking Central.....	335	74	87	10	12
Lanchow Central.....	250	54	42	2	4
Tientsin Central.....	168	76	64	7	9
Canton Central.....	300	64	84	3	9
Peiping Tuberculosis Center...	66	6	30	..	1
Nanking Tuberculosis Center...	9	6	9
Nanking Psychiatry.....	50	8	2	..	2

Source: National Health Administration

TABLE 3.—ATTENDANCE OF THE CENTRAL HOSPITALS AND TUBERCULOSIS CENTERS, 1947

Hospital Unit	Clinical Attendance		In-Patients		
	First-visit	Second-visit	Admitted	Cured	Deaths
Nanking Central.....	109,440	142,480	10,944	10,337	569
Canton Central.....	35,338	49,025	2,573	2,573	134
Tientsin Central.....	18,673	35,500	2,711	2,405	98
Chungking Central.....	35,835	58,931	3,271	2,773	118
Lanchow Central.....	27,537	30,980	2,253	1,973	120
Nanking Tuberculosis Center....	1,802	1,950	62	52	..
Peiping Tuberculosis Center....	3,614	5,430	313	252	12
Nanking Hospital for the Insane*.

* Statistics for the Nanking Hospital for the Insane are included among those of the Nanking Central hospital.

Source: National^o Health Administration

300 patients. Besides providing curative service, it serves as an epidemic control center and a training ground for medical personnel.

5. Tientsin Central Hospital.—The Tientsin Central Hospital was founded in 1946 with a total bed capacity of 90, which was increased to 168 in 1947.

6. Tihwa Central Hospital.—The Tihwa Central Hospital was founded in April, 1948.

The Central Hospitals are functioning as medical centers in all parts of China for the promotion of medical facilities, personnel training, and for the improvement of community and private hospitals. They also give free medical treatment to the poor. About 20% of the patients who call at the out-patients department are given free treatment or are charged only a nominal fee.

PROVINCIAL AND MUNICIPAL MEDICAL ORGANIZATIONS

Medical organizations under provincial and municipal authorities may be divided into two kinds: general hospitals and special hospitals. Up to the end of 1947 there were 224 hospitals with accommodations for 17,136 patients. Of the number, 162 were general hospitals with a total bed capacity of 11,626. There were also 62 special institutions including sanatoria, dental clinics, isolation wards, insane asylums, leprosaria, and narcotic hospitals, with accommodations for 5,510 patients,

Hsien Health Centers.—Medical facilities in the *hsien* are managed by the *hsien* health centers. The total bed capacity of *hsien* health centers throughout China at the end of 1947 numbered 11,226.

Community and Missionary Hospitals.—These hospitals are supported by public organizations or private groups as part of their relief and public welfare work. At the end of 1947, there were 89 community hospitals with a total bed capacity of 6,440. The 162 hospitals established by foreign missions in China had accommodations for 12,157 patients.

MISSIONARY HOSPITALS

Before the war, there were 305 Christian hospitals in China. In September, 1948, only 203 were in operation. The remainder were closed due to war damages.

Table 4 shows the geographical distribution of these hospitals.

The Missionary hospitals have altogether 18,528 beds, the average daily bed capacity being 17,000. The average daily new out-patients numbered approximately 25,000.

There are five Christian medical colleges in China. They are: Cheeloo University School of Medicine, Foochow; Lingnan Medical College, Canton; Mukden Medical College, Mukden; West China Union College of Medicine and Dentistry, Chengtu; and St. John's Medical School, Shanghai. In addition, there

are two pharmacy schools; Cheeloo University School of Pharmacy at Hangchow, and West China Union School of Pharmacy at Chengtu; one institute of hospital technology, giving courses in laboratory technique, pharmacy and dispensing, physio-therapy, medical mechanics, and X-ray technique; 82 nursing schools; and ten midwifery schools.

Aid received by the missionary hospitals from the UNRRA - CNRRA program varied in quantity from province to province. Some had as little as 5% of what was available while others had as high as 20%. The British Red Cross, Canadian Red Cross, American Red Cross and China Relief Mission also extended aid to these hospitals.

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH PERSONNEL

REGISTRATION OF MEDICAL PERSONNEL

All medical personnel, including doctors, dentists, pharmacists, nurses, midwives, and dispensers, are required to register with the government before they are permitted to practice. The National Health Administration began the registration of doctors in 1928, and later extended this to other types of medical personnel. Up to the end of 1946, medical personnel registered with, and licensed by, the National Health Administration totalled 30,343, including 13,447 doctors,

TABLE 4.—MISSIONARY HOSPITALS

Province	Open	Closed	Total
Anhwei.....	8	1	9
Chekiang.....	10		10
Fukien.....	33	2	35
Honan.....	4	11	15
Hopei.....	8	9	17
Hunan.....	18	2	20
Hupei.....	16	4	20
Kansu.....	4		4
Kiangsi.....	4	2	6
Kiangsu.....	24	7	31
Kwangsi.....	5	1	6
Kwangtung.....	27	4	31
Kweichow.....	1	3	4
Northeastern Provinces.....	4	16	20
Shansi.....	3	8	11
Shantung.....	2	18	20
Shensi.....	2	2	4
Sikang.....	3		3
Szechwan.....	17	7	24
Taiwan.....	2	3	5
Yunnan.....	8	2	10
TOTAL.....	203	102	305

The rehabilitated hospitals of west, central and south China were operating at full strength. Most were suffering in some degree or other from financial stringency, and yet were faced with an increased demand for their charity work. Those in north China, from Honan to Manchuria, had a most difficult time because of the communist rebellion. At least six were operating in spite of adverse conditions, while the rest remained closed.

371 dentists, 952 pharmacists, 6,000 nurses, 5,268 midwives, and 4,305 dispensers.

Since 1943, the Examination Yuan has instituted a system of examining the qualifications of all medical personnel and issuing certificates to those who have passed the examination or whose qualifications as medical workers have been accepted. Holders of such certificates may apply to the Health Administration for professional licenses.

TRAINING OF MEDICAL PERSONNEL

China needs a much larger medical corps than she has today. Up to the end of 1946, only 13,447 doctors had been registered and licensed by the government. To implement the *hsien* health system alone, 10,000 doctors with public health training are needed. Therefore, the training of medical personnel forms an integral part of China's postwar reconstruction program.

The Public Health Personnel Training Institute, established by the Health Administration, trained public health officers, nurses, midwives, laboratory technicians and sanitary workers. It was moved from Nanking to Kweiyang after outbreak of the war in 1937. In 1941 the Northwest Public Health Training Institute was organized in Lanchow, training public health officers, nurses, sanitary inspectors, and other staff workers in public health. Since 1943, the training of public health staff workers has been left in the hands of local authorities, while the institute concentrated on the training of senior public health personnel only.

Both the National Health Institute and the former Northwest Health Institute offered training and conducted refresher courses for public health officers, doctors, dentists, pharmacists, laboratory technicians and nurses. Following the reorganization of the Northwest Health Institute into the Northwest Branch of the National Health Institute after V-J Day, the training of senior medical personnel has been entirely undertaken by the National Health Institute.

Through the help of the Rockefeller Foundation, the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China, UNRRA, and the Indian Government, a number of senior Chinese medical personnel were granted fellowships for postgraduate training in public health in the United States, India, and other countries. In 1947, 63 Chinese medical workers were enabled by the World Health Organization to further their studies in Europe and the United States.

Medical personnel trained by the health institutes between 1933 and 1947 totalled 3,082, including 791 doctors; 77 sanitary engineers; 286 sanitary inspectors; 125 anti-malaria inspectors; 9 pharmacists; 14 dispensers; 1,001 public health nurses; 240 midwives; 95 laboratory technicians; 61 vital statisticians; 8 dental technicians; 16 X-ray experts; 52 public health workers; 52 assistant nurses; 18 public health workers; 13 senior health workers; 40 senior research workers; 12 child health

personnel; 26 internes; 12 health education personnel; 21 blood bank workers; 80 women health workers; and 33 sanitary engineering workers.

HERBAL MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS

The practice of medicine in China is as ancient as Chinese culture. Although modern medicine has made marked progress in recent years throughout the country, practitioners of herbal medicine still exert considerable influence upon the Chinese people. To supervise these herb doctors, the National Health Administration organized in 1937 the Herbal Medical Practitioners Committee to examine patent herbal drugs, publications on herbal medicine and medical practice.

The law requires herbal medical practitioners, like other medical personnel, to pass the examinations given by the Examination Yuan, and then to apply for licenses. Altogether 362 passed the first examination in 1946, and 198 the second examination in 1947. Prior to the adoption of the examination system, the authority to register herbal medical practitioners was vested in the local governments, but such registration had to be reported to the Health Administration. Up to the end of 1946, 1,073 had been licensed as herbal medical practitioners.

The Chungking Herbal Medical Hospital was established in 1944 under the Health Administration. Because of financial difficulties, it had only an out-patient department which was divided into four branches: medicine, surgery, pediatrics and gynaecology. In 1947, 14,873 first-visit patients and 10,473 second-visit patients were treated in this hospital.

MEDICAL SUPPLIES

MANUFACTURE OF MEDICINES AND DRUGS

Directly under the control of the Health Administration are four institutions for the manufacture of medical supplies: the First Pharmaceutical Factory, the Narcotics Bureau, the National Bio-Chemical Pharmaceutical Experimental Factory, and the National Epidemic Prevention Experimental Bureau.

The Narcotics Bureau was established in 1935 for the importation, transportation, and production of narcotics for medical use, which, according to regulations, are to be controlled by the government. For a number of years the Narcotics Bureau carried on experiments in the manufacture of opium powder, tincture of

opium, morphine HCl, codeine phosphate, dionine, and various kinds of ampoules for injection.

The following table shows the drugs produced and distributed by the Narcotics Bureau during 1947:

TABLE 5.—NARCOTICS PRODUCED FOR MEDICAL USE, 1947
(Unit: Gram)

Article	Production	Sales
Opium.....	1,861,309.90	702,070.50
Apomorphine.....		
Morphine.....	61,877.26	61,351.21
Codeine.....	156,610.16	111,239.84
Dionine.....	23,030.48	18,960.68
Eukodal.....		6.00
Cocaine.....	7,860.00	21,398.08
Pantopon.....	20,995.08	14,813.08

Source: National Health Administration

The First Pharmaceutical Factory and the National Bio-Chemical Pharmaceutical Experimentation Bureau were engaged in the manufacture of medicines and drugs. The former was founded in 1944 at Hochwan, Szechwan, and was moved to Nanking after V-J Day. The later was organized in 1946 at Shanghai, being an amalgamation of the Northwest Pharmaceutical Factory, the Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau, and the Factory of Medical Instruments. Under the control of the National Bio-Chemical Pharmaceutical Experimentation Bureau were seven branch institutions, namely, the Shanghai Pharmaceutical Experi-

mental Factory, the Shanghai Experimental Factory of Biological Products, the Shanghai Experimental Factory of Medical Instruments, the Tientsin Pharmaceutical Experimental Factory, the Northwest Experimental Factory of Biological Products, the Northeast Pharmaceutical Experimental Factory, and the Northeast Experimental Factory of Biological Products. Equipment in all these factories was either donated by foreign organizations or taken over from the Japanese. The pharmaceutical preparations produced in recent years are shown in the following table:

TABLE 6.—QUANTITIES OF DRUGS PRODUCED IN 1945-47

Product	Unit	1945	1946	1947
Raw material drugs.....	gm.	27,549,522.96	4,296,227	13,330,177
Tinctures.....	c.c.	44,295,528.72	9,113,003	45,221,443
Tablets.....	tab.	3,723,665	4,424,914	6,969,519
Ampoules.....	amp.	147,054	5,874,827	659,751
Suppositories.....	..	11,865	2,300	..

Source: National Health Administration

MANUFACTURE OF BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTS

The National Epidemic Prevention Bureau was founded in 1909 in Peiping. It was moved to Nanking in 1931, while the institution in Peiping was reorganized into a branch. When war broke out in 1937, it was moved to Kunming. After

V-J Day, it was again moved back to Peiping. The Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau, established in Lanchow in 1944, was amalgamated into the National Bio-Chemical Pharmaceutical Experimentation Bureau. Both institutions used native raw materials in manufacturing biological products.

TABLE 7.—BIOLOGICAL PRODUCTS MANUFACTURED, 1945-1947

Product	Unit	1945	1946	1947
Smallpox vaccines	dose	2,779,442	702,108	3,309,030
Bacterial and virus vaccines ..	c.c.	16,334,720	25,628,125	33,264,868
Sera	c.c.	107,482	12,600	117,430
Antitoxins	intl. unit	93,000,000	7,420,213,000	213,666,200
Diagnostic suspensions	c.c.	124,720	159,530	..
Diagnostic sera	c.c.	1,038	1,074	90,307
Toxins and toxoids	c.c.	917,345	200,870	463,940
Miscellaneous	c.c.	13,206,000

Source: National Health Administration

MANUFACTURE OF PENICILLIN

The importation of penicillin from the United States began in 1944. The National Epidemic Prevention Bureau and the National Health Institute have been experimenting in its manufacture since 1945. The first Chinese penicillin plant was set up in Peiping in January, 1947, its equipment being presented by the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China. The factory would be capable of producing 100 vials of penicillin when it could attain its full capacity. It was under the direction of the National Epidemic Prevention Bureau.

SUPPLY OF MEDICAL PRODUCTS

Owing to transportation difficulties during the war, medical supplies in Free China became scarce. Besides engaging in large-scale manufacture of medicines, the Health Administration had to procure foreign contributions, purchase and transport supplies from abroad. The Wartime Committee for Medical Supplies was formed to purchase and distribute necessary medical supplies were received; 162,282 tons organizations at regulated prices. The committee was reorganized in 1947 into the Bureau of Medical Supplies. Supply stations were maintained in Shanghai, Chungking, Tientsin, Canton and Lanchow. During 1947, 65,084 tons of medical supplies were received, 162,282 tons were distributed.

In response to an appeal for medical supplies, the American Red Cross, the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China, the British Red Cross, and the Canadian Red Cross donated between 1941 and 1945 a total of 837 tons, of which 603 tons were distributed to medical and educational organizations in various parts of the country.

**EXPERIMENTATION IN
HERBAL DRUGS**

The medical herb *Changshan* or *dichorea febrifuga* has been proved to be effective in the treatment of malaria, but its composition and effectiveness still require careful study. Besides *Changshan*, the laboratories of the National Health Institute are studying the qualities of other medical herbs, including *Ya-tan-tze*, a cardiac stimulant, *Chia-chu-tao* or cleander (*Nerium odorum*, Soland) and *Shih-chun-tze*, a drug for the treatment of ascariasis.

CONTROL OF MEDICAL SUPPLIES

Dealers in drugs and medicines are required to apply to the Health Administration, through local authorities, for licenses. Each pharmacy must have in its employ at least one licensed pharmacist. The same method of control also applies to biological products, bacteriological products, and epidemiological products. As to the sale of patent medicines, a special license is required. The *Pharmacopoeia Sinica* is serving as a basis for the control of patent medicines. The sale of drugs and medicines is regulated through inspection and analysis by local authorities and by the Health Administration. Up to the end of 1947, 1,994 kinds of patent drugs had been licensed.

For the analysis and inspection of drugs and foods, the Bureau of Medicine and Food Testing was founded in Shanghai in 1948.

EPIDEMIC CONTROL**EPIDEMICS IN RECENT YEARS**

As a result of the constant movement of troops and refugees across wide sections of the country, and the withdrawal of the Japanese troops after V-J Day, epidemics assumed dangerous proportions

in 1946 and 1947. The following table compiled by the Health Administration on the basis of reports from the Joint Epidemiological Intelligence Service gives the numbers of patients and deaths caused by confirmed epidemic cases from 1945 to 1947:

It was the flaring-up of an old epidemic infection. Since then none has occurred. c. Fukien and Chekiang.—In 1937 plague broke out in 18 *hsien* in Fukien, claiming about 4,000 lives. During the war, it spread to the interior provinces. Isolated cases were reported in south

TABLE 8.—EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STATISTICS, 1945 to 1947

Classification of Epidemics	1945		1946		1947	
	Patients	Deaths	Patients	Deaths	Patients	Deaths
Cholera.....	21,552	5,201	54,197	15,160	2,473	280
Dysentery.....	59,163	1,499	165,160	2,469
Typhoid.....	11,184	527	46,106	1,269
Smallpox.....	5,338	671	20,562	2,593
Cerebro-spinal meningitis.....	5,346	671	6,296	1,228
Scarlet Fever.....	455	44	1,209	43
Bubonic Plague.....	2,593	1,286	11,069	5,912	3,135	1,412
Typhus.....	5,855	424	5,482	261
Diphtheria.....	792	69	3,497	328

Source: National Health Administration

Of the epidemic diseases rampant during the period 1946-1947, bubonic plague, cholera, kala-azar, and schistosomiasis engaged the serious attention of the authorities.

1. Bubonic Plague.—This plague was first introduced into China 100 years ago from Asia Minor, and has been endemic in various places in the northeast, Chekiang, Fukien, the northwest, and western Yunnan.

a. The Northeast.—Plague of the pneumonic type broke out in 1946 in Mukden and spread to the neighboring provinces of Liaopei, Kirin, and Nunkiang. Steps were taken to check the epidemic from spreading further. Public health personnel was sent to the plague-ridden areas, and a quarantine station was established at Shanhaikwan to subject all passengers from the northeast to fumigation tests. In June, 1947, a bubonic plague broke out in Harbin, probably as a result of the destruction of the plague research equipment of the Japanese Chemical Weapon Institute in the city. According to a report in September, 1947, 200 died of the plague in Fuyu and it was spreading further to the south. As that area was under the control of the Chinese Communists, no definite information was available.

b. The Northwest.—In 1942, a serious plague epidemic raged for four months in Suiyuan, Ningsia, Shensi, and Shansi.

Chekiang and east Kiangsi. In 1940 it occurred in Ningpo and Chuhsien as a result of the Japanese attempt at bacterial warfare, but fortunately it was soon stamped out. In the southeast, the plague-stricken areas included Fukien, southern Chekiang, eastern Kiangsi, and the Leichow peninsula. In 1947, it was reported in Lotsing and Lanchi of Chekiang and in Chungjen and Nanchang of Kiangsi. In January, 1948, the pestilence was discovered in Fukien, totalling 15 cases with 13 deaths reported. To prevent it from spreading to the southeast, Bubonic Plague Prevention Technical Committees were set up in Chekiang and Kiangsi. The third medical unit of the Anti-Epidemic Corps of the Health Administration was dispatched to Chekiang to assist the local medical organizations in wiping out the scourge.

d. The Southwest.—The plague was first reported in western Yunnan as far back as 50 years ago. A small outbreak occurred on the Yunnan-Burma border in February-July, 1940. In the spring of 1944, it was rampant in the Tengchung area. In 1946, the affected area extended from Paoshan in the north to Luho in the south, covering one-fourth of Yunnan province. Altogether 34 cases were reported in Tengchung in the first half of October, resulting in nine deaths. Each year the disease is prevalent in this area

between autumn and winter. Occasionally the pneumonic type is discovered.

e. Hunan.—The affliction broke out in Changteh for the first time in November, 1941. Circumstantial evidence indicated that the epidemic was caused by the dropping of flea-embedded grains and rags from Japanese airplanes. Despite immediate measures taken by the Chinese authorities to check it, the epidemic worked its way into the local rat population and established a focus of infection among the rodents. Another breakout appeared in 1942 and spread to Taoyuan. From November, 1942, to November, 1943, no less than 92 cases were discovered, claiming 89 victims. However, none has been reported since then.

2. Cholera.—Cholera assumed epidemic proportions in the coastal provinces and worked its way along the Yangtze river up to Changteh, Hunan, in the summer of 1937. Of 13,661 cases reported, 615 resulted in deaths. In 1938, the epidemic started from the East river area of Kwangtung and gradually worked along the coast into the interior provinces. Of a total of 55,965 cases, 13,092 were fatal. The situation was most serious in Shanghai where more than 12,000 cases were reported. In the interior 34,995 cases were reported in 1939 and 54,441 cases in 1940. Among the provinces affected were Szechwan, Hunan, Kiangsi, Kweichow, Yunnan, Shensi, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, Kansu, Shansi and Chekiang. In 1941, 344 cases were reported in three provinces; in 1942, 11,951 cases in 12 provinces; in 1943, 6,177 cases in nine provinces; and in 1944, 1,017 cases in 12 provinces.

Cholera broke out in 1945 along the coast and on both sides of the Yangtze river; in the interior provinces it assumed epidemic proportions in Kweichow, Sikang, Kwangsi and Szechwan. After V-J Day, cholera cases were reported in Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, Ichang and Canton. Of a total of 21,552 cases, 5,201 victims died. Because of the withdrawal of the Japanese troops and the constant movement of refugees, a cholera epidemic broke out earlier than expected in 1946. It was rampant in the Yangtze river valley, the infected area extending from north Hupeh to Nanking and Shanghai; in south China it also assumed epidemic proportions in Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Fukien, and Taiwan. Local cases were reported in Peiping and Tientsin. In the northeast, 15 *hsien* in Liaoning, Liaopei, Kirin and Jehol were affected with the disease. The cholera statistics in 1946 revealed 54,197 cases with

15,460 deaths. The epidemic broke out later than usual in 1947. At first only a few isolated cases were discovered in places along the coast of Kwangtung, Fukien and Chekiang; then it broke out in north Kiangsu and spread to Shanghai. In the interior provinces, the situation in Choukiakow, Honan, was more serious. Isolated cases were also discovered in Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, Szechwan and Sikang, but the malady was checked before it spread.

3. Kala-azar.—Kala-azar is a blood infection which attacks the liver and spleen, and is caused either by a species of sand-fly, mosquito, or flea. The disease, which has been widely spread by the movements of refugees, is very common in the provinces north of the Yangtze and endemic among the tribes-people in west Szechwan and Sikang. It is estimated that kala-azar patients in China number 2-million each year. According to reports received by the Health Administration, of the 7,409 cases treated in 1946, 84 perished; Honan alone had 3,899 cases. In 1947, 5,076 cases were reported in Hwaiyin, north Kiangsu, and 3,451 cases in Kaifeng, Honan.

Yaws was introduced in China by the Japanese soldiers during the war. The endemic area includes 11 *hsien* in the neighborhood of Hwaiyin in north Kiangsu, and part of south Kiangsu. The disease is communicable through the medium of scabies which is widely prevalent in that part of north Kiangsu. In 1947, Hwaiyin alone had 7,804 cases. Before the war the disease was endemic in Taiwan where in 1947 only nine cases were discovered.

4. Schistosomiasis.—Schistosomiasis has been endemic in Chekiang for many years. The endemic area includes 40 *hsien*, covering one-third of the province. The disease is an infection attacking the liver and spleen, and is caused by the penetration of the parasite into the human body, while the farmers are working in the paddy-fields. In 1948, the Health Administration organized the Chekiang Endemic Prevention Unit which sent two sub-units to Kaihua and Kashing for the treatment, prevention and research of schistosomiasis. Simultaneously, an experimental center was set up in Kashing. The chief tasks on their program are: investigation, curative service, control of human refuse, extermination of the parasite medium, dissemination of health education, training of personnel, and improvement of the cultivation methods in the paddy fields.

5. Other Diseases.—Leprosy is on the increase as a result of undernourishment and poor living conditions. A number of leprosaria have been established under the auspices of the Health Administration and private relief services. Among these the work of the leprosaria in Tungku, Peihai of Kwangtung; Kwangtsi of Chekiang; Lanchow of Kansu; Tsinan of Shantung and several others has been highly praised. At the end of 1947, there were 2,221 patients in 29 leprosaria throughout the country.

Malaria is most prevalent in the southwestern provinces. Although no accurate statistical information about the prevalence of the disease is available, it has been established as one of the most important causes of ill health in China. For its control, the Health Administration has undertaken preventive measures such as spraying DDT for the extermination of malaria-germ-carrying mosquitoes.

Dysentery is just as common as malaria. It is a serious cause of infant mortality and adult debility. Improved environmental sanitation and particularly stricter control of foods and beverages are needed for its control.

As for diphtheria, typhus, and smallpox, there have been reports of small outbreaks in various provinces in recent years. Preventive measures have been taken to stop their prevalence. Vaccination is carried out each year by local authorities and is compulsory in the endemic areas.

EPIDEMIC PREVENTION

1. Epidemic Prevention Organizations.—Recognizing the serious threat of epidemics to national health, the government has been systematic in its anti-epidemic measures. After V-J Day all anti-epidemic organizations underwent

considerable change. The Anti-Epidemic Corps under the National Health Administration was reorganized in 1947 into the General Anti-Epidemic Corps.

The corps is composed of one medical and one sanitary engineering group. Under it are four units, one laboratory unit, one sanitary engineering unit, one isolation hospital, and one supply depot. All are mobile and can divide into sub-units whenever necessary. They are rushed to wherever their services are needed. Local health departments have organized similar units.

The sanitary corps consists of seven mobile units, each with two engineers, two supervisors, two assistants, and three technicians. Their job is to help improve the environmental sanitation in areas threatened by epidemics by disinfecting the sources of drinking water, improving the latrines and drainage system, exterminating flies and mosquitoes, and supervising the sale of foods and beverages.

The Health Administration has also set up other organizations for the prevention of epidemic and endemic diseases.

The Southeastern Plague Prevention Unit in Foochow was organized in 1946 with three centers at Tsinkiang, Wenchow, and Nanchang, one isolation hospital at Foochow, and two sub-units at Amoy and Nanchang. During 1947, it undertook preventive measures at Pucheng and Linsen of Fukien; in eastern Kiangsi, and at Chuhsien, Yunho, and Lanchi of Chekiang.

The Kala-azar Prevention Unit of the Health Administration was formed in 1947 for the promotion of curative, investigation, and research service in kala-azar prevention. It has started a training program, turning out personnel to staff its preventive centers in areas where

TABLE 9.—IMPORTANT ACTIVITIES OF THE ANTI-EPIDEMIC CORPS, 1943-1947

Year	Clinical Attendance		Epidemic Control		
	First-visit	Second-visit	Smallpox Vaccinations	Anti-cholera Inoculations	Anti-cholera and Typhoid Inoculations
1943.....	55,106	97,820	226,623	116,393	26,925
1944.....	122,535	190,904	162,492	135,315	9,991
1945.....	31,113	213,507	54,514	367,262	42,494
1946.....	224,852	349,616	183,381	447,214	16,676
1947.....	321,517	505,132	100,590	571,780	51,689

Source: National Health Administration

the disease is rampant. A kala-azar hospital was set up at Hwaiyin, northern Kiangsu in August, 1947. The staff of its out-patient department had already treated over 3,500 patients (first and second-visits) up to the end of 1947.

The Northwest Branch of the National Health Institute at Lanchow has also been engaged in kala-azar prevention work in the Shensi-Kansu area.

QUARANTINE SERVICE

The quarantine service in China began in 1873. It was not until 1930 that the National Quarantine Service was established in Shanghai on a nation-wide basis. Since then the stations at Shanghai, Amoy, Antung, Tientsin, Tangku, Chingwangtao and Hankow have one by one been placed under the control of the Na-

TABLE 10.—PLAGUE PREVENTION WORK, 1946-1947

Year	Mice Trapped	Mice Poisoned	Houses Disinfected	Caves Sealed	Caves Disinfected	Caves Fumigated	Clinical Examinations
1946.....	1,122		76,131	26,002		35,342	
1947.....	7,679	29,826	113,448	6,169	611,736	1,457	41,531

Source: National Health Administration

The work undertaken by the kala-azar unit in 1947 consisted of 8,732 inoculations against kala-azar and 6,510 inoculations against yaws. Kala-azar patients treated numbered 1,516 for first visits and 6,833 for second visits, and yaws patients treated totalled 2,148 for first visits and 5,495 for second visits.

Twelve provinces and five municipalities have started their own preventive services for the control of endemic and epidemic diseases.

2. Epidemiological Intelligence Service.—In May, 1940, a Wartime Joint Epidemic Prevention Commission was organized under the auspices of the Health Administration, the Army Medical Administration, the Health Department of the Board of Supplies and Transport (now defunct), and the Chinese Red Cross Medical Relief Corps. It was reorganized into the National Joint Epidemic Prevention Commission in 1947. Since its establishment it has been functioning as a central organization for all civil and military epidemic prevention forces, and also as the headquarters of the nationwide epidemiological intelligence service. The outbreak of any contagious disease anywhere in the country is to be reported to the commission so that the combined efforts for its control may be mobilized. The commission furnished UNRRA with epidemiological intelligence in compliance with the International Health Pact. After V-J Day, the scope of its intelligence service was enlarged to include kala-azar and yellow fever.

tional Quarantine Service, while the stations at Tsingtao and Canton were taken over by local authorities in 1926 and in 1930. After the Mukden Incident in 1931, the stations at Antung and Port Arthur were seized by the Japanese.

In spite of handicaps, the National Quarantine Service had succeeded before 1937 in carrying out certain reforms and in enlarging its sphere of activities, and had managed to initiate research on many problems affecting the public health of this country. Its main activities before the war were the inspection of incoming and outgoing vessels, the treatment and isolation of infected persons and contacts, the examination and vaccination of emigrants, fumigations and disinfections, and research into epidemic prevention problems. Unfortunately, most of its activities along the coast had to be discontinued upon the outbreak of the war in 1937. In 1938, the Quarantine Station at Hankow was moved to Chungking and reorganized into the Hankow-Ichang-Chungking Quarantine Station to carry on such activities as fumigation, inspection of river vessels and highway buses, preventive inoculations, and issuing of certificates for coffin transportation. New quarantine stations were formed at Tengyueh, Mengtze, and Wanting on the China-Burma-Indo-China borders in 1938, but they were soon abolished owing to changes in the situation. As air transportation between Chungking and India increased after 1943, an air quarantine service was

instituted. After V-J Day, quarantine stations in Shanghai, Tientsin, Canton, Amoy and Swatow were re-established with branches in Woosung, Tangku, Chinwangtao, and Swatow, and three new stations were organized at Tsingtao, Foochow, and Hoikow in Hainan island. In Taiwan province, the main quarantine station at Taipeh and its branches at Keelung, Kaohsiung, and Hualien are still operating under the Taiwan Provincial Government. The Hankow-Ichang-Chungking Quarantine Station has been reorganized into the Yangtze River Quarantine Station. The two stations established in Chungking and Wanhhsien during the war are still functioning.

The work of the National Quarantine Service in 1947 consisted of the inspection of 27,624 vessels (43,988,299 tons), 11,263 airplanes, 610 highway buses, 5,553,093 passengers and the fumigation of 2,122 (992,920 tons) vessels.

ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS CAMPAIGN

The prevalence of tuberculosis, one of the major causes of mortality in China, has been multiplied by wartime conditions. Investigations made by the American and British Red Cross Societies in China show a high incidence of tuberculosis among the Chinese people. Owing to the lack of adequate equipment and personnel, curative services have been confined to big cities. In Nanking alone, there are 25,000 patients, of whom more than 6,000 are invalids. Because of the shortage of beds and hospital equipment, any large-scale anti-tuberculosis program is out of the question. Thus far, stress has been laid on preventive services, treatment of patients in their early stages, and B.C.G. vaccinations.

1. Peiping Tuberculosis Center.—It was formed in 1935 under the auspices of the Peking Union Medical College. Its out-patient department has been engaged in case-finding work by taking fluoroscopic examinations of students, members of patients' families, and close contacts. The center served both as a curative center and as a training ground for internes and public health personnel. From 1937 to 1945 when Peiping was under Japanese occupation, it was supported by the people in Peiping. In 1945, it was reorganized under the direction of the Health Administration, and its work has since been considerably strengthened.

2. Chungking Tuberculosis Centers.—In 1944, the National Health Institute opened a tuberculosis out-patient depart-

ment in the Shapingpa-Tzechikow Health Experimentation District. In the course of a year, its staff examined more than 30,000 students, laborers, and civil servants and treated approximately 2,000 patients in their early stages. In 1944, the National Health Institute was moved to Nanking, leaving its TB out-patient department and its compound at Koloshan to the Bureau of Health of the Chungking Municipal Government, which subsequently established the Chungking Tuberculosis Center to carry on the work.

3. Nanking Tuberculosis Center.—Through the cooperation of the National Health Institute and the Bureau of Health of the Nanking Municipal Government, the Nanking Tuberculosis Center began to function in February, 1947. In July, it was placed under the Health Administration. Prior to the Communist occupation of the capital the anti-TB drive in Nanking was carried on under the auspices of the three organizations. The center was equipped with two X-ray units for chest examinations and case-finding purposes. It laid special stress on mass chest survey in offices and schools in an attempt to stop the spread of the disease by treating patients in their early, curable stages. In February-October, 1947, more than 15,000 cases were examined. Simultaneously, a training program for anti-tuberculosis personnel was undertaken.

4. Shanghai Tuberculosis Center.—The Shanghai Tuberculosis Center was established in 1946 with a bed capacity of 120. In cooperation with the National Medical College of Shanghai, an out-patient department was opened in 1947 with one X-ray photographic unit.

5. Tientsin Community Tuberculosis Center.—It was established in November, 1947. Its equipment compared favorably with those of similar institutions in the United States. It was supported by the Chinese Red Cross Society, UNRRA, and the World Health Organization. During January-June, 1948, the center examined 15,254 cases, of which 7,000 were made by the center's mobile team with a special X-ray unit.

6. Other Organizations.—The crying need for anti-tuberculosis measures is felt everywhere throughout the country. Since V-J Day, anti-tuberculosis associations have been organized in Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Chengtu, Chungking, Nanking and Tsingtao to promote the drive, and since 1946, small tuberculosis centers have been formed in Honan, Hupeh, Kweichow, and Taiwan under the various provincial authorities.

SANITATION AND WELFARE

MATERNITY AND CHILD HEALTH

According to incomplete statistics, 15 out of every 1,000 Chinese mothers die in child-birth, and 160 out of every 1,000 babies die either during delivery or in their first year. Typhoid fever, diphtheria, enteritis, and other diseases of infancy have been the principal causes of death.

According to investigations made by the College of Agriculture, University of Nanking, the death rate of infants among farmers' families in various parts of China in 1935 was 163.8 per 1,000. The National Health Institute reported that the death rate of infants in Pishan, Szechwan, was 170.9 per 1,000 in 1944. The rate in the first district of Peiping was 126.5 per 1,000 in 1934, according to investigations made by the district's health center. In Nanking in the same year, the rate was 122.6 per 1,000, according to Nanking's health center. In Chengtu in 1943, the rate was 126.5 per 1,000, investigations made by the First Child Welfare Center of Chengtu revealed. In Lanchow in 1945, the rate was 118.6 per 1,000, according to Kansu Provincial Maternity and Child Welfare Center.

The infantile mortality rates mentioned above referred to deaths during delivery or in their first year in cities or in areas where some kind of child welfare service is available. Conditions in the rural districts are believed even worse.

Chinese child health service began with the establishment of the Peiping Maternity Health Center in 1921. Since then similar services have been organized in Nanking, Shanghai, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Kansu, and Shantung. Every one of the *hsien* health centers in these provinces has a midwife on its staff. In 1942 the National Health Institute formed a maternity and child health department for research and investigation. In the last five years the National Health Institute helped establish maternity and child health centers in Chengtu and Pishan of Szechwan, and Lanchow of Kansu. Since V-J Day, the same institute distributed UNRRA supplies among new maternity and child health centers and obstetrical hospitals in various provinces and municipalities. Up to the end of 1947, six new obstetrical hospitals had been organized in Fukien, Shanghai, Tientsin, Kweiyang and Taipeh; nine new maternal and child health centers in Hunan, Szechwan, Kwangtung, Kansu, Peiping, Tsingtao, Canton and Mukden. Mean-

while, 1,495 midwives worked in *hsien* health centers of 32 provinces.

In 1946, the Health Administration appropriated CNC\$557,600,000 out of the CNRRA funds to help improve provincial and municipal maternity and child health organizations. In 1947, CNC\$330-million was appropriated for the same purpose.

In the 24 provincial maternity and child health centers and obstetrical hospitals in the 14 provinces and municipalities mentioned above, the medical personnel employed consisted of 72 doctors, 139 midwives and 57 nurses. Beds in the 24 units numbered 567.

SCHOOL HYGIENE

The first step towards the development of a school hygiene service was taken in Peiping, Nanking and Shanghai early in the 20's. In 1931 the Ministry of Education and the National Health Administration jointly published a *Program for the Development of Urban School Hygiene*, which resulted in the organization of the National Commission of Health Education to regulate and systematize the administration of health work in the schools. The National Health Education Technical Conference further emphasized putting the program into practice. By June, 1937, organizations formed for the promotion of hygiene in the schools were functioning in Kiangsu, Hunan, Shantung, Honan, Shensi, Hopei, Chekiang, Fukien, Kansu, Shanghai, Nanking, Peiping, Tientsin, Canton and Weihaiwei.

During the war years, only a small-scale school hygiene service was maintained in Chungking, Kweiyang, Lanchow, Chengtu, and Kunming by the National Health Institute and other medical organizations. Provincial health departments in Hunan, Hupeh, Szechwan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, Kansu, Shensi, Chinghai, Sikkang and Yunnan were also engaged in carrying out similar programs, but their work was handicapped by the lack of public health workers and necessary equipment and drugs.

Since V-J Day, health education committees were formed under the auspices of the Health Administration in Nanking, Shanghai, Anhwei, Shantung, Tientsin, Chungking, Kwangtung, Tsingtao, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Honan, Shansi, Szechwan, Kweichow and Fukien.

1. Nanking.—The school hygiene service was being carried out in Nanking under the guidance of the municipal health education committee. The National Health Institute maintained a demonstration center known as City School Health Service. Its

sphere of activities embraced three primary schools, one middle school, and two normal schools. In the middle school and the primary schools, the emphasis was on health education and service, epidemic prevention and curative measures, while the job of training health education personnel was being done in the two normal schools. Altogether 5,538 students in the six schools were examined in 1947 by two doctors, one head nurse and four nurses. The results of the physical examination show that only 12.5% of the primary school students and 17.7% of the middle school students were well developed and healthy.

2. Shanghai.—The hygiene work among the schools in Shanghai was done by the Municipal Health Department. To spread its services among the 1,284 primary and middle schools which had 482,664 students, mobile units were organized. These units employed 15 doctors, one head nurse, 35 nurses, 10 assistant nurses beside the public health personnel in the health centers, and school physicians. Their functions included physical examinations, curative services, epidemic control, family calls, environmental sanitation, health talks, and propaganda. The curative service was being done through concentrated outpatient departments at district primary schools and school infirmaries. Serious cases were sent to the municipal hospital.

The school hygiene work carried out in Shanghai from September, 1946 to August, 1947, consisted of the following: Physical examinations, 94,734; smallpox vaccinations, 104,118; typhoid toxoid inoculations, 30,556; diphtheria toxoid inoculations, 7,751; attendance at health talks, 226,212; epidemic cases, 372; isolated patients, 373; clinic attendance, 52,548; home visits, 4,172; and sanitary inspections, 3,285.

The defects found among Shanghai school children in 1947 were trachoma, 53%; dental diseases, 35%; tonsilitis, 15%; malnutrition, 16%; skin diseases, 4%; and prepuce, 11%.

3. Kiangninghsien.—The *hsien* health center of Kiangninghsien near Nanking established a number of demonstration school infirmaries for 1,067 students in nine schools. These infirmaries were in charge of public health nurses under the guidance of doctors. Some 4,130 students in 37 other schools were being treated by teachers who had had some training in public health work. These dispensaries also served as rural health centers.

The defects found among the 378 primary school students examined in Kiangninghsien in 1947 were: Trachoma, 77.5%; prepuce, 35.5%; malnutrition, 33%; dental diseases, 25.5%; tonsilitis, 24%; myopia, 23%; sycosis, 17%; anaemia, 13.5%; hearing defects, 10.5%; splenomegaly, 10%; scabies, 9%; ear diseases, 7%; other eye diseases, 6.5%; nose diseases, 6%; other skin diseases, 5%; hernia, 2%; heart diseases, 1%; and miscellaneous, 0.5%.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

In 1943 a Labor Health Committee was organized under the joint auspices of the Ministry of Social Affairs and the National Health Administration. Subsequently, demonstration centers were set up at Likiao, Maoersze and Toutang, three industrial areas in the outskirts of Chungking. Later, in cooperation with the National Health Institute, the National Industry Institute at Paichi, Chungking, and the Yufung Textile Mills, this industrial health work was further expanded.

After V-J Day, the Ministry of Health requested the Ministry of Economic Af-

TABLE 11.—NANKING SCHOOL HEALTH SERVICE,
PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS, 1947

Items	Number of Students Examined: 5,538	
	Primary School	Middle School
Defects found	87.58%	82.3%
Trachoma.....	54.25%	49.0%
Dental diseases	46.10%	29.0%
Lymphatic inflammation	20.50%	8.5%
Tonsilitis.....	19.70%	20.0%
Skin diseases	10.80%	
Myopia.....		19.5%

Source: National Health Administration

fairs and the National Resources Commission to investigate the status of medical facilities in government-operated factories and mines. In 1947 the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Ministry of Economic Affairs sought the cooperation of the Ministry of National Defense, the Ministry of Communications, the National Resources Commission, and provincial and municipal governments in the improvement of hygienic conditions in factories and mines throughout the country to abide by the *Labor Law*, and the *Regulations Governing Industrial Health and Safety*. The National Health Institute also set up health centers in the Yungli Chemical Works at Liuhu, Kiangsu, and sent experts to Tientsin to advise the China Textile Mills on matters of industrial hygiene.

ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION

Environmental sanitation service is that branch of health work which concerns itself with garbage disposal, the improvement of latrines, the construction of water supply and sewerage systems, fly and mosquito control, and the purification of water. After eight years of war, most of the water supply and sewerage systems in the big cities were in need of repair and expansion. The Sanitary Engineering Corps of the Health Administration was in charge of this rehabilitation program, with the National Health Institute providing technical supervision.

The construction of a new underground sewerage system in Chungking was completed in June, 1947. It was built under the direction of Colonel A. B. Morrill, a sanitation engineer, whose services had been loaned to China by the U. S. State Department in January, 1945.

The surveying of a new sewerage system in Nanking was completed in 1948 also under the supervision of Colonel Morrill and the National Health Institute's own experts. Other new water supply and sewerage projects were planned for Lanchow, Sining, and Changsha, to be carried out with UNRRA supplies.

Up to June, 1948, 127 cities had installed their water supply and sewerage systems. In the more populous villages the disinfection and improvement of wells have been conducted, which is one of the routine functions of the *hsien* health centers. During 1947, 140 water-purifying machines were supplied and 41 demonstration wells were sunk in the recovered areas. One hundred thirty old-fashioned wells were improved, and 6,600 wells disinfected in the same year.

The Sanitary Engineering Corps helped dispose of 1,369,540 tons of refuse and garbage accumulated in Peiping, Chengchow, and other cities during the war. Delousing and mosquito and fly control were carried out by the National Health Institute and by the *hsien* health centers. Areas where the insects breed were widely sprayed with DDT and Paris Green. In the big cities, DDT was sprayed from airplanes.

The National Health Institute has been carrying on anti-malaria work in Nanking, Liuhu and Taiwan. At Hsiaolingwei and Tungshanchen, two suburbs of Nanking, ponds, paddy fields and ditches have been sprayed with DDT to kill mosquito larvae. An investigation has been made to determine how heavily the area is infected by mosquitoes and the percentage of malaria cases among children and primary school students. In Liuhu the work was done in cooperation with the Yungli Chemical Works, the materials and equipment used in experimentation being supplied by the National Health Institute. In Taiwan, experimental centers have been set up in Chochow and Juilikung in Taichung. New anti-malaria drugs such as 7618, 8137 and Paludrine, have been used in clinical treatment.

The fly and mosquito control program carried out by the Sanitary Engineering Corps in 1947 included: DDT spraying of refugee camps, public latrines, 10,777 times; DDT spraying of ponds, ditches and slums, 971,055 cubic feet; delousing work, 116,909 persons; clothes and quilts sprayed, 202,477 articles; and houses sprayed, 4,646 rooms.

ARMY MEDICAL SERVICE

The Directorate of the Medical Service of the Combined Service Forces under the Ministry of National Defense is in charge of all army medical and rehabilitation work. It replaced the Army Medical Service in 1946 when the Ministry of War was reorganized into the Ministry of National Defense. Its chief functions during 1945-1948 may be summarized as follows:

MEDICAL SERVICE

In the face of continual deployment of troops on reoccupation missions after V-J Day, and subsequent widespread hostilities caused by communist rebellion, the Army Medical Service has had to continue the care of war casualties and veterans. Since August, 1945, it has set up 13 general hospitals which are on the whole better housed, equipped and staffed than during

the war. These hospitals serve as treatment centers, while those equipped with mobile facilities on the main lines of communications act as sub-centers. This arrangement offers the most economical use of the few clinical specialists available, and gives effective definitive treatment for all major casualties.

Altogether 228 medical organizations functioned under the Directorate of Medical Service of the Combined Service Forces in 1948. They included 13 general hospitals; 52 field hospitals; 4 convalescence units; 10 medical railway units; 1 medical prevention corps; 26 medical supply depots; 95 evacuation hospitals; 1 operation group; 3 medical shipment units; 17 medical motorcar units; 4 general depots, and 2 tuberculosis sanatoria.

MEDICAL SUPPLY

Throughout the greater part of the Sino-Japanese war, China was blockaded, and medical supplies were given such a low priority that she obtained less than 300 tons through U. S. lend-lease. Supplies imported from other sources were equally small. After V-J Day, all U. S. Army Hospital equipment in the China Theater was turned over to UNRRA, and 1,200 tons of other medical supplies to the Directorate of Medical Service in 1946. Another 1,500 tons of U. S. lend-lease medical supplies were received in the same year. Long before the U. S. lend-lease and U. S. Army help came, the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China had contributed sulfa drugs, penicillin, blood plasma, and amigen. Local products were either unobtainable, or available only in small quantities at excessive prices.

Therefore, it is not surprising that China's wartime hospitals, which at one period maintained 300,000 beds, were little

better than country inns, and the wounded and sick were provided with only the barest necessities. Today, most of the field hospitals are no better off than they were before. It is true that most of the general hospitals and some of the mobile hospitals are housed in Japanese buildings and have tolerable Japanese equipment. But even these installations require much in the way of repair and new equipment. Japanese expendable supplies filled a major part of the needs of 1946, U. S. supplies furnished some important new items, while another quarter was met by local purchases. In 1947, with the Japanese and U. S. supplies exhausted, the army medical service had to depend on native sources for two-thirds of its requirements.

ARMY MEDICAL PERSONNEL

The shortage of army medical personnel has been accentuated since the end of the war by three factors: the cessation of conscription, the end of patriotic appeal, and the inadequate pay. Apart from these considerations, the fundamental reason for the shortage is the lack of qualified people, as shown in Table 12.

In view of the importance of training a larger personnel, the National Defense Medical Center was founded in 1946 at Kiangwan, Shanghai.* Buildings formerly used by the Japanese Army in the former Shanghai Civic Center area were assigned to the center by the Executive Yuan. Since October, 1946, close contact was maintained with the American Advisory Group, under whose assistance final plans embodying the organization, personnel, and installations of the National Defense Medical Center were

* It was moved to Taipeh, Taiwan, shortly before the communist occupation of Shanghai in May, 1949.

TABLE 12.—ARMY MEDICAL PERSONNEL

Classification	Available in Whole Country	Serving in Armed Forces	Per 1,000 Men	Required per 1,500,000 Men
Qualified				
Doctors.....	12,000	1,922	7	10,500
Dentists.....	200	18	2	3,000
Nurses.....	15,000	384	6	9,000
Other Technical Personnel....	2,800	438	5.8	8,700
Unqualified				
Medical Personnel.....		13,945		

Source: Directorate of Medical Service of the Combined Service Forces

made. These comprise the military medical school with, professional and service branches, model service units, and research and development facilities. Because of the time needed to obtain and train instructors, and to carry out the equipment and construction program under existing financial conditions, it will take five years to complete the entire project.

In August, 1946, as a part of the foreign fellowship program, 114 Chinese army medical doctors were sent to the U. S., 90 being under the auspices of the U. S. Army and 24 under the American Bureau for Medical Aid to China. In 1947, 24 more were sent to the U. S. for advanced studies.

The local training program conducted by the Directorate of Medical Service of the Combined Service Forces with the cooperation of the American Advisory Group began in November, 1946. The medical class, consisting of 32 officers, completed the first four months' general training in Tangshan, at the Combined Service Forces School, and the final four months' technical training at Kiangwan, at the National Defense Medical Center.

The Directorate of Medical Service is also responsible for the technical supervision of all medical services and epidemic control in the armed forces. It examines health matters among troops, military organizations, army medical schools, as well as its subsidiary organizations. Anti-epidemic corps in every area, besides giving inoculations, carry out sanitary engineering projects, build delousing stations, purify drinking water, and cleanse troop centers of stagnant and polluted water and refuse.

CHINESE RED CROSS

The Chinese Red Cross Society was founded in 1904. It became an affiliate member of the International Red Cross in Geneva in 1919.

The society was reorganized in February, 1943, and was put under the joint supervision of the National Health Administration and the National Military Council. After V-J Day it underwent another reorganization and was placed under the Executive Yuan with Dr. Monlin Chiang as chairman, Dr. L. S. Woo as secretary-general, and Dr. Tseng Ta-chun and Dr. Tang Li-tan as deputy secretaries-general.

Its head office, located in Shanghai prior to the war, was moved to Chungking in 1940, and to Nanking after V-J Day. Besides a secretariat and an ac-

counting office, it has four departments: the first handles general affairs and personnel; the second takes charge of publications, information and subsidiary organizations; the third deals with women and youth welfare; and the fourth distributes medical services and supplies.

Before the war, the Chinese Red Cross had 513 branches but most of them lost contact with the headquarters during hostilities. Since V-J Day, regional offices were set up in Shanghai, Hankow, Peiping, Chungking and Canton to supervise local activities. Up to the end of 1947, 180 such branches had been established. They were distributed as follows: Kiangsu, 19; Anhwei, 13; Hupeh, 13; Honan, 38; Kwangsi, 5; Szechwan, 20; Kweichow, 2; Shensi, 2; Shantung, 14; Suiyuan, 1; Shansi, 1; Chekiang, 9; Kiangsi, 4; Hunan, 5; Kwangtung, 8; Fukien, 4; Yunnan, 3; Hopei, 9; Kansu, 2; Northeastern Provinces, 6, and Chahar, 2.

In Taiwan a branch was set up in Taipei in the spring of 1948. Branches of the former Japanese Red Cross Society at Tainan, Kaohsiung, Hsinchu, and the Red Cross Hospital at Taipei have been taken over by the Chinese Red Cross Society.

The Chinese Red Cross Society and its branches have launched several membership campaigns. Up to the end of 1947, its membership totalled 310,338.

The society has been maintained by public funds and a monthly grant from the Chinese Government. From August 20 to December 31, 1947, it received more than CNC\$150-million in contributions from organizations and individuals both in China and abroad.

Since V-J Day the Red Cross has concentrated its efforts on medical relief to help war refugees and civilians. The society's Medical Relief Corps, which was formed in 1937 after the fall of Nanking to take care of the wounded and the sick, was reorganized into 40 units which worked in Chekiang, Kiangsu, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechwan, Fukien, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Kweichow. Their work having been completed in June, 1946, these units were either dissolved or reorganized into branch medical units. Of the 40 units, nine took part in repatriation convoy service in collaboration with the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration. Each unit worked on the average for a period of 45 days and convoyed more than 10,000 refugees. Altogether 587,744 refugees and civilians benefited from the service of the 40 units. Of the number, 135,818 received medical treatment; 231,510, surgical

treatment; 132,169, preventive inoculations, and 86,382 had physical examinations; 1,544, X-ray fluoroscope examinations; and 321 had their X-ray pictures taken.

Either in cooperation with their main organization or through their independent efforts, local branches have up to the end of 1947 established 45 hospitals, 71 medical centers and 4 trachoma centers, and organized 25 medical relief corps and 150 mobile units. These units in 1947 extended their services to a total of 1,780,174 persons. Of the number, 412,593 received preventive inoculations; 15,622, physical examinations; 269,303, nutrition supply; 285,695, medical treatment; 303,426, surgical treatment; 133,812, obstetrical gynecological treatment, and 359,723, other treatments.

The society regards maternity and child welfare as one of its major undertakings, but owing to financial stringency, had to restrict its activities in this field. The society's third department extended health services in the primary schools in Nanking in 1947. Through its efforts, 11,835 students received physical examinations; 5,205, smallpox vaccinations; 12,899, cholera vaccinations; 1,046, X-ray fluoroscopies; 717, delousing treatment; 16,709, trachoma treatments; and 213, skin diseases treatment. In addition, the department gave 96 health lectures.

Child nutrition stations were organized by the society in July, 1946, in Nanking, Shanghai, Canton, Wuchin, Anyang, Yencheng, and Kiangtu to supply milk to children below the age of twelve. On the average 500 children were benefited each day. Besides milk, bread, and soup powder, halibut liver oil and other nutritious foods were distributed.

OPIUM SUPPRESSION

China has waged a long fight against opium. In 1938, following the promulgation of the *Opium Suppression Law*, the National Government initiated a policy of "absolute and immediate suppression." This was later modified to one of "gradual eradication." The Central Commission for Opium Suppression, established in 1935 under the National Military Council, set a six-year program for the complete eradication of the opium evil. During 1936 all opium suppression laws were fully revised to give teeth to the enforcement machinery. The new policy saw marked progress in the prohibition of poppy cultivation and in the control of the production, transportation and sale of narcotic drugs. The six-year plan would

have been completed by the end of 1940 had it not been for the Japanese policy of drugging the people in the occupied areas.

Since V-J Day, the anti-opium campaign has been resumed by the Chinese Government in earnest. All laws and regulations pertaining to the opium traffic were again revised. In the provinces, special commissioners were appointed to examine opium suppression accomplishments.

The present policy may be described as one of "vigorous suppression." Its highlights are: (1) complete extermination of the opium evil in China, and strict fulfillment of the International Pact for Opium Suppression, (2) stopping the transportation and cultivation of opium and its uses within a period of two years after V-J Day. In areas occupied by the Japanese during the war, opium addicts were registered by the local governments. All smokers are required to be cured of their habit within a fixed period of time according to their age and physical conditions. Anti-opium clinics and hospitals have been established in these areas. In the *hsien* and villages, the government has encouraged the community and public organizations to set up narcotic hospitals. In addition, public and private hospitals have been urged to help curb the opium evil by offering free treatment to the addicts. For addicts in Shanghai and Nanking who chose to receive treatments at home, anti-opium drugs were provided by the Health Administration, while in the provinces and other municipalities, these drugs are supplied by the Narcotics Bureau of the Administration, or by local pharmaceutical institutions.

Meanwhile, the government has launched a sustained publicity campaign to disseminate knowledge regarding the harm of opium to one's health and the government's determination to stamp out the evil.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

The difficulty of stopping the supply of opium at its source has been the main obstacle in the anti-opium campaign. International cooperation is, therefore, necessary before China can completely wipe out the narcotic evil.

The International Conference for Opium Suppression was held in Shanghai in 1908. In 1914, China ratified the *Hague Convention for Opium Suppression*. China also was a regular participant in anti-drug conferences held under the auspices of the defunct League of Nations and its affiliated organizations, and she was a signatory of the *Convention for Limiting*

the Manufacture and Regulating the Distribution of Narcotic Drugs of 1931 and the Convention for the Suppression of the Illicit Traffic in Dangerous Drugs of 1936. She maintained close cooperation with the League Council, the International Permanent Opium Committee, and the League Advisory Committee on Opium and Drug Traffic.

When World War II came to an end, the first session of the Opium Suppression Conference was held at Lake Success, New York, in November, 1946, under the auspices of the United Nations. Problems pertaining to the production, sale and use of opium in various countries were discussed, and an international convention adopted, stipulating that the duties and obligations of the League of Nations for opium suppression have been taken over by the United Nations. China submitted ten reports and 11 pertinent regulations detailing the policy of "vigorous suppression," the suppression work in areas occupied by the Japanese during the war, and the control of narcotics in the country. The Chinese proposal for the control of narcotics in Japan and Korea and for the establishment of an international system of distribution and limitation received considerable attention at the conference.

POSTWAR MEDICAL REHABILITATION

In the interest of China's postwar medical rehabilitation, the Health Commission of the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, the Medical Rehabilitation Committee and the Demobilization Health Committee of the National Health Administration have cooperated fully. The main emphasis was on the organization of medical and epidemic prevention corps and sanitary engineering units, the improvement of hospital equipment, and the training of medical personnel.

Prior to V-J Day, a health planning committee had been organized under the Postwar Relief Investigation and Planning Commission of the Executive Yuan. This committee submitted a report in the spring of 1945 to the Executive Yuan which sent a copy to UNRRA for reference. The program submitted called for supplies and equipment for the rehabilitation after the war of 660 hospitals of varying sizes with a total bed capacity of 52,500. It included improvements in X-ray, dental, hygienic laboratory, pharmaceutical and biological production, and emergency training programs. In its original

form the entire plan would require an estimated 40,000 tons of medical supplies and US\$60-million worth of hospital equipment.

SUPPLIES IN THE MEDICAL PROGRAM

After Japan's surrender in August, 1945, the entire rehabilitation as planned had to be revised. There was need for immediate action over a wider area. When hostilities ceased, only nine tons of UNRRA medical supplies had been received over the "Hump" and the training of medical relief personnel had just begun. Nevertheless, CNRRA's Health Commission, then in Chungking, mobilized all available men and materials and began to send them into the field. With an appropriation of CNC\$80-million, 53 tons of medical supplies from the National Health Administration and 100 tons borrowed from the Chinese Red Cross, it assembled one 200-bed hospital, 40 40-bed hospitals, 50 basic medical units and 20 mobile dispensaries in record time. In addition, vaccines, anti-malaria and assorted medical supplies were delivered to nearby regional offices. The hospitals and medical units were distributed in Kweichow, Honan, Kwangsi, Anhwei, Szechwan, Shansi, Chahar, Suiyuan, Hunan, Kiangsi, and Hupeh.

After V-J Day, CNRRA bought all U. S. Army hospital equipment in China for its medical relief and rehabilitation program. It took over a total of 1,800 tons at Chihkiang, Liuchow, Kweiyang, and Kunming, and assigned 400 tons to rehabilitate some 4,630 beds for hospitals in Szechwan, Sikang, Yunnan, Chungking, Kwangsi, Kiangsi, Kweichow, Shensi and Hunan.

UNRRA medical supplies began to arrive by November, 1945, but no sizable amounts were received until May, 1946. UNRRA medical supplies received totalled 12,743 long tons in 1946 and 1,820.9 long tons in 1947. The entire medical program from its beginning in 1945 up to the end of 1947 totalled over 33,100 long tons, composed of medical supplies, hospital equipment, motor vehicles, ambulances, pipes, fittings, tanks, prefabricated buildings and such related materials necessary and utilizable in the medical program. With these supplies CNRRA was able to rehabilitate a total of 52,500 beds. Because of the cut in UNRRA's appropriations for the China Medical Program, the number of maternity beds as stipulated in the original program could not be provided for. However, for various reasons,

some of the projected 50-bed institutions could only be built up to 20 or 40 beds; hence, the extra supplies were shifted to the maternity program. From the standpoint of distribution, the number of institutions benefited or rehabilitated by CNRRA medical supplies fulfilled satisfactorily terms in the original program.

At the end of 1947, 26,000 tons of medical supplies, or 75% of the entire amount received, had been shipped to consignees. The remaining 7,000 tons, a part of which did not arrive in Shanghai until October-December, 1947, were not entirely allocated and processed. At the close of the year, over 1,600 tons were awaiting shipment to consignees.

At the time of CNRRA's termination in 1947, an estimated 3,000 tons of supplies for the medical program had still to be delivered in China during the first quarter of 1948. In addition, there were about 3,500 tons of medical supplies held in custody by UNRRA's China Office. These supplies, all allocated and assembled, were originally consigned for points north of the 34th parallel but had been impounded in UNRRA's custody since July 31, 1947. On November 24, 1947, UNRRA turned these back to CNRRA for re-allocation. For this reason, the period of distribution of medical supplies was extended to March, 1948, so that the work could be completed.

Since the CNRRA regional offices were already deactivated, the work of distribution was delegated to committees in the different regions, known as Joint Committees on CNRRA Medical Supplies. They were made up of one representative each from the Health Administration, provincial and/or municipal health departments, UNRRA or World Health Organization and International Relief Committee. Their allocation policies were a continuation of those formerly approved by CNRRA's Health Commission, their duties and functions being similar to those of the former Health Division and Working Party of the CNRRA Regional Office and in conformity with the basic agreement between UNRRA and the Chinese Government. Their chief objective was to complete the distribution of all CNRRA medical supplies in their respective regions before March 31, 1948.

EPIDEMIC CONTROL

To meet the demand for epidemic prevention service throughout the country, the CNRRA Medical Relief Corps and Sanitary Engineering Corps were organized. Between October, 1945, and April,

1946, three medical relief corps and one sanitary engineering corps were assigned to the field. Each of the former was made up of four mobile sub-units and two isolation hospitals, and each of the latter, of six mobile sanitary engineering units. All could at short notice be sent to any part of the country. They worked in close cooperation with the National Health Administration and the Chinese Red Cross.

The Health Administration's original plan of organizing ten mobile medical corps became a reality when the three CNRRA medical relief corps and seven anti-epidemic corps were inaugurated. The work of the various agencies was well organized and integrated. At one time CNRRA's Health Commission had over 1,000 men in the field engaged in medical relief.

Despite the scarcity of field personnel, CNRRA was able to do considerable preventive work in checking several epidemic diseases.

Plague Prevention—In the spring of 1949, when plague broke out in the southeast, CNRRA mobilized its regional medical units to aid local and national health authorities. A few foreign plague experts were also sent to help suppress the spreading danger. Essential supplies and equipment sufficient to inoculate and treat a half million people were sent and used in the work before the epidemic was finally checked.

In the northeast, plague also assumed epidemic proportions in 1946. Despite communist attacks, CNRRA's Third Medical Relief Corps proceeded to Sze ping-kai and inoculated 98,000 persons with plague vaccine. In Mukden the Third Corps gave inoculations to 129,000 persons. At both places plague victims were given medical treatment while disinfection, fumigation, and rat control measures were put into effect. By the end of March, 1946, these areas were considered practically free from plague. Just about this time the pneumonic type was reported in Harbin.

Although Harbin was still in communist hands, nevertheless, a unit of the Third Corps was sent there in June, 1946. Between June and November, 1946, members of the unit inoculated some 420,000 persons.

In plague prevention and control, CNRRA's own personnel inoculated over 1-million persons, gave medical treatment to the victims, sent experts to the affected areas, and carried out effective rat control measures. In addition, it provided other health agencies engaged in the work with the necessary funds, supplies, control equipment and vaccine.

Anti-Cholera Work.—In 1947, cholera raged from January to November over a wide area extending from the Northeastern Provinces to Hainan island in the south. The northeast, Hunan and Kwangtung were the hardest hit. The facilities of all national and local health organizations were concentrated on controlling and suppressing the pestilence. Anti-epidemic corps of the National Health Administration operated throughout central China. CNRRA's medical relief corps were at work in south China and in the northeast.

In the course of this anti-cholera campaign, 9,600,000 were inoculated and over 57,000 patients isolated and treated. The water supply in many places was improved. In Nanking, Tientsin, Canton, Hankow, and Pengpu, 320,000 m. of drainage were cleared of approximately 1,500,000 cu. m. of silt. In over 50 cities and large districts, some 39,000 drums of DDT were sprayed over an area of 40-million sq. m. Over 2,500 public latrines were improved and cleaned. More than 20 cities were cleared of garbage totalling 18-million cu. m., 3,600 wells were disinfected and innumerable stagnant ponds and cesspools were drained off or filled in.

Kala-azar Prevention.—For kala-azar prevention, a joint CNRRA-UNRRA field unit was sent into north Kiangsu to treat patients and to train medical personnel to combat the disease. Unsettled conditions in north Kiangsu interfered with the full enforcement of the program. The four teams that eventually undertook the work succeeded in treating 50,000 patients. The Kala-azar hospital originally planned for Hwaiyin in north Kiangsu had to be abandoned because of communist disturbances there.

PERSONNEL TRAINING

CNRRA had long perceived the urgency for augmenting the number of China's health personnel. According to the National Health Administration's estimate, postwar China would require a medical personnel of 34,000 in order to service an additional 50,000 hospital beds and to bring the ratio of bed to population up to one to 5,000. Besides launching a training program, CNRRA forwarded to UNRRA a request for the services of 885 foreign medical workers, to be assigned to actual work and at the same time to train unqualified doctors and medical corps personnel. The original plan visualized the possible processing of 34,629 medical workers of different types.

The training program was inaugurated in July, 1945, under the supervision of

the National Health Institute. A training center was founded in Chungking and classes in medicine and in public health began in September, 1945. Medical courses were given in cooperation with the Chungking Central Hospital, National Hsiangya (Yale-in-China) Medical College and National Shanghai Medical College. Public health courses were given directly by the National Health Institute. After V-J Day, additional centers were established in Nanking and Peiping with the help of the Nanking Central Hospital and the Peiping Chungho Hospital, while public health training was conducted by the National Health Institute in Nanking and its branch in Peiping.

Medical training included medicine, general surgery, obstetrics, pediatrics, radiology. Students were classified into a refresher group in clinical medicine and a general medical group for non-qualified doctors. Training courses were also offered to nurses, mid-wives, clinical laboratory technicians, and technical assistants.

Classes in public health were conducted for health inspectors, sanitary engineers, nurses, midwives and chemists. Among the subjects taught were control of communicable diseases, nutrition, sanitary chemistry, obstetrics and pediatrics.

The length of training varied from three months to two years according to the nature of the courses and the qualification of the trainees. At the completion of the work, the graduates were assigned to medical institutions in the various CNRRA regional offices. Altogether 383 graduates were thus assigned to various provincial and district hospitals. At the end of 1947, 166 persons were still under training. Besides, many similar short-term training courses were conducted by health divisions of the CNRRA regional offices.

Of the 885 foreign medical personnel requested only 142 were finally provided by UNRRA. Eight of them were dropped and three requested leave before their service period was up. Practically the entire number participated at one time or another in training work. Under the leadership of Dr. B. Boric, many of them made important contributions to CNRRA's personnel training program.

HOSPITAL REHABILITATION

In 1947, CNRRA and the National Health Administration succeeded in obtaining an appropriation of CNC\$6-billion relief and rehabilitation funds. Allocation of the sum was under the supervision of the National Health Administration but the proposed utilization of the money by

the separate institutions had to be screened and approved by the Executive Yuan before it could be disbursed. Only those institutions which were of a permanent nature and with adequate and qualified medical personnel were entitled to aid. In addition, CNRRA, through its regional offices, contributed to the rebuilding of 530 medical institutions by subsidizing labor with UNRRA flour.

Distribution of Medical Supplies.—Aside from the allocation of material to special projects and programs, UNRRA medical supplies were allocated only to those institutions which met the following requirements:

A. Responsible head of the institution must be a qualified medical man, of upright character and with a good record of achievement in the medical field.

B. The institution must have a budget for running expenses and does not have to rely upon receipts to meet operating expenditures.

C. The institutions should maintain at least 40% of third class beds; should give free medical service to at least 30% of its out-patients. They would be ethically operated and should maintain a high standard of proficiency.

Altogether 1,881 hospitals and other medical institutions and units received CNRRA aid. They included 245 missionary hospitals; 3 central experimental medical centers; 5 central hospitals; 45 teaching hospitals or medical colleges; 102 provincial and 68 municipal hospitals; 94 public hospitals; 33 railway hospitals; 29 anti-epidemic corps; 17 medical teams; 786 medical centers, and 454 others.

TABLE 13.—DISTRIBUTION OF CNRRA MEDICAL SUPPLIES IN LONG TONS, SEPTEMBER, 1945, TO DECEMBER, 1947

<i>Region</i>	<i>Total</i>
Anhwei	732,846
Chekiang	1,992,603
Taiwan	414,789
Honan	1,001,009
Hopei-Jehol-Peiping	1,398,144
Hunan	1,572,823
Hupeh	1,288,603
Kiangsi	940,326
Kiangsu-Nanking	2,720,289
Kwangsi	965,282
Kwangtung	2,120,683
Northeast	1,204,721
Shanghai	1,152,726
Shansi-Chahar-Suiyuan	547,793
Shantung-Tsingtao	1,107,136
Szechwan	245,860
Yunnan	257,250
Kweichow	125,500

Sikang	54,900
Kansu	19,100
Shensi	14,000
Sinkiang	3,300
Chinghai	2,600
MOAF	16,500
Communist Areas	2,661,317
Others	3,463,410
Grand Total	26,023,510

Source: Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration

AMERICAN BUREAU FOR MEDICAL AID TO CHINA

The American Bureau of Medical Aid to China was founded in 1937 by three Chinese and two Americans in the United States to help meet China's medical needs in time of war. From its very beginning it has operated as a Sino-American group on contributions from Americans interested in China and from Chinese in the United States. It has on its board leading professional and lay Americans and Chinese who devote themselves to the study of China's medical education and health programs.

Wartime activities of ABMAC included the introduction of new medicines such as sulfa drugs, penicillin and streptomycin; the establishment of a blood bank staffed by personnel trained in the U. S.; and the soliciting of funds for 260 truck-ambulances as well as surgical instruments, microscopes, autoclaves, vaccines and drugs from Chinese communities in the Western Hemisphere. Equipment to set up a plant to manufacture vaccine in China was flown over the "Hump" when war conditions made it impossible to send large quantities of much needed drugs to combat epidemics.

ABMAC's postwar contributions included the donation of equipment for a pilot penicillin plant, now operating in Peiping, and for three Phyrogen-free fluid plants in Shanghai, Nanking and Canton.

The present program, aimed at augmenting China's urgent need for more medical technicians and education, includes the sending of training equipment, laboratory and research supplies to medical colleges and an expanded fellowship program which offers one-year post-graduate study in the United States to faculty members of Chinese medical colleges. A recent innovation in the fellowship program was the sending of leading American professors to conduct short courses in China to acquaint Chinese medical teachers with new developments in medical science in 1948.

CHAPTER 35

RELIEF AND REHABILITATION

The work of post-war relief and rehabilitation in China was as diversified as it was immense, and it has been executed with varying degrees of success by such Chinese and foreign agencies as CNRRA, UNRRA, BOTRA, EYCARS, CRM, CUSA and ECA. A host of others, including the Ministry of Social Affairs, the Red Cross and the various relief and welfare agencies of foreign countries, have also contributed materially to the work as a whole.

As of October 19, 1948, some of these agencies such as CNRRA, UNRRA, EYCARS and CRM had concluded their operations in China. What was left unfinished has been carried on by their successor organizations. The uncompleted, long-term rehabilitation projects of CNRRA and UNRRA were taken over by the continuing agencies, the Commission on Rehabilitation Affairs and the Board of Trustees for Rehabilitation Affairs (BOTRA), while CNRRA's relief activities were re-assigned to the Ministry of Social Affairs. At the end of September, 1948, BOTRA concluded its aid to all but two of the various carry-over organs of the UNRRA family in China—the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). All unfinished projects of the Executive Yuan Commission for American Relief Supplies (EYCARS) and the China Relief Mission (CRM) were upon their conclusion on June 30, 1948 carried forward by their successors, the Council on United States Aid (CUSA) of the Executive Yuan and the China Division of the United States Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA).

I. CNRRA

CHINA AND UNRRA

China became a member of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration on November 9, 1943 when

her representative, Dr. Tingfu F. Tsiang, signed, together with representatives of 43 other nations, the Relief and Rehabilitation Agreement establishing the historic international organization which, as events later proved, set the pattern for cooperative effort among nations and demonstrated the feasibility of such cooperation.

Within the UNRRA organization China occupied a highly important position. From the very beginning she acted as chairman of the Far Eastern Regional Committee—a regular planning body composed of Australia, New Zealand, the Netherlands, France, the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union and China.

Since China suffered heavy material losses during her eight years of war with Japan, she was unable to make any donation to UNRRA. Conversely, she needed UNRRA's help to repair the devastations of war and to rehabilitate her national economy.

UNRRA supplies earmarked for China for relief and rehabilitation purposes covered a variety of items. These may be divided into five main categories, procured by UNRRA from different parts of the world. According to the *"UNRRA Report on Fulfillment of Country Programs, November 1947,"* the total value of UNRRA supplies shipped into China by the end of 1947 when CNRRA announced its liquidation was US\$517,500,000. Table 1 (see page 708) gives a statistical breakdown of such supplies.

CNRRA AND ITS ACTIVITIES

For the administration of post-war relief and rehabilitation in China and the fulfillment of agreed obligations of the Chinese government toward UNRRA, the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (CNRRA) was established under the Executive Yuan on January 1, 1945, and Dr. Tingfu F. Tsiang was appointed its Director-General. At the end of that month an UNRRA China

**TABLE 1.—UNRRA SUPPLIES SCHEDULED FOR CHINA AND
ACTUAL STOCKS RECEIVED
(Unit: US\$1,000)**

Program Items	Budget	Received	Not Received
Food.....	US\$133,488	US\$133,200	US\$ 288
Clothing.....	114,900	113,400	1,500
Medicine and sanitation	31,762	31,700	62
Agricultural and fishery rehabilitation...	78,000	72,500	5,500
Industrial-Commercial rehabilitation ...	171,500	166,700	4,800
Frozen 1%	5,350	..	5,350
TOTAL.....	US\$535,000	US\$517,500	US\$17,500

office was inaugurated to help CNRRA carry out its program. In spirit and in planning, these two organizations conceived their relations as a partnership while in actual administration the burden fell on CNRRA, with the aid of a large number of UNRRA experts. CNRRA was the representative agency of the Chinese government for UNRRA in accordance with the basic agreement; it was also an executive organ of the Chinese government in relief and rehabilitation matters.

From January till V-J Day, 1945, however, the total amount of UNRRA supplies received was less than 100 tons, since all of these had to be flown in from India. The *S. S. Emile Vidal* was the first ship that carried UNRRA supplies across the ocean, arriving at Shanghai on November 8, 1945. From that time until the liquidation of UNRRA and CNRRA at the end of 1947, a total of about 2,360,000 tons of UNRRA supplies were imported into China, at an average interval of two and a half shiploads per day. These supplies were worth more than US\$517-million, which was twice as much as China's annual import in prewar days. The activities of UNRRA and CNRRA lasted more than two years.

CNRRA and its subsidiary agencies handled the distribution of food and clothing as well as the repatriation of displaced persons in recovered areas. In projects of a rehabilitating and reconstructive nature, CNRRA cooperated with affiliated government organizations by handing supplies over to the various ministries concerned for the rehabilitation of railways, highways, hospitals, river dikes, industry and mining. CNRRA also helped the ministries in the form of work relief.

CNRRA operations covered almost all recovered areas in the country: the provinces of Kiangsu, Anhwei, Kiangsi, Hunan, Hupeh, Honan, Shantung, Hopei, Jehol, Shansi, Chahar, Suiyuan, Chekiang, Kwangtung, Kwangsi, Taiwan and the nine Northeastern Provinces, and the municipalities of Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin and Tsingtao. Altogether CNRRA maintained 15 regional offices and two special offices in western Yunnan and Fukiens.

To facilitate work in communist-held areas, three other special offices were set up under CNRRA control. Therefore the activities of CNRRA stretched from the Northeastern Provinces to Hainan island, from Taiwan to western Yunnan, covering an area of approximately the size of the United States.

How to move relief and rehabilitation supplies around in a war-torn land which, even before the war, had but a scanty provision of transportation facilities was a great problem. CNRRA had to use part of the communication supplies from UNRRA stock for the establishment of CNRRA Highway Transport (CHT), CNRRA Waterways Transport (CWT) and CNRRA Airways Transport (CAT). Supply offices were also established at Shanghai, Tientsin, Kowloon, Canton and Dairen to take care of unloading and transshipment.

During the two years of its operations, CNRRA's activities chronologically fell into two periods. From October 1945 through September 1946, CNRRA devoted its efforts primarily to relief work. After 1946, the emphasis of its work was shifted to rehabilitation. Altogether some 900,000 tons of food and

some 28,000 tons of clothing were distributed to about 60-million needy people in all the recovered areas.

One of the outstanding successes in China's post-war rehabilitation was the closure of the Yellow river gap in March, 1947 so that the river could return to its former course—a monument to the cooperative effort of CNRRA and the Ministry of Water Conservancy. About 50,000 laborers were hired on a work-relief basis to reclaim millions of acres of land inundated by flood waters.

Also, through the joint efforts of CNRRA and the Ministry of Water Conservancy, river dikes at the lower reaches of the Yangtze and Yellow river were repaired.

Again, collaboration between CNRRA and the Ministry of Communications made possible the restoration of the Canton-Hankow and Chekiang-Kiangsi railways, both of which were extensively damaged during the war.

FINANCING OF THE CNRRA PROGRAM

According to estimates of the Executive Yuan's Commission on Planning and Investigation of Relief and Rehabilitation, China's relief and rehabilitation program had to be financed both externally and internally. The program called for the import of 10-million tons of supplies valued at US\$2,530-million and internal expenditures were set at CNC\$2,727-million at the prewar purchasing power of the Chinese dollar. A little over one-third of the total import requirements, i.e. 37% and valued at US\$945-million in 4-million tons was requested from UNRRA. The balance of over US\$1,500-million of necessary imports would have to be financed by China herself.

At the outset CNRRA decided that the operating funds were to be obtained through sale of certain categories of supplies and appropriations by the Chinese government.

To sell supplies and use the proceeds to cover operational expenses was the measure adopted by all beneficiary countries. In some European countries UNRRA sold over one-fifth of the supplies. The quantity of supplies sold in China was somewhat larger in proportion because China's requirements had been cut down greatly and because many of CNRRA's operations were of a most urgent nature, requiring the prompt availability of enormous operational

funds. Most of the supplies were sold by direct distribution instead of being put on the free market. In this way the supplies were not sold merely for profit but also to fill public relief needs. Only one-twentieth of the total UNRRA grant—the equivalent of US\$28,582,000 approximately was involved in these sales. Furthermore, to abide by the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Agreement and to fulfill its own mission, CNRRA could not allow the supplies to be sold for military use, and in all cases granted priority to purchase or receive them to the victims of war.

CNRRA's financing policy might, therefore, be defined thus:

(a) It tried to attain the maximum utilization of the limited supplies;

(b) As the supplies were contributed by the peoples of the United Nations, all its accounts were open to their representative organization, UNRRA, and in all steps taken it abided by the basic agreement, and

(c) In view of China's slow progress in postwar economic recovery and in view of the inflation which could not be effectively checked, CNRRA's policy was to lighten the burden of the national treasury as much as possible by making direct distribution of the supplies, thereby also contributing toward slowing down inflation of the Chinese currency.

During the two years' operation CNRRA's financing came to depend more upon the proceeds from the sales of supplies than on government appropriations. In fact the sales proceeds alone could not at all times meet the needs for operational funds, and in the case of very urgent needs CNRRA resorted to overdrafts from the banks. Converted into CNC\$ month by month at prewar purchasing power government appropriations and bank overdrafts totalled CNC\$54,112,000, equivalent to US\$25,593,000 while the sales proceeds totalled CNC\$62,330,000, equivalent to US\$28,582,000. In reality, the latter represented only a little over half of the grand total of CNRRA's operational expenditure.

CHINA'S EXPENDITURES ON RELIEF AND REHABILITATION

CNRRA's total expenditures from its inception until its liquidation were CNC-\$1,946,607 - million equivalent to CNC-\$116,440,000 at the prewar purchasing power of the Chinese dollar. Adding these figures to those of government

appropriations for relief and rehabilitation in 1946-47 (CNC\$1,350,285-million equivalent to prewar CNC\$146,684,000). China's expenditures on relief and rehabilitation totalled CNC\$263-million at prewar value.

The sum of CNC\$116,440,000 included CNRRA's advances to the UNRRA China Office amounting to US\$6,659,000 or prewar CNC\$14,109,000. Notwithstanding this fact, CNRRA's actual expenditures were only two-fifths (US\$47,516,000) of UNRRA allocations (US\$112,500,000) for ocean transportation of supplies to China. In view of the fact that UNRRA's operations in China extended to the far corners of a country where the means of transportation were inadequate or primitive, the relative cost of inland distribution proved to be much higher than that for ocean transportation. Furthermore, CNRRA obtained from the sales of the supplies only one-twentieth of the value of the supplies allocated to China. Compared with similar operations in some of the European countries, the CNRRA program was the least expensive of all.

ALLOCATION OF UNRRA SUPPLIES

By nature of the various operations UNRRA supplies might be classified into the following categories: relief, health, agriculture, industry, water conservancy, etc. The relief supplies were distributed directly by the CNRRA-UNRRA Joint Requirements and Allocation Committee to the victims of war. This committee was the supreme policy-making organ, consisting of three members, CNRRA's deputy director-general, CNRRA's director of Allocation Bureau and a representative from UNRRA.

As to the other supplies, CNRRA and the various ministries and commissions of the Chinese government formulated joint plans and then made allocation by contracts, or the supplies were transferred to the ministries and commissions for allocation by themselves. The bases of allocation were as follows:

(a) *Relief Supplies*: These, consisting of foodstuffs, nutriment, clothing and welfare services, were distributed according to the degree of damage in the region, the number of refugees, the crop conditions in the land, and the status of transportation.

(b) *Medical Supplies and Equipment*: These were equitably distributed free of charge to all needy regions.

(c) *Agricultural Supplies*: Agricultural equipment was made use of by the Agricultural Machinery Operations and Management Office, an operating agency of CNRRA and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, to train farmers in the use of modern implements. Supplies such as cotton seeds, rice seeds, insecticides and fertilizer powder, were distributed according to needs, and were sent free of charge to regions specified by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Training of Chinese in the use of modern fishing craft was undertaken by the Fishery Rehabilitation Administration.

(d) *Communication and Transportation Supplies*: Telegraph and telephone, railroads and highways, all being government enterprises, most of these UNRRA supplies were handed over to the Ministry of Communications, which in turn made the allocations. A part of the transportation and telegraphic equipment was reserved by CNRRA to solve its own problem of communication and transportation.

(e) *Industrial Machinery and Equipment*: These were distributed to factories and mines damaged by war in the formerly occupied areas. The aid would be discontinued once they had recovered their prewar production capacity.

(f) *Water Conservancy Supplies*: These were distributed to the Ministry of Water Conservancy. (In addition, flour for the laborers employed on conservancy projects was distributed directly by the working teams of CNRRA under projects of work relief.)

During the period of CNRRA's existence 2,360,000 tons of UNRRA supplies came to China. Although, due to the exigencies of an internal armed insurrection and other factors, interruptions of transportation and freezing of the supplies caused some change in the allocation program, on the whole the maximum use of the supplies was made. The final status of allocation was as follows:

	Tons
Government ministries and commissions	444,000
Regional offices (including supplies to the areas not through the offices)	1,263,000
Long-term projects and CNRRA agencies	231,000
Supplies sold	422,000
Total	2,360,000

The allocations to the government ministries and commissions in round figures were:

	<i>Tons</i>
Ministry of Communications.....	325,000
Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry	89,000
Ministry of Water Conservancy	22,000
National Resources Commission	8,000
Total	444,000

The allocations to the CNRRA regional offices, excluding those not made through them, were:

	<i>Tons</i>
Hunan	185,300
Kwangsi	113,429
Honan	113,089
Kwangtung	108,664
Kiangsu-Nanking	81,410
Anhwei	76,647
Hupei	59,835
Taiwan	64,088
Chekiang	34,643
Kiangsi	34,522
Shanghai	30,830
Fukien	28,899
Hopei-Jehol-Peiping-Tientsin	52,283
Shantung-Tsingtao	40,147
Shansi-Chahar-Suiyuan	27,784
Northeastern Provinces	24,337
Communist areas	44,110
Total	1,120,017

Over 90% of the supplies in tonnage for the regional offices were food. One half of the allocation for north China consisted of clothing which was more urgently needed there than in the south. Medical supplies were also in general demand. Allocations of industrial equipment for certain areas was necessarily small because no adequate use could be made of them on account of the communist insurrection. Chemical fertilizer was the biggest item in agricultural allocations, and it was mostly sold to farmers in Taiwan.

As to the allocations to the long-term projects and CNRRA agencies, these represented what was left of the supplies after the allocations had been made to the ministries and commissions. They were made use of either by CNRRA agencies or by organizations under the joint control of CNRRA and the ministries. The former included the Agricultural Industries Service (AIS), CNRRA Highway Transport (CHT), CNRRA Water Transport (CWT), CNRRA Airway Transport (CAT), etc., while the latter comprised the Agricultural Machinery Operations and Management

Office (AMOMO), National Agricultural Engineering Corporation (NAEC), and Fisheries Rehabilitation Administration (FRA). The allocations to these organizations in round figures were as follows:

	<i>Tons</i>
AMOMO	48,000
NAEC	56,000
FRA	25,000
AIS	1,000
CNRRA agencies	101,000

Total 231,000

The 442,000 tons of supplies allocated by sale were of four classes: food, cotton, industrial equipment, and non-relief supplies. Most of them were sold in Shanghai.

TRANSPORTATION AND DISTRIBUTION

Of the 2,360,000 tons of UNRRA supplies turned over to China, actually only about 1,200,000 tons were distributed through the various CNRRA Regional Offices, including the communist areas. The rest were allocated for the following purposes:

(a) 440,000 tons were apportioned to the ministries and commissions and were delivered to them at the end of ship's tackle;

(b) 470,000 tons were either sold or kept for CNRRA's own long-term projects;

(c) about 91,000 tons of gas, petrol, oils and lubricants were consumed by CNRRA agencies, and

(d) 150,000 tons of fertilizers were shipped to Taiwan by UNRRA.

It was a tremendously difficult task, however, for CNRRA to effect the transportation and distribution of the 1,200,000 tons of UNRRA supplies within a period of 18 months. The greatest difficulty it encountered was the lack of both transportation and storage facilities. Most of China's arteries of transport had been either destroyed or crippled during the war while her remaining ones were subject to disruption amidst a nation-wide internal rebellion.

On V-J Day in China, out of a total prewar length of 14,800 km. of railroad, only 11,990 km. were usable. The lines that resumed service were Nanking-Shanghai, Shanghai-Hangchow, Peiping-Tientsin, Hsuechow-Pukow, etc., totaling about 3,000 km. Of the country's total length 93,188 km. of highway, only 13,928 remained in operation. And of this number only about 6,000 km. proved

useful to CNRRA, a little more than 6% of the highways before the war.

The foreign mercantile shipping for inland water transportation had entirely stopped; Chinese government and merchants' ships had a total of 200,000 tons, less than one-fifth of China's pre-war tonnage. There were about 30,000 sailboats in the inland rivers and lakes and the navigable distance totalled about 33,000 km., of which 30% in the communist areas and 20% in the southwestern provinces proved inaccessible to CNRRA.

The question of warehousing was also a difficult one. About 30% of the warehouses in the large cities and ports had been destroyed during the war while about 50% of them were dilapidated and unusable. The others were either crowded with goods left by the Japanese or occupied by U. S. Army personnel or Chinese soldiers. About 40% of the jetties and wharves had been destroyed and 45% of them out of repair and useless, while the rest were occupied by either U. S. or Chinese military personnel.

To cope with these difficulties, CNRRA adopted the following measures:

(a) While supplies allocated in advance to the ministries and commissions were delivered at the end of the ship's tackle those for local organizations were also delivered at the warehouses immediately after the allocations had been made.

(b) In order that the supplies might be properly classified, repacked and handled various organizations concerned were asked to take part in the work.

(c) A special government appropriation was granted to cover the transportation and warehousing expenses, but the UNRRA China office was asked to sell as soon as possible the supplies already agreed upon for sale.

(d) Apart from the rental of inland river steamships from both Chinese and foreign lines, CNRRA organized its own highway transport, waterway transport and airway transport.

(e) CNRRA either rented or constructed altogether 121 warehouses with a storage capacity of 731,084 tons; it also borrowed the surplus jetties and wharves of the U. S. Army.

In addition, the Chinese government allowed discounts of 25% to 75% for the transportation of UNRRA supplies over government railroads and by shipping lines.

Six CNRRA supply offices were set

up in Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Hankow, Canton and Kowloon. They were charged with the transportation, warehousing and distribution of the supplies within Chinese territory.

Of the total quantities of CNRRA supplies 64% were shipped from Shanghai; 13% from Kowloon; 6% from Tientsin; 3.3% from Tsingtao; 1.3% from Canton, and 0.4% from Darien. Of the total shipping 80% was by waterway; 9% by railroad; 7% by highway, and 4% by airway.

In the interior sailboats were used in short haulage. In many cases human transport was employed. Other primitive means included wheelbarrows and mule carts. CNRRA, however, made maximum use of its own transportation organizations (CHT, CWT and CAT) since many of the otherwise available public facilities were already heavily taxed by military and other exigencies.

CNRRA Highway Transport—It had a fleet of 1,200 trucks grouped into nine divisions operating all over China. By the time it was dissolved in July 1947 it had run 43,875,421 ton-kilometers. It not only shipped relief supplies but also assisted in the rehabilitation of truck service in the recovered areas.

CNRRA Waterway Transport—CWT was composed of 207 vessels including LCM's, LST's, LSM's and barges. Its total loading tonnage was 105,700 m. tons.

CNRRA Airway Transport—CAT was organized by a contract with Maj. Gen. Claire Chennault who invested US\$1-million for initial expenditure and UNRRA borrowed on his behalf from UNRRA US\$3-million as running capital. CAT planes, totalling 12, were permitted to fly to designated places along the coast and in south China and to the interior where there were CNRRA regional offices.

Upon CNRRA termination all its transportation activities were transferred to the Ministry of Communications. A number of motor vehicles were kept by the succeeding BOTRA for its long-term projects. CAT was reorganized as a commercial enterprise. The special warehouses built for medical supplies, automobile equipment and industrial machinery were transferred to the related agencies of the two successor organizations, the Commission on Rehabilitation Affairs and BOTRA.

SUSPENSION OF UNRRA SUPPLIES

CNRRA's operation throughout its two years' existence was only marred by one unfortunate incident—the suspension of

UNRRA supplies during July-September, 1946. The one cause openly declared by UNRRA was that most of UNRRA supplies were delayed in the Chinese ports and that there was no way to make adequate use of them.

In June and July, 1946 the greatest transportation bottleneck occurred in Shanghai, with about 4-million tons of supplies accumulated. Transportation was delayed because the government appropriation was not forthcoming and because the communist rebellion interrupted communications. It was the hottest season of the year and the heat and humidity hastened the decay of food supplies in the warehouses. Consequently, there was international criticism against CNRRA and on July 4 of that year UNRRA ordered the suspension of supplies to China. The north China port, Tientsin, also had similar difficulties.

In this connection, it is to be noted that the haulage in the interior was done mostly by sailboats. In Hunan, Kwangtung, Fukien, Shantung and Kwangsi the inland river steamships could only be used occasionally. Railways and highways in most cases were preoccupied with military transportation. CNRRA's last resort was human labor and it was human transport that carried CNRRA supplies to the most remote villages almost inaccessible by any other means of transportation.

After September, 1946, with the resumption of UNRRA shipments to China, UNRRA furnished more industrial machinery and equipment. By February, 1947 the shipment of relief supplies came to an end. Thereafter UNRRA supplies were nearly all capital goods, and CNRRA's operations were within the scope of rehabilitation for which the original program included communications, transportation, agriculture and fishery, industry and mining, flooded areas, health and medical care, and social services. These rehabilitation enterprises were of vital importance to the Chinese people. Their operation funds were to come from the sales proceeds of the supplies. The capital goods for communications, water conservancy, industry and mining, agriculture, etc. were to be sold chiefly to the ministries and commissions. The estimated value of these goods amounted to US\$200-million.

REPATRIATION

One of the most urgent activities CNRRA undertook in China following V-J Day was aid to displaced persons

returning to their homes and to overseas refugees going back to their former places of domicile.

When the war ended, an enormous number of refugees were in Free China awaiting transportation to return to their homes. These included students and teachers, laborers, and peasants. Added to the problem of repatriation were the thousands of overseas Chinese who, after the attack on Pearl Harbor were driven from their homes in Hongkong, Indo-China, Burma, Thailand, and other points in southeastern Asia, either back to China or to other foreign lands. There were also in China hundreds of displaced or stranded foreign nationals, who had to be either repatriated to their own countries or sent elsewhere.

Up to its termination in December, 1947 CNRRA succeeded in the repatriation of (1) 1,493,416 Chinese citizens to their homes in the country; (2) 27,802 overseas Chinese to their former places of domicile; (3) 46,454 overseas Chinese to China, and (4) 35,134 foreigners to their home countries or other destinations. This CNRRA activity was carried on by the Ministry of Social Affairs which inherited CNRRA's unfinished relief program.

(A) INTERNAL REPATRIATION

The task of helping millions of refugees to return to their homes was beset with difficulties. There was, for instance, the lack of sufficient statistical data regarding the exact number and whereabouts of the displaced persons who were placing reliance upon CNRRA aid for repatriation. According to a rough estimate of the former Chinese National Relief Commission, about 10-million persons received the help of its various agencies while journeying from occupied areas to Free China. After V-J Day, the repatriation program of the Chinese Government contemplated aid to only 3-million of this number, while the remaining 7-million were presumed able to find their own means for return.

The problem was that the necessary vast funds and adequate transport facilities were both lacking.

The operation of the CNRRA repatriation program was based on the following principles: (1) No aid was given to persons already settled in their new homes; (2) no encouragement was given to persons to return to their native places unless they had really good reasons for repatriation; (3) refugees were encouraged to stay where they had work or

to go where they might have a chance to make a living, and (4) CNRRA bore all the expenses incurred during travel.

The CNRRA repatriation operation was begun in September, 1945, being initiated by investigations regarding the number of refugees involved and the available means of transportation. In various areas refugee offices and repatriation depots were established. Three repatriation centers were opened in Chungking, Kunming and Kweiyang; while the 15 CNRRA regional offices in the formerly occupied areas set up repatriation stations along the main transportation lines along which the refugees travelled. By June, 1947 two additional repatriation centers were established at Sian and Shanghai.

The displaced persons were repatriated by all available means of transport including highways, railroads, steamships, sailboats, and animal carts, when no other means were available. Air travel was rare, except for the few well-to-do overseas Chinese, who took the CNRRA Airway Transport planes to make ocean steamship connection. Fare reductions were made in most cases, while free tickets were given the needy ones.

The standard repatriation procedure was that before departure displaced persons underwent medical examination and vaccination. While waiting for transportation, they were all provided with free board and lodging, milk for children and other daily necessities. At the time of departure the CNRRA regional office or repatriation depot wired ahead informing the next center or station of the date of arrival of the displaced persons, and followed up by mailing all records of registration and other details concerning the repatriated persons. When the refugees reached their destinations CNRRA either

dismissed them with a gift in money or tried to find work for them. Of the 1,493,416 displaced persons thus repatriated with CNRRA aid, 71,988 were repatriated through the National Highway Administration.

(B) EXTERNAL REPATRIATION

By the end of the war 204,911 overseas Chinese had sought refuge in China. It was estimated that over 60,000 of them were unable to return to their former places of domicile without aid. An investigation showed that there were about 55,000 overseas Chinese stranded in Europe and other places, awaiting aid to return to China.

In the repatriation of overseas Chinese to their former places of domicile, and aid to Chinese nationals stranded abroad to return to China, CNRRA worked closely with the Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It also kept in close touch with the Ministry of Social Affairs, which handled general relief, and the Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs which maintained branches all over the world.

In November, 1945, CNRRA began to make plans for the repatriation of overseas Chinese refugees. UNRRA agreed to handle the ocean transportation for 42,000 displaced overseas Chinese who returned to southeastern Asia between July, 1946 to March, 1947. It appropriated US\$1,700,000 for this purpose and established the UNRRA Hongkong repatriation office in June, 1946. To facilitate liaison with the UNRRA office, the CNRRA Hongkong representative's office for repatriation was set up in September.

Altogether 27,802 displaced overseas Chinese were returned to their homes

**TABLE 2.—REPATRIATION OF DISPLACED OVERSEAS CHINESE
Up to September, 1947**

To	Canton	Swatow	Foochow	Amoy	Shanghai	Kunming	Formosa	Total
Burma.....	2,744	614	..	3,275	..	4,102	..	10,735
Singapore and Malaya....	2,380	2,293	1,369	7,517	90	13,649
Indonesia....	68	212	117	401	11	809
North Borneo..	11	14	..	8	33
Sarawak.....	25	409	641	32	1,107
Thailand.....	304	1,040	..	16	1,360
Indo-China...	30	59	..	20	109
TOTAL.....	5,562	4,641	2,127	11,269	90	4,102	11	27,802

**TABLE 3.—DISPLACED OVERSEAS CHINESE IN CHINA PORTS
AWAITING REPATRIATION
As of September, 1947**

Port	Destination						Total
	Burma	Indo- nesia	Indo- China	Philip- pines	Thai- land	Sarawak	
Amoy.....	3,856	2,600	450	5,480	12,386
Foochow.....	2,200	2,600	30	16	4,846
Swatow.....	3,386	1,700	30	..	70	36	5,222
Canton.....	2,780	..	250	3,030
Nanking, Shanghai.	60	..	30	..	60	5	155
Formosa.....	..	500	500
Haikow.....	12	..	15	5	32
Liuchow.....	528	..	200	728
Yunnan.....	2,500	2,500
TOTAL.....	15,310	7,400	1,002	5,496	145	46	29,399

abroad in southeastern Asia up to the end of September, 1947; while those still on Chinese soil awaiting repatriation totaled 29,399. By October all such CNRRA repatriation operations has been transferred to the Far East office of the International Refugee Organization.

Meanwhile, a total of 46,454 displaced Chinese nationals abroad had been brought back to China. The repatriates included those who fled from China to southeastern Asia during the war and later were taken prisoner by Japan and became forced laborers. There were other Chinese who were stranded abroad by the war.

According to investigations by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the CNRRA Repatriation Representative's Office in Hongkong, there were still 7,850 displaced Chinese in foreign countries up to September, 1947. This phase of the external repatriation work was also expected to be concluded by the International Refugee Organization.

(c) REPATRIATION OF FOREIGNERS

After V-J Day many foreigners in China were in financial difficulties and hoped to return to their native countries or go to other places to start anew. Germans, Italians and Japanese, being enemy aliens were handled by the Ministry of National Defense and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. There were about 16,000 other Europeans in China, and Koreans and Liuchiu (Ryukyu) Islanders equally entitled to repatriation aid. Although UNRRA was charged with the repatria-

tion of foreigners in China, CNRRA extended to them the same kind of aid it gave to Chinese refugees, taking care of their transportation from the interior to the coastal ports where UNRRA steamers took them home or to other destinations. By September, 1947 CNRRA repatriated 35,134 foreigners, of whom 6,930 were Europeans, 19,983 Koreans, and 8,221 Liuchiu Islanders. Actually there were 58,133 Koreans repatriated, but 38,150 of them were repatriated by UNRRA and U. S. Army directly from Chinese coastal ports.

DIRECT RELIEF

From its earliest stage the entire relief program for postwar China laid special stress on combining relief and rehabilitation work; for CNRRA acted on the belief that the best possible kind of aid was that which tended to promote national rehabilitation through relief. It was not on relief but on reconstruction that the future of China depended.

CNRRA's relief efforts were mainly in two directions: Direct relief including repatriation of displaced persons, emergency aid to the needy in towns and villages, and establishment of institutions for the aged, invalids and children. Work relief, which means refugees who received immediate aid were asked to participate in rehabilitation work.

The war-torn areas in China extended to 28 provinces were devastated cities and towns, disrupted lines of transportation, and many millions of hungry, sick and

homeless people were found. Investigations indicated that the number of famine-stricken people in need of immediate relief in the most severely ravaged provinces such as Hunan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Honan and Anhwei reached well above the 20-million mark. In the whole country up to June, 1946 there were still about 40-million refugees in need of relief; at least 33-million of whom lacked food and clothing and 7-million were actually suffering from starvation. This condition did not improve during 1947.

In the administration of emergency relief CNRRA distributed food, clothing, shelter and cash, utilizing UNRRA supplies. The amount of relief given to the refugees varied according to their actual needs, which differed greatly in degree. The minimum necessary amount of foodstuff was freely given to persons suffering actual hunger, while children and expectant mothers were given additional nutritious food. While clothing was distributed to needy persons, those actually homeless received blankets and other essential materials. Temporary shelter and specially-built houses for refugees were also furnished on a limited scale by CNRRA. Cash was distributed only when supplies failed to arrive in time or in sufficient quantities.

Emergency relief was originally scheduled to terminate in the winter of 1946, with efforts thereafter to be concentrated on work relief. However, flood, drought and civil war aggravated the afflictions of the people and CNRRA was compelled to continue giving emergency relief up to the day of its liquidation.

Altogether, from the beginning of its 1945 winter relief campaign till its closure, CNRRA distributed directly to the afflicted population 269,578.09 tons of food (including rice, flour, wheat, corn and other dried nutritive foodstuffs) and 28,474.64 tons of clothing. Its housing relief problem included a special appropriation of CNC\$12,300-million for Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Kwangsi, Honan and Chekiang. It was found that many cities in Hunan and Kwangsi, notably Changsha, Hengyang, Paoching, Kweilin and Liuchow, suffered 50% to 100% destruction. With the housing funds, CNRRA built houses in Hunan, Kwangsi, Kiangsi and Chekiang for the common people. It also helped in the repairing or rebuilding of houses. In addition, aid was given to restore the production of house-building materials.

WORK RELIEF

For the Yangtze River flood relief in 1931 the Chinese Government borrowed from the United States 15-million bushels of wheat, a great portion of which was used in work relief with unusual success. This experience served as the basis for CNRRA's work relief program. The work was not limited to large-scale engineering projects, but was of various kinds to suit the mental and physical ability of the refugees. In other words, the skilled were given employment while others were taught different trades. All work relief operations were under the supervision of Chinese and foreign experts who had planned the program.

Some of the work relief projects were still unfinished when CNRRA closed at the end of 1947. Available overall operation statistics show that CNRRA furnished 368,904 tons of food and CNC-\$27,850,355,316 for the refugee workers who contributed 129,056,528 man-days. If each refugee worked 15 days, at least 8-million refugees received CNRRA aid in work relief.

Two-fifths of the entire work relief program were water conservancy projects involving the repairing of dikes, sealing of gaps and building of dams. Outstanding among these were the Yellow river and Yangtze projects. (See chapter on "Water Conservancy.")

Other important work relief projects concerned the repair and construction of railroads, highways and public buildings; rehabilitation of cities; assistance to refugees to find employment, and the organizing of small rural industry and handicraft works.

RELIEF IN COMMUNIST AREAS

In accordance with UNRRA resolutions, needs were to be the only criterion for any relief program anywhere in war-afflicted areas, regardless of the race, religion and political belief of the people in question.

In China this means that people living in communist-held areas who had suffered war losses as those in other parts of the country, were also entitled to relief.

Throughout CNRRA's relief program in the communist-held areas, efforts for a peaceful settlement of the communist issue were marred by intermittent fighting between the communist and government forces. Eventually the negotiations bogged down and civil war was again in full swing. The size of communist-held areas changed from time to time, and lines of transportation leading to these

areas also changed with the war fronts.

While observing all resolutions and agreements, CNRRA resorted to some makeshift arrangement on the basis of actual needs. Less food was allocated to communist areas except for those people engaged in the Yellow river project. Also less industrial and communication supplies were sent to the communist areas. However, the latter received more medical supplies as compared with other areas in the country.

In the communist areas the cost of distribution was surprisingly high and damages to supplies surpassed all other records. During the two years of their operations CNRRA and UNRRA sent more than 500 persons to work in these areas. Of them 104 were detained and 12 killed by the communists. A total of 60,120 tons of supplies were shipped by CNRRA to the communist areas and distributed in more than 300 districts. The cost of transportation including warehousing, packing, loading and unloading totalled CN\$1,140,000 per ton, or roughly US\$52 per ton, which was more than three times the cost in non-communist areas. Out of the 60,120 tons distributed in the communist areas more than 5,000 tons were either damaged or lost.

The following figures show the amount of supplies distributed by CNRRA personnel in communist areas. These figures do not include supplies distributed in the same areas after the evacuation of the communists or before the occupation by them.

SOCIAL WELFARE

At the end of the war millions of Chinese children and adults were homeless, disabled or otherwise in need of aid. Since China's need of welfare services was too large for complete fulfillment within a few years, particularly during the brief span of CNRRA-UNRRA operations, and the shortage of supplies, finance and trained personnel imposed limitations on what could be done, the overall postwar welfare services program was designed for those vulnerable groups which were least able to rehabilitate themselves without organization aid. They included children who had been separated from their families or were otherwise handicapped, the disabled, the aged who lacked family support, and the like. In order that the welfare services might meet continuing community needs, CNRRA gave full assistance to the already established institutions and agencies of social care, notably the Ministry of Social Affairs, in the way of technical services and welfare supplies.

CHILD WELFARE

CNRRA made great efforts to help child victims of the war not only by giving them food, clothing and shelter but also by providing them with good care and education. All of its child welfare services were carried out in co-operation with the central or provincial child welfare institutions already in existence.

Up to its termination at the end of

TABLE 4.—SUPPLIES DISTRIBUTED TO COMMUNIST AREAS
(Unit: Ton)

Region	Food	Clothing	Medical	Industrial	Agricultural	Total
Northeastern Provinces.....	..	2	4	6
Hopei-Jehol-Peiping-Tientsin..	4,522	3,363	834	2,419	1,795	12,933
Shansi-Chahar-Suiyuan.....	1,525	372	69	..	19	1,985
Shantung-Tsingtao.....	12,252	4,780	1,300	10,083	4,421	32,836
Honan.....	5,376	12	139	5,527
Kiangsu.....	5,476	68	7	156	..	5,707
Anhwei.....	122	122
Hupei.....	993	5	1	2	3	1,004
TOTAL.....	30,266	8,602	2,354	12,660	6,238	60,120
Percentage.....	50%	14%	4%	22%	10%	100%

Source: Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration

1947 CNRRA had established 145 homes for refugee children benefitting 19,000 of them; 1,410 organizations for child welfare, including education stations, recreation stations, service stations and free schools, thus benefitting 96,254 children; 15 day-care centers benefitting 1,215 children, and 30,059 nutrition stations benefitting 1,776,913 children.

There were 1,570 charity homes housing 153,535 old people. People over 60 years of age made homeless by the war were eligible to aid in the charity homes, where they were properly clothed and fed and were given some pocket money.

CNRRA planned three disabled and wounded rehabilitation centers for Nanking, Peiping and Canton. The center in Nanking was established on New Year's Day, 1948. It was financed by the Ministry of Social Affairs while the scientific equipment and foreign experts came from UNRRA. Besides, 22 quonset huts were given to the center by UNRRA. The center later became known as the Nanking Physical Rehabilitation Center. By May, 1948 it had taken in 100 physically-handicapped persons, including war veterans and dependents of men in the fighting services.

All told, more than 1,000 charity agencies for children, the aged, disabled and wounded were rehabilitated with CNRRA aid in supplies, funds and services. CNRRA food distributed totalled 91,361 tons. Altogether 24,681,788 persons were aided by CNRRA with food, clothing, medical care and nutritious food. Two-thirds of them were children.

TRANSFER OF WELFARE FUNCTIONS AND SUPPLIES

CNRRA administrative activities ceased entirely on January 1, 1948, and all of them had been duly transferred to the Ministry of Social Affairs by the end of 1947. This followed an Executive Yuan directive that all CNRRA functions were to be transferred to the Ministry after its liquidation.

As to the welfare services after CNRRA's termination, those in cooperation with other welfare institutions were continued to serve local needs. This was made possible when CNRRA gave the Clearing Committee of Voluntary Welfare Agencies one-half of residual relief supplies, part of unfrozen supplies and the proceeds from the sale of dispensable commodities, with the consent of the Ministry of Social Affairs and the UNRRA China Office.

The transfer of supplies was jointly handled by the UNRRA China office,

the Ministry of Social Affairs, the Clearing Committee, and CNRRA.

(A) TRANSFER OF RESIDUAL RELIEF SUPPLIES

At the time of their liquidation all CNRRA regional offices transferred to the Ministry of Social Affairs all the residual relief supplies, including food, clothing, textiles, footwear and miscellaneous welfare supplies except medical supplies. On the day the transfer was effected, one-half of everything was given the Clearing Committee of Voluntary Welfare Agencies. Altogether 6,560 tons of residual relief supplies were thus transferred.

(B) UNFROZEN SUPPLIES

As soon as the UNRRA Central Committee decided to release the supplies intended for regions north of 34° latitude on November 17, 1947, which had been impounded on July 30 of the same year, CNRRA began negotiations with UNRRA about their disposal.

The 67 tons of food in Tientsin were equally divided between the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Clearing Committee of Voluntary Welfare Agencies, but the 20,000 tons of food in Shanghai were reserved for other uses. To meet the pressing demand for supplies for the winter relief campaign, UNRRA gave out 7,000 tons of such food, plus 3,000 tons of food originally intended for the flooded areas on the Lunghai railway, to the Ministry of Social Affairs.

The 1,231 tons of textiles in Shanghai were sold and the 479 tons of sewing machines and other supplies and the 260 tons of textiles were divided equally between the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Clearing Committee.

The miscellaneous welfare supplies in Tientsin and Shanghai were also equally divided between the ministry and the Clearing Committee.

Similarly divided were the proceeds from the sale of the more luxurious supplies totalling CNC\$5,200-million. Both agencies in turn distributed their respective shares (CNC\$2,600-million) to various welfare organizations. With this transfer of supplies, the CNRRA operation on relief was terminated.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF RELIEF AND REHABILITATION PROGRAM

(A) RELIEF

Altogether CNRRA distributed 360,000 tons of basic food and nutritious supplements and 28,000 tons of clothing. The

funds from CNRRA and those made available by the National Government through CNRRA for financing the relief program amounted to over CNC\$60-billion. Over 27-million persons were benefitted in emergency relief and 10-million in special relief. Some 1,600,000 persons received assistance in repatriation.

Among CNRRA's indirect accomplishments must be mentioned the prevention of epidemics, tying over of critical periods, restoration of social order, and recovery of production capacity. These all contributed immensely toward the general rehabilitation of the nation. The work relief projects alone took 370,000 tons of food and CNC\$26-billion, involving 120-million man-days of work done by 8-million refugee-laborers.

In the communist areas, CNRRA distributed over 30,000 tons of foodstuffs and 8,000 tons of clothing, and another 80,000 tons of foodstuffs and 3,000 tons of clothing in the Yellow river flood area.

(B) REHABILITATION

CNRRA's rehabilitation program fell into the following categories: water conservancy, communications and transportation, industry and mining, agriculture and fisheries, and public health. (Relevant data on each of these subjects are to be found in chapters concerned. For materials on the rehabilitation of the Yellow river flood area, for example, see the chapter on "Water Conservancy.") The materials and equipment that were put into this program totalled some one million tons.

In conservancy projects, over 166,000 tons of foodstuffs and 20,000 tons of equipment were used. Against this outlay were 75,500,000 cu. m. of earthwork and 368,812 cu. m. of stonework done, reclaiming 112,200,000 mow of land and benefitting 76,800,000 persons. The most noteworthy projects were the Yellow River Project and the Chientang River Project. The Kwanting Retention Reservoir and conservancy work on other rivers have all been given a good start.

Communications projects cost CNRRA 380,000 tons of supplies, valued at US\$93-million. The railways thus rebuilt and repaired included the Hangchow-Nanchang, Canton - Hankow, Nanking - Shanghai, Peiping-Hankow (southern section), Tientsin-Pukow (southern section) lines, and the Hengyang-Kweilin-Liuchow-Laiping and Liuchow-Tuyun sections of the Hunan - Kwangsi - Kweichow railway system. The highways restored include the Nanking - Shanghai, Nanking - Hangchow, Shanghai - Hangchow, Nanking - Nanchang and Hangchow-Hueichow (An-

hwei) lines with a total of 791 km., 168 bridges and 377 culverts. Work on the 298-km. highway between Amoy and Foochow was launched. In waterway transport, 207 vessels of various types and sizes with a total of some 700,000 tons formed CNRRA's contribution. In telecommunication, 7,500 km. of lines were erected and 28 stations re-established.

In industrial and mining rehabilitation, the supplies disposed of totalled 100,000 tons. Sixty-nine sets of electric generators were put in operation in 60 power plants, generating 55,432 kw. of current. Over 50 coal mines shared 10,910 tons of CNRRA equipment, enabling them to increase their production by 50% on the average. Waterworks which received CNRRA supplies increased their water output by 30%. Machinery weighing 13,017 tons was distributed to workshops and 44,354 tons of construction machines were disposed of. The chief recipients of the machinery were railroad workshops; other recipients numbered over 40. Some 700 tons of other equipment for industrial education were received and 83 tons were allocated to over 20 schools. The balance was put under the care of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

Supplies worth US\$67,322,610 were received for agricultural and fishery rehabilitation. Those supplies used in agricultural and rural reconstruction have resulted in the reclamation of 26-million mow of land and the re-settlement of 6-million mow of flooded land. Also 20-million piculs of agricultural produce were saved, 2,000 men were trained in agricultural technology. An increase of 5,400,000 tons was effected in food production, which is well over four times the amount of foodstuffs provided by UNRRA for the whole China program and worth 34 times the cost of the supplies involved. The other argicultural rehabilitation projects such as farm tools manufacture, farm machinery operation, agricultural industries services, and modern fishery are all long-term projects, and have all made a good start. (All these projects were carried over after the termination of CNRRA operations.)

Supplies for agricultural education worth US\$485,000 were handled by a committee of allocation representing CNRRA, UNRRA, the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, and other organizations concerned for the use of agricultural colleges, experimental stations and agricultural extension services in various parts of the country.

II. UNRRA IN CHINA

From August, 1945 til its termination at the end of 1947 UNRRA poured 2-million tons of relief and rehabilitation supplies into China.

In November, 1945 the first shipload of UNRRA supplies for the US\$530-million China program—largest accorded any UNRRA receiving country—arrived in Shanghai on the *SS Emile Vidal*. This was followed by an avalanche of UNRRA goods into China's ports from nearly 1,500 ships and planes. These goods, administered through the Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (CNRRA), had played an important part in China's post-war recovery. Besides materials UNRRA sent more than 500 skilled workers to China to help repair the nation's war-damaged economy.

China's immediate need was emergency relief for her war-impooverished people. UNRRA provided food, medicine, clothing and shelter. For it was recognized at the very beginning that no rehabilitation could be undertaken unless the people were first fed, clothed and housed.

UNRRA's 1,134,000-ton food relief program saved many thousands from starvation and gave employment to tens of thousands of others, in hundreds of work-relief programs throughout the nation. These served the double purpose of providing livelihood and food for the workers and of completing important repairs on dikes, schools, hospitals and roads, which could not otherwise have been accomplished.

UNRRA's health program, employing 92 doctors, 18 dentists, 38 nurses, 16 sanitation engineers and 15 medical technicians, benefitted nearly every medical institution in China and aided many thousands of sufferers in remote regions ordinarily beyond the reach of such institutions. It helped in preventing and controlling numerous serious epidemics.

UNRRA's welfare program specialized in home relief, emergency feeding and child care and feeding. In 1946 it served meals to 18,000 persons daily from 21 rice kitchens in Hunan alone. This program ended with UNRRA's other operations in China in 1947. However, its work of repatriating 20,000 displaced persons and providing attendant care has been continued by the International Refugee Organization.

The rehabilitation program of UNRRA in China fell into two main categories: agricultural and industrial rehabilitation.

In 1946 UNRRA imports constituted an important percentage of the country's

total imports. Of China's incoming cereals and flour, UNRRA's 604,781 tons accounted for 77.6%. UNRRA provided 10,615 tons, or some 40%, of the 26,000 tons total of machinery and machine tools imported in that year.

More than one-third of the 15,120 trucks, tractors and trailers brought into China in 1946 came from UNRRA. All of the 3,657 railway carriages and wagons imported were supplies by UNRRA, as were 88% of the ships, boats and materials for their construction. UNRRA brought in 10,549 tons of medicines and drugs, representing 63% of China's total imports of these items for 1946.

The accomplishments made possible by these UNRRA goods and services in less than two years were evident in results achieved and in the less tangible groundwork for subsequent development by the Chinese people themselves.

By the time China UNRRA ended it had furnished 147 fully assembled railroad locomotives, with 95 more yet to come, and 3,450 freight cars, which had been assembled and put into use; more than 1-million tons of food, used mainly in numerous CNRRA-UNRRA feeding and work-relief projects to supplement the diet of orphanages, hospitals and missions.

UNRRA helped materially in the closure of the gap in the Yellow river dyke; distributed over 6,500 long tons of farm machinery, including 1,136 tractors; delivered to China 56 electric power generators, inoculated over 200,000 farm animals against disease; trained thousands of Chinese in a number of specialized fields ranging from nursing to food preservation and motor assembly; sponsored small farm tool shops where UNRRA-trained Chinese had forged more than 100,000 hoes and other farm tools; made substantial donations of medicines, food, equipment and services to charitable institutions.

In addition to UNRRA's aid in the Yellow river project, UNRRA engineers, flour and equipment were employed on 23 other major dike repair projects from the Pearl river delta dike in Kwangtung to the river programs in the north-eastern provinces, through Chekiang, Kiangsu, Hunan, Honan, Anhwei, Hupeh and Shantung.

More than a million-and-a-half Chinese had labored on these projects on which were expended over 160,000 tons of UNRRA foodstuffs, 11,000 tons of UNRRA equipment and more than 122-billion dollars of Chinese currency.

AGRICULTURAL REHABILITATION

UNRRA also contributed much toward rehabilitating the former flooded areas along the Yellow river. Nearly one million refugees had returned up to the end of 1947, following the closure of the gap at Huayankou in March of that year and additional repairs to lower dikes. Into the reconstruction of this great agricultural area UNRRA poured 30,000 tons of supplies. Hundreds of homes, destroyed or buried in silt, were dug out and rebuilt, with aid from UNRRA and CNRRA in the form of food, medicine and a new start in life through UNRRA-CNRRA's small-industries projects.

To restore agricultural production in the reclaimed areas, UNRRA tractors, harvesters, seed, fertilizer and the help of UNRRA experts were used in controlled projects through which the farmers learned new technique.

Throughout UNRRA's operations in China, the two themes of training and production ran strongly together. The people were trained to carry on and expand the work of UNRRA in line with its basic objective: to help the people to help themselves. To increase production, whether it be food, medicine, fertilizer or industrial production. UNRRA provided the knowledge, the materials and the initial push and sponsored agencies whose work was to be continued after the close of UNRRA.

Among these was the Fisheries Rehabilitation Administration (FRA), given more than US\$26-million worth of UNRRA fishing boats, supplies and equipment. UNRRA provided 127 powered fishing craft and 38 auxiliary boats and materials for the rehabilitation of 10,000 damaged or destroyed Chinese fishing junks, modern fish processing facilities and a program to train Chinese in all phases of an up-to-date large-scale fishing industry.

The Agricultural Industries Service (AIS) was sponsored by UNRRA to help improve small village industries and establish new ones. In Shaoyang, Hunan, an AIS group started a foundry, a cement plant, a cane sugar plant, and night soil treatment plants, and equipment for extracting oil and rice hulling and polishing.

The National Agricultural Engineering Corporation (NAEC) was formed to replace hundreds of thousands of farmers' tools lost or destroyed during the war, and to lay the groundwork for a China-wide network of blacksmith and tool shops, and for sound vocational training and education in modern mechanics

and technology as applied to modern farming.

A central shop was established in Shanghai to supply repair facilities and raw materials to 18 provincial farm tool shops in various provinces. These in turn would eventually serve 3,000 local blacksmith shops in different areas, all working with UNRRA-supplied equipment. This is a long-range project of the first importance in its potential value to China during the next 10 to 20 years of expansion.

A number of UNRRA-sponsored organizations were formed to handle the several divisions of UNRRA's program to rehabilitate China's war-crippled transportation systems. Among these were the CNRRA Highway Transport, CNRRA Waterway Transport and CNRRA Airway Transport.

To ensure the continuation of much of the special work in China for which UNRRA had provided the spark and the initial momentum, a post-UNRRA trusteeship was formed towards the end of 1947 to operate in collaboration with the Chinese Commission on Rehabilitation Affairs.

Among other projects of great importance in the agricultural rehabilitation program, are the fertilizer program to utilize UNRRA imports of fertilizer and increase China's indigenous production; the pesticides program to train farmers to protect their crops from food-eating insects, using UNRRA-imported pesticides, and the products of the National Pesticides Manufacturing Plant established in Shanghai. Also the food processing program, to distribute to farmers, through the medium of UNRRA-trained government-selected students, UNRRA canning equipment and the knowledge of how to can and preserve food for the barren winter months.

Through the UNRRA livestock program 5,472 farm animals were brought to China. UNRRA veterinarians showed Chinese farmers how to keep these and native animals healthy through disease control units in the field and substantial aid to Chinese animal biological-products laboratories.

INDUSTRIAL REHABILITATION

In the field of industrial rehabilitation, UNRRA's contribution to the restoration of railroads was of major importance to post-war China. UNRRA delivered 147 locomotives, 3,500 freight cars, 63,000 tons of steel rails, 800,000 wooden ties, and 9,000 tons of railway bridges, with

the bulk of the latter still to come. By December, 1947 partial rehabilitation of some of the more important rail lines of China had been effected.

For the rehabilitation of industries, UNRRA purchased from stocks more than 30,000 tons of industrial equipment valued at an estimated US\$30-million. In the field of electric power, UNRRA at the time of its termination was furnishing 9,000 tons of electrical equipment, including 69 large generating units with 60,000 kw. capacity. Fifty-six generators had been delivered to China, of which 35 had been installed.

During the war hundreds of factories were destroyed or damaged, including those of the building construction industry. UNRRA supplied cement plant parts and equipment, six complete brick and tile plants, and two glass plants scheduled for operation in Shanghai and Hankow.

Other phases of the rehabilitation of basic industries include aid to coal mines, the provision of general construction materials, machine repair shops, power plants and aid to public utilities in the repair of war-damaged water treatment plants. By the end of 1947 coal production was slowly increasing. Building materials supplied by UNRRA and distributed by CNRRA included prefabricated shelters, materials for housing and relief, hospitals and warehouses, lumber, hand tools, steel, copper, lead and many other items.

To repair existing machinery and to provide for the production of machine tool needs, UNRRA procured a number of mobile repair shops and complete machine shops. These went to coal mines, industrial corporations, and for highway repair and maintenance.

In all of this work, CNRRA was the operating agency and UNRRA the supplying and advisory agency. UNRRA personnel, however, worked closely with CNRRA and the National Government ministries to obtain the most efficient use of UNRRA goods and also took part in planning the post-UNRRA program.

CNRRA/UNRRA SUCCESSOR ORGANIZATIONS

As the activities of the UNRRA China office drew to a close toward the end of 1947, the Chinese government acted to establish a new organization to administer its nation-wide rehabilitation program which for some two years had been the joint responsibilities of UNRRA and CNRRA. The legislation establishing the new agency called for a Commission on Rehabilitation Affairs to be

set up within the government and provided an associated board of trustees including government, public and foreign membership. The principal purpose of these two units was to maintain a coordinated rehabilitation program, to provide a pattern for continued international participation in the supervision and financing of the program, and to carry to a successful completion the rehabilitation work which the closure of UNRRA and CNRRA would leave unfinished.

COMMISSION ON REHABILITATION AFFAIRS

The Commission on Rehabilitation Affairs was established within the framework of the Executive Yuan with the vice-president of the yuan as its chairman. Its *ex officio* members included the Ministers of Finance, Communications, Economic Affairs (Industry and Commerce as of October 10, 1948), Social Affairs, Agriculture and Forestry, Water Conservancy, and Health, together with the governor of the Central Bank of China and the director of the National Resources Commission.

The responsibilities of the commission were to coordinate the various phases of the rehabilitation program and to exercise an over-all policy guidance over the various projects involved. Its staff work was confined to close liaison with the project and with the Board of Trustees for Rehabilitation Affairs.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES FOR REHABILITATION AFFAIRS

The Board of Trustees for Rehabilitation Affairs (BOTRA) was organized in accordance with the provisions of the legislation which established the Commission on Rehabilitation Affairs. It was composed of 15 members: five representing the government, including the governor of the Central Bank who acted as chairman, five invited from the public, and five foreign members. The duty of the board was (a) to hold in custody the project equipment supplied by UNRRA as part of the CNRRA/UNRRA program and supervise its utilization, and (b) to maintain control over the local currency and foreign exchange funds transferred by UNRRA, authorizing the use of these funds for only such purposes as were approved from month to month.

UNFINISHED MAJOR PROJECTS

The end of 1947, as anticipated, found the six CNRRA/UNRRA sponsored long-term projects still in the planning

and experimental stage and UNRRA-procured equipment valued at some US-\$53-million either yet to arrive or waiting to be put into operation. These projects were:

(a) The Farm Tool Shops Program—It involved supplies and equipment for a central machine tool plant, 18 branch plants, 3,000 blacksmith shops, and large supplies of raw materials all intended to produce agricultural tools and simple equipment.

(b) The Agricultural Industries Program—For this program supplies had been imported to assist in the rehabilitation and development of small rural industries.

(c) The Fisheries Rehabilitation Program—This involved a fleet of powered fishing craft together with fish processing equipment and plants, and junk building timber, all intended to increase the fish supply available in China.

(d) The Agricultural Machinery Program—This involved the operation and training for operations and maintenance of numerous types of agricultural machinery and equipment such as farm tractors, well drilling equipment, irrigation pumps, and related supplies.

(e) The Waterways Rehabilitation Program—This involved a fleet of transport vessels, powered craft, and barges, as well as complete maintenance and repair facilities.

(f) The Pharmaceutical Production Project—For this project US\$5-million had been expended in the procurement of production equipment and raw materials intended to develop the production of key pharmaceuticals in China.

The first three programs were carried out respectively through the National Agricultural Engineering Corporation, the Agricultural Industry Service and the Fisheries Rehabilitation Administration, the activities of each of which are described in the section on "UNRRA."

Implementing the Agricultural Machinery Program was the Agricultural Machinery Operations and Management Office (AMOMO), an operating agency of CNRRA and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. This program was initiated by UNRRA early in 1946 with the idea that the importation of modern farm machinery and irrigation equipment into China and its use in certain selected areas would enable the Chinese to increase food and fibre production at a much more rapid rate than would be possible with native methods. The projects to be operated under the AMOMO program were divided into five major categories: (1)

tractor farming; (2) well-drilling; (3) irrigation and drainage; (4) processing of agricultural products (excluding canning), and (5) distribution of animal-drawn implements and farm hand tools.

Some 1,500 tractors substantially complete with tillage tools were sent to China. In addition, for use with the tractors, there were supplies of about 500 plows, 500 cultivators, 20 tillers, and 25 combines. There were also approximately 100 well-drilling rigs, 9,000 pumps, and a substantial number of flour mills, oil presses, cotton gins, and farm tools. All this equipment was either distributed free through the various regional organizations of AMOMO (in Suiyuan, Hopei, Mukden, Honan, Anhwei, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, and Taiwan), or sold to local farmers' cooperatives.

The waterways rehabilitation program represented a joint CNRRA/UNRRA effort to relieve the shipping problem in post-war China. At the time that BOTRA assumed responsibility for this program it was actually undertaking to complete two unfinished specific contracts. One of the contracts involved was with the Board of Supplies of the Executive Yuan (BOSEY) for the transport from Pacific islands to China of military surpluses procured by the Government of China from the United States and the other was for the transport from Pacific islands to China of additional U. S. military surpluses procured by the East Asia Development Company. According to an agreement entered into by UNRRA, CNRRA and the Ministry of Communications, some 130 vessels left over by the defunct CNRRA Waterway Transport were to be sold. Sixty of these vessels, which comprised LST's, LSM's, tugs and barges, were to be sold to the Ministry of Communications for future development of water transport in China, while the remainder was earmarked for sale to private enterprises.

At the time BOTRA was vested with financial responsibility for the various long-term projects, the pharmaceutical production project had not been established. The injunction laid on BOTRA by its predecessors, while committing BOTRA to a pharmaceutical project, did not commit it to the complete fulfillment of the original conception of the pharmaceutical project. In view of the limited assets of BOTRA plans were introduced only for gradual development of a modified pharmaceutical production program. Tentatively it was planned to establish a DDT production facility plant with a

monthly capacity of approximately 70 tons of pure DDT in 1948 and to proceed soon thereafter with the establishment of an X-ray and electro-medical servicing and maintenance units; also to establish production facilities for penicillin and expand the processing of bulk drugs.

For the financing of these long-term projects, an UNRRA cotton account, valued at approximately CN\$3,630-billion and a foreign exchange fund equivalent to US\$5-million were transferred to BOTRA. The cotton account had been a continuing source of local currency required in the CNRRA/UNRRA program. It had been set up by UNRRA with approximately 200,000 bales of cotton yarn imported as part of the UNRRA program and turned over to local mills for processing. The yarn credits were held for UNRRA by the Central Bank of China and sold as and when local currency was required in CNRRA/UNRRA operations.

MISCELLANEOUS "SUCCESSOR" ACTIVITIES

In addition to those long-term projects for which BOTRA had responsibility, UNRRA, on its closure in China, invested BOTRA with certain responsibilities for financial support of other activities successor in nature to UNRRA responsibilities. These "non-Botra" responsibilities were limited in scope, and UNRRA specifically indicated that the financial responsibilities for these activities should not continue indefinitely. There were, however, on UNRRA's closure in China a number of successor agencies which required support. These included:

(1) The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), which was carrying on much of the agricultural advice and guidance formerly supplied by UNRRA;

(2) The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which was completing the UNRRA task of distribution to educational organizations in China of supplies and services;

(3) The Health Commission of CNRRA, which was completing the distribution throughout China of the various medical supplies furnished by UNRRA, and

(4) The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, which though not a "successor agency" in the true sense of the word, had undertaken to complete various UNRRA-sponsored projects, such as the further development of pesticides pro-

duction, the further development of immunisation of cattle, etc.

By the end of September, 1948 BOTRA had concluded aid to all the carry-over agencies of the UNRRA family excepting two organizations, namely, the FAO and UNESCO. All unfinished CNRRA medical distributions, amounting to 8,000 tons, were disposed of in June of that year.

Of financial obligations to the two continuing agencies, BOTRA decided to extend the period of support to FAO till the end of 1948. The other continuing agency, the UNESCO, was to carry its work through, by estimate, to January, 1949. The agency was handling distribution of 720 long tons of engineering equipment for the purpose of strengthening engineering departments of 35 war-ravaged universities. Valued at US\$2,200,000, the engineering supplies consisted of machine-shop materials, electrical, mechanical and laboratory testing equipment. BOTRA budgeted for UNESCO US\$75,000 for administrative expenditures, repair of damaged equipment and installation. From February through August, 1948 BOTRA appropriations to FAO and UNESCO amounted to GY\$197,656 and GY\$42,958 respectively at the then prevailing exchange rate of GY\$4 to US\$1.

EYCARS AND CRM

Following the signing of the Agreement Concerning the United States Relief Assistance to the Chinese People on October 27, 1947, the Chinese government established an Executive Yuan Commission for American Relief Supplies (EYCARS) to assume the responsibility of liaison with the United States representative responsible for the relief program. The latter was the China Relief Mission (CRM) of the U. S. Foreign Service.

The program of assistance, to be financed by US\$45,700,000, consisted of such basic essentials of life as food, medical supplies, processed and unprocessed material for clothing, fertilizer, pesticides, fuel, and seeds. It was launched in January, 1948 and was extended till the end of June when both EYCARS and CRM discontinued their operations as scheduled. Most of the CRM activities were incorporated into the China Aid Program of the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA).

By the time of its closure CRM had carried out its China program to the following extent:

Supplies	Original	Actual
Cereals.....	US\$39,331,849	US\$39,879,786.03
Medical supplies.....	5,494,201	5,494,201.00
Pesticides.....	670,000	670,000.00
Seed Corn.....	127,146	121,814.00
Reserve.....	76,804	76,804.00
TOTAL.....	US\$45,700,000	US\$46,242,605.03

The cereals, consisting of rice, wheat and flour, were used to support the government rationing program in five major cities: Nanking, Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin and Canton. This program, which was a full-scale rationing of these staple commodities for all classes of people, proved to be the most extensive and satisfactory of all EYCARS/CRM joint operations. (See the chapter on "Food.")

Due to special circumstances, however, only about one-fourth of the original cost of the grain was realized from the sales proceeds of the rationed foodstuff, which were earmarked to finance 514 projects throughout China. They were divided into four major categories: (1) 301 medical; (2) 106 relief and welfare; (3) 85 agricultural, and (4) 22 public works (including water conservancy and reclamation).

CUSA AND ECA

On May 3, 1948 the governments of China and the United States simultaneously announced the conclusion of an agreement under which U. S. aid to China to the amount of US\$463-million would be implemented. Both governments released the text of letters between U. S. Secretary of State George C. Marshall and Chinese Ambassador V. K. Wellington Koo in which the United States proposed — and China accepted — conditions which would govern American aid pending the conclusion of a formal bilateral aid agreement between the two countries.

The conditions laid down by the United States required that China bind itself to operate generally under the same conditions which had governed American post-UNRRA aid to China. In accepting these terms China pledged itself to distribute any food supplies received under American grant through a rationing system and under some sort of price controls. Foods and other commodities received by the Chinese under the program would be sold by them and the proceeds in local cur-

rency placed in a special account from which the United States could draw to meet the expenses of its relief administration operations within China. Money in this fund could, upon agreement, be used for other relief work in China.

On the same day (May 3, 1948), the Chinese government ordered the formation of a special commission for the disposition of supplies and materials China was due to receive under the American US\$463-million aid program. This was in accordance with the China Aid Act signed by President Harry S. Truman on April 3 of the same year, which stipulated the operation of a commission as a Chinese counterpart to the special mission for economic cooperation which the United States would appoint to China to implement the aid program.

The new Chinese commission, the Council for United States Aid (CUSA), was inaugurated on May 13, operating under the over-all direction of the President of the Executive Yuan. Thus, CUSA was the highest Chinese organ responsible for over-all planning and execution of the aid program and related matters. All other government agencies handling supplies of similar nature, including the EYCARS, were either eliminated or absorbed by the new organization.

To supervise the US\$463-million China aid program, the American government on May 7 named Roger D. Lapham as chief of the Economic Cooperation Administration's special mission to China. Mr. Lapham arrived in China on June 7 to study reports and recommendations on China aid. He was accompanied by an 11-men reconstruction survey mission linked with the aid program.

Two days before the ECA China Mission arrived in China, however, the House of Representatives Appropriations Committee in Washington had pared the proposed China aid program from US\$463-million down to US\$400-million. The reduction was due to the committee's action recommending a 25% cut in the Marshall

Plan and other foreign aid program figures proposed by the United States Government.

This actually left the ECA China Mission US\$275-million for financing its total economic program in this country, since the remaining sum, US\$125-million had been earmarked for military aid.

Combined ECA-CUSA operations started following the signing of an Economic Aid Agreement between the United States and China on July 3, 1948 at Nanking by Ambassador J. Leighton Stuart and the Foreign Minister Wang Shih-chieh. The agreement, concluded in accordance with the China Aid Act of 1948, provides a basis for the extension of economic assistance to China. Meanwhile, the reconstruction survey mission, headed by Charles L. Stillman, began surveying China's economic needs with special emphasis on industry and agriculture.

The US\$275-million program covered the period from April 3, 1948 to April 3, 1949. By the latter date, due to curtailed expenditures resulting from the civil war, US\$54-million was unexpended. The U. S. Congress approved extension of this program to February 15, 1950.

THE ECA CHINA PROGRAM

The ECA US\$275-million program of economic aid to the Chinese people was to be used primarily for the procurement of food, petroleum, cotton, fertilizer, and for industrial replacement and reconstruction projects. The whole program was to be concluded within one year, beginning April 3, 1948 and ending April 2, 1949. Four sub-programs of varying lengths of time were scheduled with the following tentative allocations:

In order to formulate and carry out a coordinated program for reconstruction in China's rural areas, China and the United States on August 5 exchanged notes authorizing the establishment of a Sino-American Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction (JCRR) as provided for in the China Aid Act of 1948. The act also stipulated that ECA funds for the work of the commission should be limited to not more than 10% of the total amount ECA was going to administer for China. Since the total ECA appropriation for China was US\$275-million, the maximum funds possible for the program of the Joint Commission were US\$27,500,000. By early October members of the five-man commission, composed of three Chinese and two Americans, were mapping out a sound program before attempting to initiate rural improvement work. Broad ob-

jectives of the rural reconstruction program were envisaged as being to increase production of food and other agricultural commodities, and to improve the daily life of the Chinese farmer.

REVIEW OF ECA OPERATIONS

The China Mission of ECA commenced operations with the US\$275-million program tentatively budgeted as follows:

Cotton	US \$70,000,000
Petroleum	50,000,000
Food	70,000,000
Reconstruction &	
Replacement	70,000,000
Fertilizer	13,800,000
Administration	1,200,000
Total	US\$275,000,000

By April 3, 1949, the U. S. dollar expenditures from the fund, and allocations approved for immediate expenditure, rendered a balance of US\$54-million, available for expenditure up to February 15, 1950. As many ECA projects in China had to be suspended due to the spreading communist rebellion, a considerable portion of the remaining US\$54-million fund was appropriated to the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction which was engaged in a number of new projects in Taiwan and in the southwestern provinces.

(1) Cotton. ECA delivered 300,000 bales of cotton to China between April 3, 1948 and April 3, 1949, at a cost of US\$54,700,000. This was more than one quarter of the cotton consumed in Chinese mills during the period.

(2) Food. ECA financed and authorized the overseas purchase of US\$64,033,895 worth of food for China between April 3, 1948, and April 3, 1949. This amounted to 316,096 tons of rice and 115,898 tons of wheat and wheat flour.

The cities receiving direct ECA assistance were Shanghai, Peiping, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Nanking, Canton and Swatow. The program was implemented by a rationing system, which was instituted by the U. S. China Relief Mission in March, 1948, in cooperation with the Chinese government.

In addition to the big city rationing programs, a limited emergency feeding project for the workers in Mukden was developed while the city remained in the hands of the Chinese government. Nearly 1,000 tons of flour were delivered and fed directly to workers who were suffering from malnutrition. ECA food was also made available to an estimated 100,000 refugees in Tsingtao. Early in April, 1949, another refugee relief project was under-

ECA CHINA PROGRAM

	Tentative Allocation	Program No. 1 April 3-June 30 1948	Program No. 2 July 1-Sept. 30 1948	Residual Supplies Available for Program No. 3 & 4 Oct. 1-April 2, 1949
Food.....	US\$ 69,700,000	US\$13,500,000	US\$ 6,500,000	US\$ 49,700,000
Petroleum.....	50,000,000	8,000,000	14,000,000	28,000,000
Cotton.....	69,790,000	13,000,000	41,700,000	15,090,000
Fertilizer.....	13,800,000	1,500,000	8,000,000	4,300,000
Industrial replacement and reconstruction.....	70,000,000	50,000	5,000,000	64,950,000
Ocean freight parcel post for voluntary foreign aid ..	100,000		100,000	..
CRM medical supplies freight.....	110,000	75,000	35,000	..
Reserve.....	300,000	300,000
PROGRAM TOTAL	US\$273,800,000	US\$36,125,000	US\$75,335,000	US\$162,340,000
Administrative.....	1,200,000
TOTAL.....	US\$275,000,000

taken to care for 240,000 refugees, about half of whom were students, in Shanghai, Nanking, Hankow, Foochow, Chenkiang, Changchow, Hengyang, Wusih, Changsha, Wuhu, Kashing and Soochow.

(3) Petroleum. ECA financed the purchase of approximately 1-million tons of petroleum products for China between April 3, 1948, and April 3, 1949, at a cost of US\$36-million. These products included fuel oil, diesel oil, aviation and motor gasoline, kerosene, and lubricating oils. ECA fuel helped run bus services in 16 Chinese cities, including Shanghai and Nanking, and 58 power stations in the various parts of China.

(4) Fertilizer. By April 3, 1949, ECA had allocated US\$9-million for the overseas purchase of 75,000 tons of chemical fertilizer which, under normal farming conditions, would mean 150,000 additional tons of Chinese rice.

ECA is now engaged in supplying fertilizer to Taiwan, where fertilizer is greatly needed for the production of rice and sugar.

(5) Medical Supplies. Six hundred tons of medical supplies worth US\$4,600,000 were purchased under the United States

China Relief Mission program. As most of these supplies arrived in China after the expiration of CRM on June 30, 1948, they became an ECA responsibility.

Distribution of these supplies was jointly planned by ECA, CUSA, the Chinese Ministry of Health, and the International Relief Committee. By April 3, 1949, more than one third of the total had been distributed to various hospitals, clinics and health centers throughout China.

(6) JCRR. Although the Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction was authorized to spend up to US\$27,500,000 of ECA funds by April 3, 1949, it was committed by that date to spend the equivalent of only US\$6,379,440. Contributing factors to delay in the program were the civil war, the unstable national economy, and the commission's desire to preclude waste through thorough planning.

JCRR's program included land reform, mass education, animal disease control, seed multiplication, agricultural extension, and home reconstruction. Special attention was paid to Taiwan and the southwestern provinces in its activities in 1949.

The following table shows the status of JCRR's program on April 3, 1949:

STATUS OF JCRR'S PROGRAM ON APRIL 3, 1949

Project	Amount Committed in US\$
Northwest sheep and wool	\$ 100,000
Seed multiplication and distribution	100,000
Rinderpest, hog-cholera, erysipelas	100,000
Chekiang integrated program	150,000
AMOMO pump project	60,000
White Cloud Mountain reforestation	3,000
Citrus project, Sun Yat-sen University	6,000
12 irrigation projects, Szechwan	400,000
Crippled soldier reclamation	20,000
Kwangtung irrigation project	2,000,000
Kwangtung two <i>hsien</i> integrated	100,000
Archbishop Yupin project—Lishui, Kiangsu for reclamation	12,000
Hsun Hwa projects (rural service)	10,000
Cotton seed extension, Hunan	10,000
Sweet potato extension project	12,500
Citrus project, Lingnan University	6,500
Kwangsi project (rural reconstruction)	200,000
Public information and education	50,000
Fishery production projects	10,000
Firewood growing project	4,000
Chinese industrial cooperatives	20,000
Lan Shan rural reconstruction	3,000
Kiangsu, Anhwei christian rural service	10,000
Hsui Yieh Agricultural School	5,000
Kwangtung silk industry	140,000
Lin Lake land reform (Hunan)	20,000
Swatow handicraft	2,000
Hsiang Ya Medical College	7,000
Reforestation, North and West rivers, Kwangtung	1,900
Lungyen land reform (Fukien)	76,000
Preservation of New Zealand cattle	1,900
Pesticide and equipment	50,000

STATUS OF JCRR'S PROGRAM ON APRIL 3, 1949

Project	Amount Committed in US\$
Taiwan serum plant	30,000
Rice borer control, Sun Yat-sen University	1,000
NARB rice borer control	4,840
Fertilizer demonstration	31,800
Rural reconstruction center, Wusih	5,000
Warehouse project	10,000
Project for extension and demonstration of quick result compost bacillus	1,000
Regional trials of crop varieties	3,000
Sugar-cane plantation demonstration, Kwangtung	2,000
Tung Ting Lake dike repair	1,600,000
Tsing prefecture, Szechwan (rural reconstruction)	1,000,000
Total	\$6,379,440

(7) Industrial Reconstruction. The purpose of ECA's US\$70-million industrial reconstruction and replacement program was to increase the long-range productivity and livelihood of the Chinese people. It was proposed to spend approximately US\$30-million for new construction or development, US\$35-million for replacement, and US\$2,500,000 for engineering services, making a total of US\$67,-

500,000; the remaining US\$2,500,000 was earmarked for foreign exchange expenditures required in connection with the rural reconstruction program.

The following table shows the pre-project engineering allocations for industrial reconstruction under the ECA program. Due to the spreading civil war, many of these projects, however, were either dropped or discontinued.

PRE-PROJECT ENGINEERING ALLOCATIONS FOR INDUSTRIAL RECONSTRUCTION

Project*		Allocated US\$ in Local Currency	Allocated US\$ Funds
Power.....	Central and South China N.R.C.....	37,105	59,625
	Shanghai Power Co.....		20,000
	Hankow W/W and Electric Co.....	3,070	8,975
	Yangtze Power Co.....	13,290	25,362
	Taiwan Power Co.....	25,000	84,000
	North Hopei, N.R.C.....	8,500	10,500
	Tsingtao Electric Works.....	2,000	4,000
	Taiyuan Power Plant.....	2,000	4,000
	North Eastern Power Adm.....	2,000	4,000
	Chungking Power Co.....	3,045	7,050
Public Works.	Tsingtao Dock and Harbor.....	Dropped	
	Tsingtao Ind. Replacements.....	11,150	21,500
Railways.....	Canton-Hankow Railway Adm.....	25,000	40,000
	Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway Adm.....	15,000	55,000
	Peiping-Tientsin Railway System.....	Dropped	
	Taiwan Railway Adm.....	7,000	24,000
Mines.....	Kailan Mining Adm.....	3,500	6,000
	Nanling Mine.....	2,750	17,250
	Kaokeng (West Kiangsi).....	3,000	32,500
	Yungli Chemical Ind.....	3,000	3,000
Chemicals....	Yee Ming Chemical Co.....	7,023	41,556
	Taiwan Fertilizer Co. N.R.C.....		20,000
	Taiwan Sugar Co.....		20,000
		US\$173,433	US\$508,318

*Pre-project engineering on all projects was completed.

CHAPTER 36

WHO'S WHO

(Revised to January 1, 1950)

AW Boon-haw (see **HU, Wen-hu**)

BURHAN (see **PAO Erh Han**)

CHANG, Ai-chen (Mrs. Vera CHANG)

Social worker, native of Kiangsu, born in 1903; M.A., Michigan; secretary-general, Women's Advisory Committee, New Life Movement, since 1938; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Carsun (see **CHANG, Chun-mai**)

CHANG, Chao-yuan (prefers **Chao-yuen C. CHANG**)

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1892; J.D., Chicago; member, Legislative Yuan, 1938-48; secretary-general, same Yuan, 1948; member, Council for U. S. Aid, Executive Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Chaoyuen C. (see **CHANG, Chao-yuan**)

CHANG, Chen (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1899; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1925, and Sun Yat-sen Univ., Moscow, 1927; garrison commander of Nanking, 1946-47; commander-in-chief, Nanking Defense Area, 1948-49; commander of gendarmerie, since 1944.

CHANG, Chi-yun (prefers **G. Yun CHANG**)

Geographer, native of Chekiang, born in 1901; graduate, National Southeastern Univ., 1923; prof. of geography, National Central Univ., 1927-36; prof. and dean, department of history and geography; dean, college of arts, National Chekiang Univ. (Hangchow), since 1936; author of many textbooks on geography; chief, Secretariat, *Tsung-tsaï's* Office of the Kuomintang, since 1949.

CHANG, Chia-ao (prefers **CHANG Kia-ngau**)

Government official, banker, native of Kiangsi, born in 1888; graduate, Tokyo

Keio Univ.; general manager, Bank of China, 1928-35; deputy governor, Central Bank of China, 1935-47; Minister of Railways, 1935-47; Minister of Communications, 1937-42; chairman, Economic Commission, President's Headquarters in Northeast, 1945-47; governor, Central Bank of China, 1947-48; chairman, Board of Trustees for Rehabilitation Affairs, 1948.

CHANG CHIA Hutuketu

Mongolian Living Buddha, native of Chinghai, born in 1890; member, Kuomintang Supervisory Committee, since 1935; state councillor, National Government, 1937-48; member, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, since 1930; advisor to the President, since 1948.

CHANG, Chien (prefers **Henry K. CHANG**)

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1889; LL.B., Pennsylvania, 1909; Minister to Portugal, 1943-47; Ambassador to the Netherlands, since 1947.

CHANG, Chih-chiang (General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1881; former governor of Chahar, commander of Northwestern Defense Forces; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1928; president, National College of Physical Education, since 1933; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Chih-chung (General)

Army officer, native of Anhwei, born in 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; defended Shanghai area in cooperation with 19th Route Army against Japanese attack, 1932; commandant, Central Military Academy, 1932-37; commander-in-chief, 19th Group Army, 1937; governor of Hunan, 1938-39; personal chief-of-staff to Generalissimo, 1940; minister, Political Training Board, 1940-46; governor of Sinkiang, 1946-47; director, President's Headquarters in Northwest (Lanchow), 1946-48; Military and Political Affairs

Director for the Northwest, 1948-49; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

CHANG, Chih-pen

Government official, native of Hupeh, born in 1881; graduate, Tokyo Law College, 1905; governor of Hupeh, 1927-28; vice-chairman, Constitution Drafting Committee, Legislative Yuan, 1933-36; secretary-general, Judicial Yuan 1938-43; president, Administrative Court, 1943-49; Minister of Justice, since 1949.

CHANG, Ching-chiang (see **CHANG, Jen-chieh**)

CHANG, Chun (General)

Government official, native of Szechwan, born in 1888; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; member, National Military Council, 1926-28; Vice-Minister of War, 1928-29; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1929; mayor of Shanghai, 1929-31; governor of Hupeh, 1933-35; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1935-37; secretary-general, Kuomintang Central Political Council, 1937; secretary-general, National Military Council, 1938; vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1938-39; secretary-general, Supreme National Defense Council, 1938-42; governor of Szechwan, and director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Chengtu, 1940-45; president, Executive Yuan, 1947-48; Military and Political Affairs Director for the Southwest, 1948-49; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, and Minister without Portfolio, since June, 1949.

CHANG, Chun-mai (perfers **Carsun CHANG**)

Jurist, leader of Democratic Socialist Party; native of Kiangsu, born in 1886; educated in Japan, England and Germany; former president, Comparative Law College, Soochow Univ.; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; advisor to the President, since 1948.

CHANG, Chung-fu

Diplomatic official, native of Hupeh, born in 1901; Ph.D., Johns Hopkins, 1929; counsellor, National Military Council, 1938-46; director, American affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1943-46; advisor to Chinese Delegation to the United Nations, since 1947; author, *A Diplomatic History of the Republic of China*.

CHANG, Fa-kwei (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1897; graduate, Hupeh Military

Academy; commander, 4th Army (Old Ironsides), 1927; commander, Chekiang-Fukien-Anhwei-Kiangsi border area, 1936; Commander-in-Chief, 8th Group Army, 1937; Commander-in-Chief, 4th War Area, 1939-44; commander, 2nd regional command, 1945; director, President's Headquarters in Canton, 1946; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947; Commander-in-Chief of the Army, 1948-49.

CHANG, Fang (General)

Army officer, native of Honan, born in 1886; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; Commander-in-Chief, 12th Group Army, 1938; vice-president, Military Advisory Council, 1938-46; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948; member, standing committee, Political Affairs Commission, Hsichow Rebellion Suppression Forces Headquarters, 1948.

CHANG, Fu-yun

Government official, native of Shantung, born in 1890; LL.B., Harvard, 1917; director, Customs Administration, Ministry of Finance, since 1945.

CHANG, G. Yun (see **CHANG, Chi-yun**)

CHANG, Han-ying

Engineer, native of Shantung, born in 1900; M.C.E., Cornell, 1925; acting chairman, Yangtze River Conservancy Commission, 1940-41; chairman, Yellow River Conservancy Commission, 1941-43; member, National Water Conservancy Commission, 1943-47; chancellor, National Peiyang Univ., since 1948.

CHANG, Hen-shui

Novelist, native of Anhwei, born in 1897; author of more than 50 popular novels; manager, Chungking *Sin Min Pao*, 1944-45; manager, Peiping *Hsin Min Pao*, 1945-49.

CHANG, Henry K. (see **CHANG, Chien**)

CHANG, Hsi

Zoologist, native of Hopei, born in 1896; D.Sc., Lyons; director, Institute of Zoology, National Academy of Peiping, since 1932.

CHANG, Hsiao-chien

Physician, native of Hunan, born in 1897; studied at Stanford; president, Hsiang Ya (Yale-in-China) Medical College, Changsha; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

CHANG, Hsin-hai

Diplomatic official, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; Ph.D., Harvard; Minister to Portugal, 1933-34; Minister to Poland, 1934-37.

CHANG, Hsueh-liang (General)

Retired army officer, native of Liaoning, born in 1898; graduate, Northeastern Military Academy; chairman, Northeastern Political Council, 1928; Commander-in-Chief, Northeastern Frontier Defense Forces, 1929; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, National Land, Naval and Air Forces, 1930; acting chairman, Peiping branch, National Military Council, 1932; toured Europe, 1933-34; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Communist Suppression Forces in Northwest, 1935-36; leader of Sian *Coup*, 1936; dismissed from all posts and sentenced to ten years' imprisonment but later pardoned; has been in retirement since 1937.

CHANG, Hui-chang (prefers CHANG, Wai-jeung)

Aviator, government official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1898; director, aviation department, Ministry of War, 1930; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; Minister to Cuba, 1935; magistrate of Chungshan, Kwangtung, birth place of Dr. Sun Yat-sen.

CHANG, Hung-yuan

University chancellor, native of Szechwan, born in 1903; D.Sc., M.I.T., 1930; chancellor, National Chungking Univ., since 1941.

CHANG, Jen-chieh (CHANG, Ching-chiang)

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1873; governor of Chekiang, 1927-30; member, Kuomintang Supervisory Committee, since 1926; state councillor, National Government, 1932-47; advisor to the President, since 1948.

CHANG, Kia-ngau (see CHANG Chia-ao)**CHANG, Lan**

Chairman of the outlawed Democratic League, 1941-48; native of Szechwan, born in 1877; former governor of Szechwan and member, People's Political Council; became vice-chairman, Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government of the People's Republic of China," October, 1949.

CHANG, Li-sheng

Government official, native of Hopei, born in 1901; graduate, Paris Univ.; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1942-44; Minister of Interior, 1944-48; vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1948; chairman, Local Self-Government Advisory Committee, Taiwan provincial government, since 1949.

CHANG, Ming-wei

Journalist, native of Hupeh, born in 1903; graduate, Fudan Univ.; publisher, Chengtu edition, *Central Daily News*, 1939-45; publisher, *Hua Pei Jih Pao* (Peiping), 1945-48.

CHANG, Mo-chun (Mrs. SHAO Yuan-chung)

Government official, native of Hunan, born in 1898; graduate, Columbia; former member, Legislative Yuan; member, Examination Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Nan-hsien

Government official, native of Hupeh, born in 1873; Minister of Personnel, 1930; governor of Chekiang, 1931; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, 1948.

CHANG, Peng-chun

Diplomatic official, native of Tientsin, born in 1892; M.A., Columbia, 1923; dean, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1923-26; visiting professor, University of Chicago, 1931, and University of Hawaii, 1933-34; Minister to Turkey, 1940-42; Minister to Chile, 1942-45; Chinese representative on United Nations Economic and Social Council, since 1945.

CHANG, P. H. (see CHANG, Ping-chun)**CHANG, Ping-chun (prefers P. H. CHANG)**

Consular official, native of Tientsin, born in 1902; graduate, Nankai Univ., 1920; studied in Germany, 1920-25; counsellor, Executive Yuan, 1943-46; concurrently director, Chinese News Service, New York, 1946-47; Consul-general at New York, since 1946.

CHANG, Pin-chun (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1898; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, and Chinese and German staff colleges; Deputy Commander-in-Chief,

Combined Service Forces, 1947-48; chief of staff, Southeast Military and Political Affairs Hq., since 1949.

CHANG, Po-ling

Educator, native of Tientsin, born in 1874; graduate, Peiyang Naval Academy, 1893; Hon. D. Litt., St. John's Univ., 1919; founder and chancellor, Nankai University, 1904-48; member, executive council, National Southwest Associated Univ., 1938-45; deputy speaker, People's Political Council, 1938-40; member, presidium, P.P.C., 1940-48; president, Chinese Educational Association; president, China National Amateur Athletic Federation; president, Examination Yuan, 1948-49.

CHANG, Shih-chao

Jurist, native of Hunan, born in 1886; M.A.; Edinburgh; Minister of Education, 1923-25; legal practitioner in Shanghai since 1932; member, People's Political Council, 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, 1948.

CHANG, Shih-yi

Jurist, native of Honan; graduate, Chihli Law College; former judge, Supreme Court; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Ta-chien

Artist, native of Szechwan, painter of landscape and figures, noted for his copies of the mural painting of Tun-hwang.

CHANG, Tao-fan

Government official, native of Kweichow, born in 1897; graduate, Slate School, London, 1924; Vice-Minister of Communications, 1933-35; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1936-37; Vice-Minister of Education, 1938-39; vice-chancellor, Central Political Institute, 1940-41; Minister of Information, 1942-43; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; chairman, Kuomintang Central Cultural Movement Committee, since 1940; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Ting-hsiu

University chancellor, native of Kweichow, born in 1899; B.A., National Southeastern Univ.; president, National Kweichow Univ. (Kweiyang), since 1942.

CHANG, Tu-lun (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1892; graduate, Paoting Military

Academy; deputy commander, 9th Army, 1929; director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Sichang, Sikang Province, 1939-45; mayor of Chungking, 1945-48; governor of Hupeh, 1948-49; secretary-general, Southwest Military and Political Affairs Hq. since 1948.

CHANG, Tung-sun

Philosopher, native of Chekiang, born in 1886; B.A., Tokyo Imperial Univ.; former chief secretary of Senate; editor, *China Times*, Shanghai; acting president, China National Institute, Woon-sung; professor of philosophy, Yenching Univ., since 1929; one of the Democratic Socialist Party leaders who split with Carson Chang and participated in the party's Reform Committee in Shanghai.

CHANG, Tze-kai

Government official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1900; M.B.A., New York Univ.; deputy director, Industrial and Mining Adjustment Administration, Ministry of Economic Affairs, 1938-46; general manager, Chinese Petroleum Corporation, since 1947.

CHANG, Wai-jeung (see CHANG, Hui-chang)

CHANG, Wei-chen (Mrs. LO, Chia-lun, prefers Wei-djen Djang LO)

Native of Kiangsu, born in 1898; M.A., Michigan, 1927; member, People's Political Council, 1941-48; director, women's department, *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, 1943-46; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Wei-han

Government official, native of Yunnan, born in 1887; studied public administration at Tokyo Imperial Univ.; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1939-46; Control Yuan Commissioner in Yunnan and Kweichow, 1946-47; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Yin-tang

Geographer, native of Shantung, born in 1902; M.Sc., Liverpool Univ., 1929; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ. (Peiping), since 1933; author, *Economic Development and Prospects of Inner Mongolia*.

CHANG, Yu-che

Astronomer, native of Fukien, born in 1902; Ph.D., Chicago, 1929; professor, National Central Univ., 1929-41; director, Institute of Astronomy, Academia Sinica, since 1941.

CHANG, Yu-hsun

Jurist, native of Kiangsi, born in 1887; studied in Japan and France; former judge, Supreme Court; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

CHANG, Yuan-chi

Publisher, native of Chekiang, born in 1877; educated under Manchu dynasty system; for many years chairman, board of directors, Commercial Press, Ltd., Shanghai; editor, Commercial Press Edition, *The Twenty-four Histories*; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

CHANG, Yuan-jo

Government official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1904; graduate, Paris Univ.; president, Kiangnan Univ., 1945-48; vice chairman, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, Executive Yuan, 1948-49; member, same Commission, 1949.

CHANG, Yuan-shan (prefers Y. S. DJANG)

Social worker, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; B.A., Cornell, 1915; executive secretary, China International Famine Relief Commission, 1922-35; director, department of cooperatives, Ministry of Industry, 1935-37; director, department of commerce, Ministry of Economic Affairs, 1938-41; executive director, International Relief Committee of China, since 1942.

CHAO, Ching-yu

Government official, native of Shansi, born in 1896; graduate, Keio Univ., Tokyo; professor, National Shansi and Honan Univs.; member, Examination Yuan, since 1948.

CHAO, Lien-fang

Agriculturist, native of Honan, born in 1894; Ph.D., Wisconsin, 1927; senior technical expert, National Agricultural Research Bureau, 1936-44; commissioner of agriculture, Taiwan provincial government, 1945-47; senior technical expert, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, 1947-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHAO, Pi-lien

Government official, native of Shansi, born in 1881; graduate, Shansi Univ.; vice-chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1932-47; advisor, Executive Yuan, since 1947; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1929.

CHAO, Ti-hua

Banker, native of Kiangsu, born in 1904; M.A., Northwestern Univ., U.S.A.; general manager, Bank of Communications, 1942-49; chairman, board of directors, Bank of Communications, since 1949.

CHAO, Tseng-chueh (prefers T. C. TSAO)

Electrical engineer, native of Shanghai, born in 1901; M.S. in E.E., Harvard, 1922; director, department of posts and telecommunications, Ministry of Communications, 1943-45; director, bureau of public utilities, Shanghai municipal government, 1945-49.

CHAO, Tze-cheng

Theologian, native of Chekiang, born in 1888; M.A. (1916) and B.D. (1917), Vanderbilt; Hon. D. Litt., Soochow; Hon. D.D., Princeton; professor and dean, department of religion, Yenching Univ. (Peiping), since 1928; author, *Christian Philosophy*, and *Present-day Religious Thoughts and Life in China*.

CHAO, Tsu-kang

Civil engineer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; B.C.E., Tangshan Engineering College; delegate to 6th and 7th International Road Congress; deputy director, National Highway Administration, 1943-44; director, Shanghai bureau of public works, 1945-49.

CHAO, Y. R. (see CHAO, Yuan-jen)**CHAO, Yuan-jen (prefers Y. R. CHAO)**

Philologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; Ph.D. Harvard, 1918; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1927-28; director, department of philology, Institute of History and Philology, Academia Sinica, since 1928; professor Harvard-Yenching Institute, Harvard Univ., since 1941; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *A Phonograph Course in the Chinese National Language*.

CHEN, Chang-heng

Economist, native of Szechwan, born in 1891; M.A., Harvard; member and chairman, financial affairs committee, Legislative Yuan, 1928-48; director, Bureau of Budgets, Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, 1948-49; author, *China's Population Problem*, etc.

CHEN, Chao-ying

Kuomintang official, native of Chekiang, born in 1888; member, Kuomin-

tang Central Executive Committee, since 1926; former Control Yuan Commissioner for Fukien-Chekiang area; now chairman, Kiangsi Kuomintang Provincial Headquarters.

CHEN, Chen

Biologist, native of Kiangsi, born in 1894; M.S., Columbia; professor, National Tsinghua Univ.; elected Member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

CHEN, Cheng (General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1897; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1922; Commander-in-Chief, 3rd Route Army, 1934; director, army reorganization department, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Wuhan, 1935-36; Vice-Minister of War, 1937; garrison commander, Wuhan Area, and Commander-in-Chief, 9th War Area, 1938; minister, Political Training Board, National Military Council, 1938-40; governor of Hupeh, 1939-44; Commander-in-Chief, 6th War Area, 1940-44; Commander-in-Chief, Expeditionary Forces, Yunnan-Burma Border Area, 1943-44; Commander-in-Chief, 1st War Area, 1944; Minister of War, 1944-46; chief, General Staff, 1946-48; director, President's Headquarters in Northeast, 1947-48; governor of Taiwan, 1949; Military and Political Affairs Director for the Southeast, since 1949.

CHEN, Chi-cheng (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 1st Army, 1931; dean Central Military Academy, 1938-42; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Chungking Garrison Area, 1943-45; garrison commander of Peiping, 1945-48; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, North China, 1948; Commander-in-Chief, Nanking Defense Area, 1948; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

CHEN, Chi-tang (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1890; graduate, Kwangtung Military Academy; commander, 8th Route Army, 1931-36; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1940-42; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947; governor of Hainan Island, since 1949.

CHEN, Chi-tien

Government official, native of Hupeh, born in 1891; graduate, National South-

eastern Univ.; one of the leaders of Young China Party; professor at several universities; Minister of Economic Affairs, 1947-48; Minister of Industry and Commerce, 1948-49.

CHEN, Chi-tsai

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1879; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy, 1903; comptroller-general, National Government, 1931-47; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

CHEN, Chieh

Diplomatic official, native of Hunan, born in 1895; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ. and Berlin Univ.; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1935-37; Ambassador to Germany, 1938-41; Ambassador-at-Large to South America, 1942; Ambassador to Brazil, 1943-44; Ambassador to Mexico, 1944-46; Ambassador to Argentina, since 1946.

CHEN, Chih-mai

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1908; Ph.D., Columbia, 1933; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1933-37; counsellor, Executive Yuan, 1938-44; counsellor, Chinese Embassy, Washington, D.C., since 1944.

CHEN, Chih-ping

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1905; B.S., National Southeastern Univ.; consul-general at Calcutta, 1944-45; Minister to the Philippines, 1946-49; Ambassador to the Philippines, since 1949.

CHEN, Ching-han

Journalist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1878; studied in Japan; for many years editor-in-chief, *Shun Pao*, Shanghai; chairman, board of directors, *Shun Pao*, 1945-49.

CHEN, Ching-yun

Kuomintang official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1901; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; minister, Kuomintang Overseas Affairs Board, since 1945.

CHEN, Heng-che (Mrs. H. C. ZEN, prefers Sophia H. CHEN)

Historian, writer, native of Kiangsu; B.A., Vassar, 1919; M.A., Chicago, 1920; professor, National Peking Univ., 1921-23; four times member, Chinese Delegation to conferences of Institute of Pacific Relations; author, *Little Raindrop* (novel) and several textbooks on history.

CHEN, Ho-chin

College president, native of Chekiang, born in 1891; M.A., Columbia; director, Chinese education department, Shanghai Municipal Council, 1928-41; editor-in-chief, Children's Book Co.; president, National Kindergarten Teacher's College, since 1945.

CHEN, Hsing (prefers Jian H. CHEN)

Banker, native of Chekiang, born in 1890; M.A., Ohio; deputy governor, Central Bank of China, 1928-48.

CHEN, Hsueh-ping

Professor, native of Kiangsu, born in 1902; M.A., Columbia, 1927; professor, National Peking Univ., 1932-47; minister, Kuomintang Youth Board, 1947-48; Acting Minister of Education, 1948; member and education commissioner, Taiwan provincial government, since 1949.

CHEN, Hsun-yu

Journalist, native of Chekiang, born in 1907; graduate, Tung Wen College, Shanghai, 1929; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1942; editor-in-chief, *Central Daily News*, Chungking, 1943-45; managing director and editor-in-chief, *Shun Pao*, Shanghai, 1945-49.

CHEN, Jian H. (see CHEN, Hsing)**CHEN, Ke-hui (prefers K. K. CHEN)**

Pharmacologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1896; Ph.D. and M.D., Johns Hopkins; director of pharmacological research, Eli Lilly & Co. (U.S.A.), since 1929; elected Member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

CHEN, K. K. (see CHEN, Ke-hui)**CHEN, Ko-chung**

Government official, native of Fukien, born in 1898; Ph.D., Chicago; director, National Compilation and Translation Bureau, 1936-48; chancellor, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., (Canton), 1948-49.

CHEN, Ku-yuan

Writer, native of Shensi, born in 1896; LL.B., National Peking Univ., 1923; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1935; author, *A History of Chinese Marriage*.

CHEN, Kuang-pu

Banker, native of Kiangsu, born in 1880; B.C., Pennsylvania, 1909; founder and general manager, Shanghai Com-

mercial and Savings Bank, since 1915; chairman, Foreign Trade Commission, Ministry of Finance, 1938-41; chairman, Currency Stabilization Board, 1941-44; state councillor, 1947-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHEN, Kuo-fu

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1892; vice-president, Control Yuan, 1929-31; governor of Kiangsu, 1933-37; vice-chancellor, Central Political Institute, 1938-42; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1929; minister, Kuomintang Organization Board, 1944; chairman, board of directors, Farmers' Bank of China, since 1945; chairman, Kuomintang Central Financial Affairs Committee, since 1945.

CHEN, Kuo-lien

Government official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1907; graduate, Paris School of Political Science; director, Shanghai Office, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1945-48; Minister to Denmark, since 1948.

CHEN, Li-chiang

College president, native of Kiangsi, born in 1896; M.A., Chicago; president, National College of Social Education, 1941-49.

CHEN, Li-fu

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1900; M.S., Pittsburg, 1924; Hon. LL.D., Fordham Univ.; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1929; secretary-general, Kuomintang C.E.C., 1930-31; minister, Kuomintang Organization Board, 1932-37; Minister of Education, 1938-44; minister, Kuomintang Organization Board, 1944-48; secretary-general, Kuomintang Central Political Council, since 1947; elected vice-president, Legislative Yuan, at first session of the first constitutional Legislative Yuan, May, 1948; Minister without Portfolio, since 1948.

CHEN, Liang

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1897; graduate, Aoyama Agricultural College, Japan; director, commissariat administration, Ministry of War, 1940-46; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Combined Service Forces 1946-47; Vice-Minister of Food, 1947-48; mayor of Shanghai, 1949; deputy chief, General Staff, since 1949.

CHEN, Ming-shu (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1889; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; Commander-in-Chief, South Route Army, 1926; governor of Kwangtung, 1928-31; vice-president, Executive Yuan, and Minister of Communications, 1931-32.

CHEN, Po-sheng

Journalist, native of Fukien, born in 1892; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ. and London Univ.; former publisher, *Chen Pao*, Peiping, and *Central Daily News*, Chungking; editor-in-chief, Central News Agency, since 1940; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1938.

CHEN, Shao-kwan (Admiral)

Naval officer, native of Fukien, born in 1889; graduate, Mamoi Naval Academy, 1908; commander, 2nd Squadron, 1926-31; Vice-Minister of Navy, 1929-31; Minister of Navy, 1932-38; member, National Military Council, and Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Navy, 1938-46; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947.

CHEN, Shen-sheng

Mathematician, native of Chekiang, born in 1911; D.Sc., Hamburg Univ., 1936; director, Institute of Mathematics, Academia Sinica, since 1947; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

CHEN, Ta (prefers Ta T. CHEN)

Sociologist, native of Chekiang, born in 1892; B.A., Reed College, 1919; Ph.D., Columbia, 1923; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., (Peiping), since 1923; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *Chinese Migrations with Special Reference to Labor Conditions, China's Labor Problems, Population in Modern China*, etc.

CHEN, Ta-chi

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1887; B.A., Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1912; chairman, Commission for Civil Service Examination, Examination Yuan, 1935-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

CHEN, Ta T. (see CHEN, Ta)**CHEN, Wen-kwan (prefers Moon CHIN)**

Aviator, native of Kwangtung, born in Baltimore, U.S.A.; graduate, Curtiss

Wright Flying School; China National Aviation Corporation, 1933-45; vice-president, Central Air Transport Corporation, in charge of operations 1945-49.

CHEN, Wen-yuan

Christian worker, native of Fukien, born in 1900; Ph.D., Duke; acting president, Fukien Christian Univ., 1931; secretary-general, National Christian Council, (Shanghai), since 1934.

CHEN, Yen-chun

Government official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1895; director, Peiping-Hankow Railway Administration, 1933; director, Southwest Highway Transportation Administration, 1942-45; chairman, board of directors, Chinese Changchun Railway, 1947-48.

CHEN, Y. G. (see CHEN, Yu-kuang)**CHEN, Yi (General)**

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1893; graduate, Japanese Staff College, 1916; Vice-Minister of War, 1929-33; governor of Fukien, 1934-41; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1941-42; acting chancellor, Staff College, 1943; commandant, Central Training Corps, 1944; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; governor of Taiwan, 1945-47; governor of Chekiang, 1948-49.

CHEN, Yi

Communist army officer, standing member of Central Committee of Chinese Communist Party, native of Szechwan, born in 1889; studied in France, 1919-21, and organized a branch of Chinese Communist Party in France with Chou En-lai; assumed active command of Communist New 4th Army and Communist troops in central China in 1946; became head of the "People's Liberation Military Control Commission" in Shanghai after his troops took the city in May, 1949; later became "mayor" of Shanghai; named member of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government Council" in Oct., 1949.

CHEN, Yi-sung

Government official, native of Taiwan, born in 1902; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ.; member, People's Political Council, 1945-48; member, Examination Yuan, since 1948.

CHEN, Yin-ko

Historian, native of Kiangsi, born in 1890; research student, Harvard;

now professor, National Tsing Hua Univ.; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

CHEN, Yu-kuang (prefers Y. G. CHEN)

University president, native of Nan-king, born in 1893; B.A., Univ. of Nan-king, 1915; Ph.D., Columbia, 1922; president, Univ. of Nanking, since 1927; member, People's Political Council, 1938-46; speaker, Nanking Municipal Council, 1946-49.

CHEN, Yuan

Professor, writer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1895; studied in England; former professor, National Peking and Wuhan universities; representative in London, Sino-British Cultural Association, since 1943; Chinese representative, Executive Board, UNESCO, since 1945.

CHENG, Chen-to

Writer, native of Fukien, born in 1898; professor literature at Futan and Yenching universities; former editor of *Short Stories Monthly*, literary magazine in prewar years; now editor, *Literary Renaissance* (monthly); author, *A History of Chinese Literature*, (4 volumes), etc.

CHENG, Chen-wen

Chemist, native of Fukien, born in 1893; B.A., Tokoku Imperial Univ., Japan; member and education commissioner, Fukien provincial government, 1931-43; author of many textbooks on chemistry.

CHENG, Chen-yu

Government official, native of Honan, born in 1900; graduate, National Peking Normal Univ.; director, department of land administration, Ministry of Interior, 1932-40; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kansu provincial government, 1940-41; director, National Land Administration, 1942-47; Vice-Minister of Land, 1947-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHENG, Chi-pao

Government official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1897; M.A., Chicago, 1922; former professor and dean, college of education, National Central Univ.; commissioner of education, Hupeh; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHENG, Chieh-min (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1899; graduate, Whampoa Military

Academy, 1925, Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1928, and Staff College, 1934; director 2nd department, Military Operations Board, 1944-46; director, 2nd department, Ministry of National Defense, 1946-47; government member, Executive Headquarters, Peiping, 1947; Vice-Minister of National Defense, since 1947.

CHENG, Chien (General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1882; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; commander, 6th Army, 1926; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1926-49; chief, General Staff, 1935-38; governor of Honan, 1938-49; Commander-in-Chief, 1st War Area, 1937-39; director, Generalissimo's Northwest Headquarters, 1939-40; deputy chief of staff, National Military Council, 1941-46; director, President's Headquarters in Wuhan, 1945-48; vice-presidential candidate, 1948; governor of Hunan, and Pacification Commissioner for Hunan and Kiangsi, 1948-49; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

CHENG, Chung-hsing (CHENG, Tsang-po)

Journalist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1902; graduate, Futan Univ.; Vice-Minister of Information, 1942-44; secretary-general, Control Yuan, 1940-45; publisher, *Sin Wan Pao*, Shanghai, 1946-49.

CHENG, F. T. (see CHENG, Tien-hsi)

CHENG, Hai-feng

Labor expert, native of Anhwei, born in 1904; M.A., Stanford; director, China Branch, International Labor Office (Shanghai), since 1933.

CHENG, Loy (see CHENG, Lai)

CHENG, Shao-chun

Veterinarian and health expert, native of Szechwan, born in 1900; D.V.M., Iowa, 1926; D.P.H., Johns Hopkins, 1930; director, National Animal Husbandry Research Bureau, since 1945.

CHENG, She-wo

Journalist, native of Hunan, born in 1898; B.A., National Peking Univ., 1921; publisher, *Shih Chieh Jih Pao*, (World Daily News), Peiping; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; publisher of several well-known dailies before the war.

CHENG, Tien-fang

Government official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1899; Ph.D., Toronto, 1925; dean, Central Political Institute, 1934-35; Ambassador to Germany, 1935-38; chancellor, National Szechwan Univ., 1939-42; vice-chancellor, Central Political Institute, 1943-46; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1943; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; Kuomintang Minister of Information, since 1949.

CHENG, Tien-hsi (prefers F. T. CHENG)

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1884; LL.D., London, 1916; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1932-34; special commissioner to London International Exhibition of Chinese Art, 1935; judge, Permanent Court of International Justice, 1936-45; Ambassador to Great Britain, 1946-49.

CHENG, Tien-ku

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1890; graduate, University of California; Minister to Mexico, 1941-44; Ambassador to Brazil, 1944-47.

CHENG, Tsang-po (see CHENG, Chung-hsing)**CHENG, Tung-ho**

Government official, native of Anhwei, born in 1898; M.A., Columbia; member and education commissioner, Kansu provincial government, 1938-46; vice-minister, Kuomintang Youth Board, 1946-48; professor and dean, National Taiwan Univ., since 1948.

CHENG, Yen-fen

Kuomintang official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1902; studied in France; professor and dean, college of law, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1935-37; executive secretary, China Branch, International Anti-Aggression Movement, 1938; deputy secretary-general, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1945-48; secretary-general Kuomintang C.E.C., since 1948; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHENG, Yi-tung

Diplomatic official, native of Chekiang, born in 1905; graduate, National Peking Univ.; studied in England; Minister to Australia, 1945-46; Ambassador to Iran, since 1947.

CHENG, Yu-hsiu (Mrs. WEI Tao-ming, prefers Soumay TCHENG)

Lawyer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1894; LL.D., Paris; practised law

in Shanghai, 1924-27; president, Shanghai Court, 1927; member, Legislative Yuan, 1929-38 and since 1948.

CHI, Pai-shih

Artist, native of Hunan, born in 1861; leading Chinese painter now residing in Peiping; professor of Chinese painting, National Academy of Fine Art, Peiping.

CHI, Yi-chiao

Government official, native of Hupeh, born in 1880; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; former army commander and member, Military Advisory Council; one of the leaders of the Democratic Socialist Party; state councillor, National Government, 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

CHIA, Ching-teh

Government official, native of Shansi, born in 1879; graduate, Shansi University; former secretary-general, Pacification Headquarters at Taiyuan; Minister of Personnel, 1942-48; vice-president, Examination Yuan, 1948-49; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, since 1949.

CHIANG, Ching-kuo (Major-General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1906; elder son of President Chiang Kai-shek; studied in U.S.S.R.; administrative commissioner for southern Kiangsi, 1940-45; Foreign Affairs Commissioner for Northeast, 1945-47; Deputy Economic Control Supervisor for Shanghai, 1948; chairman, Taiwan Provincial Kuomintang Hqs., since 1949.

CHIANG, Chung - cheng (CHIANG, Kai-shek)

President of the Republic of China, born in Fenghwa, Chekiang, 1887; attended Paoting Military Academy, 1906, and Tokyo Military Academy, 1907; joined *Tung Meng Hui* while in Japan; participated in 1911 Revolution; appointed president, Whampoa Military Academy, 1923; appointed Commander-in-Chief, Revolutionary Armies, 1926, to lead Northern Expedition, resulting in unifying China in 1928; elected president, National Government, 1928, and in that capacity assumed post of Commander-in-Chief of China's land, naval and air forces; between 1928 and 1931, held at different periods posts of president of Executive Yuan and Minister of Education; retired in December, 1931, but returned to Nanking in January, 1932; appointed president, National Military Council, 1932, which post he held

until 1946; at certain periods between 1932 and 1937 was chief of General Staff, chairman of National Economic Council, president of Executive Yuan, and state councillor; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1926; elected *Tsung Tsai* (Director-General) of Kuomintang, 1938; during the war with Japan his duties increased immensely, holding a number of concurrent posts; he is now the acknowledged leader of the nation; elected President, National Government, 1943, to succeed the late President Lin Sen; was supreme commander of all Allied forces in China Theater during World War II; elected President of the Republic of China in April, 1948, at China's first constitutional National Assembly; retired from Presidency January 21, 1949; resumed the Presidency, March 1, 1950; Chairman, Kuomintang Supreme Council, since 1949.

CHIANG, Fu-tsung

Library expert, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; B.A., National Peking Univ., 1924; graduate, Institute of Library Science, Berlin Univ., 1932; director, National Central Library, since 1940.

CHIANG, Heng-yuan

Educator, native of Kiangsu, born in 1886; graduate, National Peking Univ., secretary-general, National Association of Vocational Education, since 1930, author of many books on education.

CHIANG, I-ping (prefers Eugene Y. B. KIANG)

Lawyer, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; B.A. and Hon. LL.D., Fudan; LL.D., Soochow, vice-chancellor, National Fudan Univ., 1941; member, People's Political Council, 1942-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; legal practitioner in Shanghai since 1934.

CHIANG, Kai-shek (see CHIANG, Chung-cheng)

CHIANG, Kai-shek, Madame (see CHIANG, Sung Mei-ling)

CHIANG, Kuang-nai (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1887; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; Commander-in-Chief, 19th Group Army, 1932; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 4th War Area, 1945; Deputy Pacification Commissioner for Chuchow, Chekiang, 1945-48; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee,

1948; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

CHIANG, Li-fu

Mathematician, native of Chekiang, born in 1890; Ph.D., Harvard, 1919; director, Institute of Mathematics, Academia Sinica, since 1941; elected member, Academia Sinica.

CHIANG, Mayling Soong (see CHIANG, Sung Mei-ling)

CHIANG, Meng-lin (prefers Monlin CHIANG)

Educator, native of Chekiang, born in 1884; Ph.D., Columbia, 1917; Minister of Education, 1928-30, chancellor, National Peking Univ., 1930-45, president, Chinese Red Cross Society, since 1942; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1945-47; state councillor, National Government, 1947-48; chairman, China Branch, Institute of Pacific Relations; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948; chairman, Rehabilitation Affairs Commission, since 1948; chairman, Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction, since 1948.

CHIANG, Monlin (see CHIANG Meng-lin)

CHIANG, Sung Mei-ling (Madame CHIANG Kai-shek, prefers Mayling Soong CHIANG)

Native of Kwangtung, born in Shanghai, 1901; B.A., Wellesley; married Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in 1927; member, Legislative Yuan, 1930-32; principal, School for Orphans of the Revolutionaries, 1929-37; secretary-general, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, 1937-38; director-general, Women's Advisory Council, New Life Movement, since 1938; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1946.

CHIANG, Ting-fu (prefers Tingfu F. TSIANG)

Historian, diplomat, government official, native of Hunan, born in 1895; Ph.D., Columbia, 1923; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1929-35; director, political affairs department, Executive Yuan, 1935-36; Ambassador to U.S.S.R., 1936-38; director, political affairs department, Executive Yuan, 1938-44; director, Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 1944-47; permanent representative on United Nations Security Council, since 1947; au-

thor, *Modern Chinese History, Selected Documents on China's Diplomatic History*, etc.

CHIANG, Ting-wen (General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 9th Army, 1931-32; commander, Yangtze River Defense, 1933; Pacification Commissioner for Fukien, 1934-37; director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Sian, 1937; governor of Shensi, 1938-41; Commander-in-Chief, 1st War Area, 1942-44; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947; Inspector of Army for the Southeast, since 1949.

CHIANG, Yun-tien

Government official, native of Anhwei, born in 1904; graduate, Woosung Cheng-chi Univ., 1927; one of the leaders of Democratic Socialist Party; Minister Without Portfolio, Executive Yuan, 1947-48; advisor, Executive Yuan, since 1948.

CHIANG, Yung

Jurist, native of Fukien, born in 1878; former Minister of Justice and president, National Peking College of Law; legal practitioner in Shanghai; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; member, presidium, P.P.C., 1943-48; Grand Justice, Judician Yuan, since 1948.

CHIAO, Chi-ming

Agricultural economist, native of Shansi, born in 1897; M.A., Cornell; professor, Nanking Univ., 1924-40; director, agricultural loans department, Farmers' Bank of China, 1941-45; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

CHIAO, I-tang

Government official, native of Shensi, born in 1901; graduate, Shensi Law College; president, Supreme Court, 1935-41; advisor, National Government, 1941-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

CHIEN, Chang-chao

Government official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; studied at London and Oxford, 1919-23; Vice-Minister of Education, 1930-32; deputy secretary-general, National Defense Planning Committee, National Military Council, 1932-35; deputy secretary-general, National Resources Commission, N. M. C., 1935-38; vice-chairman, National Resources Commission, Ministry of Economic Af-

fairs, 1938-46; chairman, National Resources Commission, Executive Yuan, 1946-47; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

CHIEN, Chung-shu

Writer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1911; B. Litt., Oxford, 1937; now professor, National Chinan Univ., and English editor-in-chief, National Central Library; author, *China in the English Literature of the 17th and 18th Centuries* and several novels.

CHIEN, Hsin-chih (see CHIEN, Yung-ming)

CHIEN, Mu

Historian, native of Kiangsu, born in 1895; professor of history at several well-known universities; author, *An Outline of Chinese History*.

CHIEN, Ta-chun (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; commander, 13th Army, 1929-32; director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Paoting, 1932-33; Aid-de-Camp to Generalissimo, 1935-37; Vice-Minister of War, 1942-45; mayor of Shanghai, 1945-46; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; deputy director of Military and Political Affairs in the Southwest, since 1949.

CHIEN, Tai (prefers TSIEN, Tai)

Diplomatic official, native of Chekiang, born in 1887; docteur en droit, Paris; Minister and later Ambassador to Belgium, 1933-42; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1942; Ambassador to Belgium, 1943-44; Ambassador to France, 1944-49.

CHIEN, Tien-ho

Agriculturist, native of Chekiang, born in 1893; M.S., Cornell, 1918; Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1940-47; special advisor to Director-General, Food and Agriculture Board, United Nations, 1947-48; technical member, Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction, since 1949.

CHIEN, Tuan-sheng

Professor, native of Shanghai, born in 1896; Ph.D., Harvard; professor of law and political science, National Peking Univ., elected member, Academia

Sinica, 1948; co-author (with Wang Shih-chieh) of *Comparative Constitutional Laws*; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949.

CHIEN, Yu-wen

Historian, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; M.A., Chicago, 1920; member, Legislative Yuan, 1931-48; author of several books on the Taiping Rebellion.

CHIEN, Yung-ming (CHIEN, Hsin-chih)

Banker, native of Chekiang, born in 1885; LL.D., Kobe Commercial College; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1927; chairman, board of directors, Bank of Communications, since 1940.

CHIH, Ping-yuan

Engineer, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; graduate, National Chiaotung Univ.; founder and manager, New China (Hsin Chung) Engineering Co., since 1925.

CHIN, Fen

Government official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1887; M.A., Harvard, 1909; secretary-general, National Economic Council, 1933-37; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1933-35; Vice-Minister of Economic Affairs, 1938-44; vice chairman, Reparations Committee, Executive Yuan, since 1947.

CHIN, Moon (see CHEN, Wen-kwan)

CHIN, Pao-shan (prefers P. Z. KING)

Health expert, native of Chekiang, born in 1893; M.D., Chiba Medical College, Japan, 1918; C.P.H., Johns Hopkins, 1927; director, National Health Administration, 1940-47; Vice-Minister of Health, 1947-48; Minister of Health, 1948-49; medical advisor, U.N. International Children's Emergency Fund, 1949-50 (Jan.).

CHIN, Teh-chun (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Shantung, born in 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; graduate, Staff College, 1922; governor of Chahar, 1933; was mayor of Peiping and deputy commander, 29th Army, when Japan attacked North China in 1937; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1935; deputy director-general of Courts-Marshal, 1941-46; Vice-Minister of National Defense, 1946-48; governor of Shantung, 1948-49; Vice-Minister of National Defense, since 1949.

CHIN, Tseng-cheng

Educator, native of Kwangtung, born in 1879; graduate, Tokyo Normal College; member and education commissioner, Kwangtung provincial government, 1929-32; member, People's Political Council, 1940-45; chancellor, National Sun Yat-sen University, 1942-45; speaker, Kwangtung provincial council, 1946.

CHIN, Wen-ssu (prefers Wunsz KING)

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; LL.M., Columbia; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1931; Minister and later Ambassador to the Netherlands, 1933-45; Ambassador to Belgium, since 1945.

CHIU, Chang-wei

Government official, native of Hunan, born in 1896; J.D., Columbia; member and civil affairs commissioner, Kwangsi provincial government, 1942-44; deputy secretary-general, Central Planning Board, 1945-46; deputy secretary-general, Political Affairs Commission for Pacification Areas, 1946-47; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948-49; secretary-general, The President's Office, since 1949.

CHOU, Chi-kang

Government official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1889; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1929; vice-chairman, Overseas Affairs Commission, Executive Yuan, 1932-47.

CHOU, Chih-jou (Air Lieutenant-General, prefers CHOW Chih-jou)

Air force officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1899; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commandant, Central Aviation Academy, Hangchow, 1934-36; director, National Aeronautical Commission, 1936-46; Commander-in-Chief, Air Force, since 1946.

CHOU, Chung-yueh

Government official, native of Yunnan, born in 1876; graduate, Tokyo Normal College, 1905; acting governor of Yunnan, 1919; Minister of Interior, 1939-44; vice-president, Examination Yuan, 1944-48; advisor to the President, since 1948.

CHOU, En-lai

Communist leader, native of Kiangsu, born in 1898; attended Nankai (Tientsin) and Waseda (Tokyo) Univ.; joined Communist Youth in France, 1920, and later joined Communist Party; led Shanghai workers' uprisings, 1927; held different

posts in Communist Party; after outbreak of war in 1937, became Communist Party's chief liaison officer in Chungking, and in Nanking, 1945-47; vice-minister, Political Training Board, National Military Council, 1938-40; appointed premier and foreign minister, Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government of the People's Republic of China," Oct., 1949.

CHOU, Keng-sheng (prefers S. R. CHOW)

University chancellor, native of Hunan, born in 1888; M.A., Edinburgh, 1918; docteur en droit, Paris, 1920; chancellor, National Wuhan University, since 1945; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *Winning the Peace in the Pacific*.

CHOU, Jen

Engineer, native of Nanking, born in 1884; M.S., Cornell, 1915; director, Institute of Engineering, Academia Sinica, since 1928; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

CHOU, Mou-po (prefers Mao-ba CHOW)

Engineer, native of Hupeh, born in 1906; studied in Germany; director, Ming Sung Industrial Co. Machine Works, 1938-43; general manager, Heng Shun Machine Works, 1938-45; general manager, Taiwan Ship-building Co., since 1948; director, Preparatory Office, Central Ship Building Co. (Shanghai), since 1946.

CHOU, Yi-chun (prefers Y. T. TSUR)

Government official, native of Hankow, born in 1883; B.A., Yale, 1909; M.A., Wisconsin, 1910; Hon. D. Litt., St. John's; executive director, China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, 1924-28; president, Yenching Univ., 1933-34; Vice-Minister of Industry, 1936-37; member and finance commissioner, Kweichow provincial government, 1938-44; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1945-47; Minister of Health, 1947-48.

CHOW, Chi-jou (see CHOU, Chih-jou)

CHOW, Mao-ba (see CHOU, Mou-po)

CHOW, S. R. (see CHOU, Keng-sheng)

CHOW, Z. Y. (see CHOU, Hsiang-hsien)

CHU, Chang-keng

Health expert, native of Chekiang, born in 1901; M.D., Peiping Union Medical College, 1929; D.P.H., Yale, 1932; director, National Institute of Health, since 1942.

CHU, Cheng

Government official, native of Hupeh, born in 1876; graduate, Tokyo Law College; Acting Minister of Interior, 1912; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1924; state councillor, National Government, and president, Judicial Yuan, 1932-48; presidential candidate, 1948; member, Control Yuan, since 1948; director, Institute of National History, since 1949.

CHU, Chi

Economist, native of Chekiang, born in 1907; D. Econ., Berlin Univ., 1932; professor and dean, economics department, National Central Univ., 1932-39; deputy director, Customs Administration Ministry of Finance, since 1944.

CHU, Chia-hua

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1893; Ph.D., Berlin, chancellor, National Central Univ., 1930-32; Minister of Education, 1932-33; Minister of Communications, 1932-35; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; chairman, board of trustees, Sino-British Educational and Cultural Endowment Fund, since 1932; governor of Chekiang, 1936-37; secretary-general, Kuomintang C.E.C., 1938-39; minister, Kuomintang Organization Board, 1939-44; acting president, Academia Sinica, since 1940; vice-president, Examination Yuan, 1941-44; Minister of Education, 1944-48; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; vice-president, Executive Yuan, since 1949.

CHU, Ching-nung (prefers King CHU)

Educator, native of Kiangsu, born in 1887; M.A., George Washington Univ., 1911; president, Cheeloo Univ., 1931-32; member and education commissioner, Hunan provincial government, 1932-43; vice-chancellor, National Central Univ., 1943-44; Vice-Minister of Education, 1944-47; managing director, Commercial Press, Ltd., 1947-48; president, Kuanghua Univ., since 1946; editor, *Encyclopaedia of Education*.

CHU, Chun-yi (prefers Jennings P. CHU)

Statistician, native of Chekiang, born in 1892; Ph.D., Columbia, 1922; director,

bureau of legislative research, Legislative Yuan, 1932-33; comptroller, National Government, and deputy director, Directorate of Statistics, 1933-47; comptroller, National Government, and director, same Directorate, 1947-48; director, Directorate of Statistics, Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, Executive Yuan, 1948-49.

CHU, Coching (see **CHU, Ko-chen**)

CHU, Hsi-chun (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, graduate, Paoting Military Academy; former army commander; garrison commander of Peiping; Commander-in-Chief, northern zone of the 2nd War Area; governor of Hopei, 1947-49.

CHU, Huai-ping

Army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1892; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; engaged in guerrilla warfare during the war; director, Kuomintang Central Training Committee, 1944-45; attached to the Northeast Rebellion Suppression Headquarters, 1948.

CHU, Jennings P. (see **CHU, Chun-yi**)

CHU, Ko-chen (prefers **Coching CHU**)

Meteorologist, native of Chekiang, born in 1890; Ph.D., Harvard, 1918; director, Institute of Meteorology, Academia Sinica, 1928-46; chancellor, National Chekiang Univ. (Hangchow), since 1936; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

CHU, King (see **CHU, Ching-nung**)

CHU, Kuang-chien

Professor, writer, native of Anhwei, born in 1897; M.A., Edinburgh; D.Litt., Strasburg; professor and dean of studies, National Wuhan Univ., 1938-45; professor and dean, department of Western languages and literature, National Peking Univ., since 1946; author, *Psychology of Literature, Twelve Letters to the Youth*, etc.

CHU, Ming-shan

Government official, native of Shantung, born in 1894; graduate, National Peking Normal Univ., 1919; director, Mongolian affairs department, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1937-45; chairman, Commission for the Rehabilitation of Mongolian Banners in the Northeast, 1945-48.

CHU, Mrs. Nora Hsiung (see **HSIUNG Chih**)

CHU, Shao-chou (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; Commander-in-Chief, Hupeh-Shensi-Kansu Border Area, 1943-45; governor of Shensi, 1944-48.

CHU, Shao-liang (General)

Army officer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1890; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; Commander-in-Chief, 3rd Route Army, 1933; governor of Kansu, 1933-35; Commander-in-Chief, 9th Group Army, 1937; Commander-in-Chief, 8th War Area, 1938-45; governor of Kansu, 1938-40; acting governor of Sinkiang, 1944; deputy chief of staff, National Military Council, 1945-46; director, President's Headquarters in Chungking, 1947-48; pacification commissioner at Chungking, 1948; pacification commissioner for Fukien and governor of Fukien, 1948-49.

CHU, Shih-ming (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1902; graduate, M.I.T., Norwich Military School, and Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth; director, information department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1940-41; military attache, Chinese Embassy, Washington, D. C., 1941-43; aid-de-camp to the President, 1943-45; head, Chinese Mission in Japan, and member for China, Allied Council for Japan, 1945-47; chief, Chinese Military Liaison and Technical Commission in the United States, 1948; head, Chinese Mission in Japan, and member for China, Allied Council for Japan, since 1949.

CHU, Teh

Communist Commander-in-Chief, native of Szechwan, born in 1886; graduate, Yunnan Military Academy; joined Communist Party in Berlin, 1922; led Nanchang Uprising, 1927; Commander-in-Chief, Communist Armies, 1931-37; Commander-in-Chief, 8th Route Army, and later 18th Group Army, 1937-45; now Communist Commander-in-Chief; vice-chairman, Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government of the People's Republic of China," since Oct., 1949.

CHU, Ying-kuang

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1881; former governor of Chekiang and Shantung, Minister of Interior; vice-chairman, National Relief Commission, 1938-47.

CHU, Yu-lun

Mining expert, native of Hopei; Ph.D., University of West Virginia; director, National Metallurgical Research Bureau, Ministry of Economic Affairs, since 1938.

CHU, Yu-yu (prefers Y. T. TSU)

Christian worker, native of Shanghai, born in 1887; B.A., St. John's, 1907; Ph.D., Columbia; Anglican Bishop of Yunnan and Kweichow, 1940-45; Anglican Bishop of East China, since 1945.

CHUANG, Chang-kung

University chancellor, native of Fukieng, born in 1890; Ph.D., Chicago; chancellor, National Taiwan Univ., since 1947; acting director, Institute of Pharmacology, National Academy of Peiping; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

DALAI Lama, 14th Incarnation (Tanchu)

Sovereign pontiff of Tibet, born of peasant family, Sining, Chinghai, 1934; enthroned at Lhasa, 1940.

DJANG, Y. S. (see CHANG, Yuan-shan)**FANG, Chih**

Kuomintang official, native of Anhwei, born in 1895; graduate, Tokyo College of Arts and Science; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; chairman, Chungking Municipal Kuomintang Headquarters, 1944-45; chairman, Shanghai Municipal Kuomintang Headquarters, 1945-49; secretary-general in charge of governor's affairs, Fukien provincial government, since 1949.

FANG, Hsien-ting (prefers S. D. FONG)

Economist, native of Chekiang, born in 1903; Ph.D., Yale, 1928; professor and research director, Nankai Institute of Economics, Nankai Univ., (Tientsin), 1929-36; acting director, same institute, 1935-41; consultant, U. S. Board of Economic Warfare, 1942-43; professor and research director, Nankai Institute of Economics, since 1944; editor, *Nankai Social and Economic Quarterly*; author, *China's Industrialization*.

FEI, Hsiao-tung

Sociologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1910; Ph.D., London; professor, National Yunnan Univ., 1938-45; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1945; author, *Peasant Life in China* (London).

FENG, Chih-an (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1896; graduate, Staff College; was acting commander, 29th Army when Japan attacked North China in July, 1937, governor of Hopei, 1936-39; Commander-in-Chief, 33rd Group Army, 1940-45; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 6th War Area, 1940-45; Commander, 3rd Pacific Area, 1948; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Rebellion Suppression Force, Hsuechow Area, 1948.

FENG, Chin-tsai (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Shansi, born in 1887; Commander-in-Chief, 27th Route Army, 1937-38; commander, 98th Army, 1939; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 1st War Area, 1938-42; governor of Chahar, 1941-46; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 12th War Area, 1946-47; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, North China, 1948-49.

FENG, Tze-kai

Artist, writer, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; graduate, Kawahana Painting School, Japan; professor of fine arts, National Chekiang Univ., 1939-42, and since 1943; president, National Fine Arts Academy, 1942-43; painter of human-interest cartoons and author of many books on art and literature.

FENG, Yukon (see FENG, Yu-kun)**FENG, Yu-kun (prefers Yukon FENG)**

Police officer, native of Hunan, born in 1902; M.A., Michigan; graduate, Birmingham Police School; director, department of police administration, Ministry of Interior, 1936-46; deputy director-general, Directorate General of Police, Ministry of Interior, since 1946.

FENG, Yu-lan (prefers FUNG, Yulan)

Philosopher, native of Honan, born in 1890; Ph.D., Columbia, 1923; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1927-32; professor and dean, college of arts, same institution, since 1933; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *A History of Chinese Philosophy*, (in Chinese, translated into English, published in London and New York), *The Spirit of Chinese Philosophy* (in English, published in London), *A New Philosophy*, etc.

FONG, F. D. (see FANG, Hsien-ting)**FOO, Ping-sheung (see FU, Ping-chang)**

FU, Ju-lin

Banker, native of Heilungkiang, born in 1901; graduate, National Peking Univ.; chairman, board of directors, China Industrial Bank, since 1937; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

FU, Pao-shih

Artist, native of Kiangsi, born in 1904; graduate, Tokyo Fine Arts School; professor of fine arts, National Central Univ., since 1935; author, *Changes in Chinese Painting, A History of Chinese Art*, etc.

FU, Ping-chang (prefers FOO, Ping-sheung)

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1895; graduate, Hongkong Univ.; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1941-42; Ambassador to U.S.S.R., 1943-49; appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1948, but did not assume office.

FU, Ssu-nien

Historian, native of Shantung, born in 1896; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1919; studied at London and Berlin Univs., 1920-26; professor of history, National Peking Univ., since 1930; acting chancellor, same institution, 1945-46; director, Institute of History and Philology; Academia Sinica, since 1928; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; chancellor, National Taiwan Univ., since 1948.

FU, Tso-yi (General)

Army officer, native of Shansi, born in 1895; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1918; Commander-in-Chief, 7th Group Army, 1937-39; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 8th War Area, 1939-45; Commander-in-Chief, 12th War Area, 1945-46; governor of Suiyuan, 1931-37; governor of Chahar, 1937-49; Pacification Commissioner at Kalgan, since 1947; Commander-in-Chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, North China, 1947-49; expelled from the Kuomintang because of anti-government activities, 1949.

HAN, An

Forestry expert, native of Anhwei, born in 1883; M.A., Michigan; director, National Forestry Research Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, since 1943.

HAN, Lih-wu (see HANG, Li-wu)**HAN, Teh-chin (Lieutenant-General)**

Army officer, native of Kiangsu; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; governor of Kiangsu, 1939-44; Deputy Pacification

Commissioner, Hsuehchow, 1945-47; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Hsuehchow Rebellion Suppression Forces, 1948.

HAN, Tsun-chieh

Government official, native of Kirin, born in 1893; graduate, Kirin Law College; member, Control Yuan, 1938-45; governor of Heilungkiang, 1945-48.

HANG, Li-wu (prefers HAN, Lih-wu)

Government official, native of Anhwei, born in 1903; research student, London Univ., 1926-28; M.A., Wisconsin, 1928; member, People's Political Council, 1938-44; member, Chinese Mission to Great Britain, 1944; director, board of trustees, Sino-British Educational and Cultural Endowment Fund, 1931-46; Vice-Minister of Education, 1944-48; Minister of Education, since 1949.

HO, Cheng-chun (General)

Army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1882; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; personal chief of staff to President, National Government, 1928; governor of Hupeh, 1929-39; Pacification Commissioner for Hupeh, 1932-37; director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Wuhan, and governor of Hupeh, 1937; director-general of Courts-Marshall, 1938-46; speaker, Hupeh provincial council, 1947-49.

HO, Chieh

Geologist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1890; M.S., Lehigh; now professor and dean, college of science, National Sun Yat-sen Univ. and director, Kwangtung-Kwangsi Geological Survey.

HO, Chien (General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1886; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 4th Route Army, 1928-37; governor of Hunan, 1929-37; Minister of Interior, 1938-39; chairman, Awards and Pension Commission, National Military Council, 1939-46; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947.

HO, Chung-han

Government official, native of Hunan, born in 1902; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; director, Labor Bureau, Ministry of Social Affairs, 1942-48; Vice-Minister of Social Affairs, 1947-49.

HO, Franklin L. (see HO, Lien)**HO, Hao-jo**

Government official, native of Hunan, born in 1899; Ph.D., Wisconsin; vice-

minister, Political Training Board, 1944; director, Foreign Affairs Bureau, National Military Council, 1944-46; secretary-general, Political Commission for Pacification Areas, 1946-47; chairman, Enemy and Puppet Assets Disposal Commission, since 1947; Minister without Portfolio, Executive Yuan, 1948.

HO, Keng-sheng (prefers Gunson HOH)

Physical director, native of Kiangsu, born in 1899; B.P.E., Springfield; national director of physical education, Ministry of Education, since 1933; secretary-general, National Amateur Athletic Federation, since 1948.

HO, Kuo-kuang (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1885; graduate, Staff College, 1917; director, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Chengtu, 1939; mayor of Chungking, 1939; secretary-general and acting governor, Szechwan provincial government, 1939-41; commander of gendarmarie, 1941-44; director, Executive Office, National Military Council, 1944-45; Deputy Pacification Commissioner for Chungking Area, 1945-48; Garrison Commander of Sichang, since 1945.

HO, Kwei-chang (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1901; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, and Staff College; Commander-in-Chief, Garrison Forces in Yunnan, 1945-47; commander, 16th Pacification Area, 1948.

HO, Lien (prefers Franklin L. HO)

Economist, native of Hunan, born in 1897; Ph.D., Yale; professor, Nankai Univ., since 1926; director, Nankai Economic Research Institute, since 1930; director, political affairs department, Executive Yuan, 1937; Vice-Minister of Economic Affairs, 1938 and 1944-46; deputy secretary-general, Central Planning Board, 1943-46; acting chancellor, National Nankai University, 1948; visiting professor of economics, East Asian Institute, Columbia Univ., N. Y., since 1949.

HO, Lien-kwei

Professor, native of Chekiang, born in 1902; B.A., National Peking Univ., studied in London and Paris; vice-chairman, Kuomintang Central Training Committee, 1944-45; professor and dean, College of Law, National Central Univ., since 1946.

HO, Lu-chih

One of the Young China Party leaders, native of Szechwan, born in 1890; gradu-

ate, Paris Univ.; professor of history in many universities; state councillor, National Government, 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

HO, Pao-shu (prefers P. H. HO)

Banker, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; M.A., Pennsylvania; director, Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 1946-47; chairman, Export and Import Board, 1948-49; assistant general manager, Bank of China, 1942-48; general manager, Bank of China, since 1948.

HO, P. H. (see HO, Pao-shu)

HO, Ssu-yuan

Government official, native of Shantung, born in 1899; M.S., Chicago; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1935; governor of Shantung, 1944-45; mayor of Peiping, 1946-48; member, Standing Committee, Political Affairs Commission, Hsuehchow Rebellion Suppression Forces Headquarters, 1948.

HO, Sui (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1893; graduate, Staff College, 1908; member and chairman, military affairs committee, Legislative Yuan, 1931-48.

HO, Yao-tsu (General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1889; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; commander, 3rd Army, 1928; aid-de-camp to president, National Government, 1930-31; deputy-chief, General Staff, 1932-34; Minister to Turkey, 1934-36; governor of Kansu, 1937; personal chief of staff to Generalissimo, 1940-42; mayor of Chungking, 1942-45; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, 1947-49; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949.

HO, Ying-chin (General)

Army officer, native of Kweichow, born in 1890; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; commandant, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924; commander, 1st Army, and Commander-in-Chief, Eastern Route Army, 1926; governor of Chekiang, 1926; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1926; chief of staff, Land, Naval and Air Forces, 1927-28; Inspector-General of Military Training, 1929; Minister of War, 1930-44; chief of staff, National Military Council, 1938-46; Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Army, 1944-46; represented President Chiang

Kai-shek in accepting Japanese surrender in China Theater, 1946; chief delegate to United Nations Military Staff Committee, and chief, Chinese Military Mission to U.S.A., 1946-48; Minister of National Defense, 1948-49; president, Executive Yuan, 1949; chairman, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1949.

HOH, Gunson (see **HO, Keng-sheng**)

HOO, Victor Chitsai (see **HU, Shih-tseh**)

HOU, Chia-yuan

Railway engineer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1896; M.S., Cornell, 1919; director, Hunan-Kwangsi Railway Administration, 1938-40; director, Kweichow-Kwangsi Railway Engineering Bureau, 1939-45; director, Chekiang-Kiangsi Railway Administration, 1945-49.

HOU, Pao-chang

Pathologist, native of Anhwei, born in 1895; M.D., P.U.M.C., 1921; studied at Chicago and London; professor, West China Union Univ., 1938-39; professor, Cheeloo Univ., 1938-47; acting dean, medical college, same institution, 1944-45; professor, West China Union Univ., 1947-48; professor, Hongkong Univ., since 1948.

HOU, Teh-feng

Geologist, native of Hopei, born in 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1923; director, Szechwan Geological Survey, 1942-46; senior expert, National Geological Survey, and curator, Museum of National Geological Survey, since 1947, author, *Power Resources in China, Geological Foundation of the Y.V.A. Project*, etc.

HOU, Teh-pang

Chemical engineer, native of Fukien, born in 1898; B.S., M.I.T., 1917; Ph.D., Columbia, 1920; chief engineer, Yung Li Chemical Industries, since 1934; general manager, same company, since 1947; elected Member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

HSI, Chao-chun

Jurist, native of Shensi, born in 1872, graduate, Japanese Central Univ., 1911; member, Legislative Yuan, 1930-36; president, Hupeh High Court, 1936-45; president, Shensi High Court, 1945-48; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

HSI JAO, Chia Tso

Tibetan leader, native of Chinghai, born in 1884; reserve member, Kuomintang

Central Supervisory Committee, since 1946; vice-chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1947-49.

HSI, Yu-shu (prefers **Yulin HSI**)

Chartered accountant, native of Shanghai, born in 1900; graduate, Fudan Univ.; former councillor, Shanghai municipal council; member, People's Political Council, since 1946; member, Gold Yuan Reserve Supervisory Commission, 1948.

HSI, Yulin (see **HSI, Yu-shu**)

HSIA, CHIN

Government official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1893; graduate, Japanese Central Univ., 1915; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1938-45; president, Supreme Court, 1945-48.

HSIA, Ching-lin

Diplomatic official, native of Chekiang, born in 1896; B.A. (1919) and M.A. (1920), Glasgow; Ph.D., Edinburgh, 1922; first secretary, Chinese Legation, Washington, D. C., 1933; member, Legislative Yuan, 1935-48; director, Chinese News Service, N. Y., 1942-46; alternate representative on Security Council, United Nations, since 1946.

HSIA, Tou-yin (General)

Army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1884; Commander-in-Chief, 21st Route Army, 1930; governor of Hupeh, 1932; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931.

HSIA, Wei (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangsi, born in 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander, 8th Pacification Area, since 1946; governor of Anhwei, since 1948; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Central China Rebellion-Suppression Forces, 1948; deputy director, Military and Political Affairs Headquarters, Central China, since 1948.

HSIANG, Che-chun

Government official, native of Hunan, born in 1898; LL.B., George Washington; Chinese prosecutor, Tokyo International Military Tribunal, since 1946.

HSIAO, Cheng

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1905; graduate, National Peking and Berlin Univs.; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; director, China Land Administration Research Institute, since 1941; Vice-Minister

of Economic Affairs, 1947; now president, Chien Kuo College of Law and Commerce, Nanking.

HSIAO, Kung-chuan

Profesor, native of Kiangsi, born in 1897; Ph.D., Cornell; professor of political science, National Tsing Hua Univ. (Peiping), since 1932; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

HSIAO, Tung-tzu

Journalist, native of Hunan, born in 1894; graduate, Hunan Industrial College, 1917; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; director, Central News Agency, since 1932.

HSIAO, I-shan

Historian, native of Kiangsu, born in 1902; graduate, National Peking Univ.; studied at Cambridge; professor of many well-known universities; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; member, Control Yuan, since 1948; author, *A History of Ching Dynasty*.

HSIEH, Chia-sheng (prefers K. S. SIE)

Agriculturist, native of Anhwei, born in 1887; M.S., Michigan College of Agriculture, 1916; professor and dean, college of agriculture, Univ. of Nanking, 1930-35; director, National Agricultural Research Bureau, 1935-46; delegate to Food and Agriculture Organization since 1946.

HSIEH, Chia-yung

Geologist, native of Shansi, born in 1896; M.S., Wisconsin, 1920; director, Southwest Mining Survey Administration, National Resources Commission, 1940-42; director, Bureau of Mineral Exploration, National Resources Commission, since 1942; author, *Coal Mining in China*.

HSIEH, Kwan-sheng

Government official, native of Chekiang, born in 1897; docteur en droit, Paris, 1924; secretary-general, Judicial Yuan, 1930-37; Minister of Justice, since 1938; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1946.

HSIEH, Pao-chiao

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; Ph.D., John's Hopkins; director, bureau of legislative research, Legislative Yuan, 1933-48; Ambassador to Siam, since 1948.

HSIEH, Wan-ying (Mrs. WU Wentsao, Penname: Ping Hsin)

Poetess, novelist, native of Fukien, born in 1905; M.A., Wellesley, 1926; for many years professor of literature at Yenching and National Tsing Hua Univs.; author of many volumes of poems and novels, including *The Star*, *Spring Water*, *Superman* and *Letters to Young Readers*.

HSIEH, Wei-lin

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1893; licencie en droit, Paris; Minister to Sweden, 1938-47; Ambassador to Sweden, since 1947.

HSIEH, Ying-chou

Government official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1894; LL.D., Paris; former Vice-Minister of Justice; president, Kwangtung High Court; secretary-general, Taiwan provincial government, 1947-48; president, Supreme Court, since 1948.

HSIN, Shu-chih

University chancellor, native of Hunan, born in 1896; studied in England, former director, National Bureau of Compilation and Translation; chancellor, National Lanchow Univ., since 1946.

HSIUNG, Chih (Mrs. Nora Hsiung CHU)

Social worker, native of Hunan, born in 1902; M.A., Columbia; secretary-general, National Association for Refugee Children, 1942-45; director, China Child Welfare Service, since 1945.

HSIUNG, Fu-hsi

Dramatist, native of Kwangsi, born in 1900; M.A., Columbia; for many years professor of literature and dramatic art at National Peking and Yenching Univs.; principal, Changhai Municipal Experimental School of Dramatic Art, since 1946; one of the pioneers in China's modern stage movement, author of many well-known plays and novels.

HSIUNG, Ke-wu (General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1886; studied in Japan; Military Governor of Szechwan, 1918-20; state councillor, National Government, 1928 and 1931-47; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee.

HSIUNG, Pin (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1893; graduate, Staff College; Vice-Minister of War, 1926; deputy-chief, General Staff, 1934-37; vice-minister, Military

Operations Board, National Military Council, 1938-39; General Officer-in-Charge, Generalissimo's Headquarters in Sian, 1940-41; governor of Shensi, 1941-44; vice-minister, Military Operations Board, 1944-45; mayor of Peiping, 1945-46.

HSIUNG, Shih-hui (General)

Army officer, native of Kiangsi, born in 1894; graduate, Japanese Staff College, 1924; governor of Kiangsi, 1931-42; head, Chinese Military Mission to U.S.A., 1942-43; secretary-general, Central Planning Board, 1943-45; director, President's Headquarters in Northeast, 1945-47; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947.

HSIUNG, Shih-I

Playwright, native of Kiangsi, born in 1902; graduate, National Peking Normal College; author of several plays and novels, including *Lady Precious Stream*; now in England.

HSU, C. M. (see HSU, Chi-chin)

HSU, Chi-chin (prefers C. M. HSU)

Banker, native of Chekiang, born in 1881; chairman, board of director, National Commercial Bank, Shanghai; chairman, Shanghai Chamber of Commerce; deputy speaker, Shanghai municipal council.

HSU, Chung-chi

Police officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1908; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, and Vienna Police Academy; police commissioner of Chungking, 1943-44; police commissioner of Chengtu, 1944-46; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

HSU, Chung-chih (General)

Retired army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1883; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; former Commander-in-Chief, Kwangtung Armies; vice-president, Control Yuan; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee; advisor to the President, since 1948.

HSU, Fu-lin

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1870; one of the leaders of the Democratic Socialist Party; graduate, Peking Law College; state councillor, National Government, 1947-48; vice presidential candidate, 1948; advisor to the President, since 1948.

HSU, Hsiao-yen

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1901; B.A., National Peking Univ.; mem-

ber, People's Political Council, 1938-48; secretary-general, Ministry of Information, 1938-42; member, Central Planning Board, 1942-44; Vice-Minister of Information, 1944-46; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

HSU, Hsiang-chien

Communist army officer, standing member of Central Committee of Chinese Communist Party, native of Shansi, born in 1902; graduate of Whampoa Military Academy; joined Chinese Communist Party, 1926; became deputy commander of 31st division of Communist forces in the "Hupei-Honan-Anhwei Soviet" 1929; with Chu Teh, established Communist base in Northwest China, 1932-35; named Army Chief-of-Staff under "People's Revolutionary Army Committee" of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government" in Oct., 1949.

HSU, Hsueh-yu

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1903; graduate, Berlin Univ., 1927; general manager, China Merchants' Steam Navigation Co., since 1943; chairman, board of directors, Taiwan Shipping Co., since 1948.

HSU, Kai

Hydraulic engineer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; graduate, Univ. of California; chief engineer, Hwai River Conservancy Commission, 1931-42; technical supervisor, National Water Conservancy Commission and later Ministry of Water Conservancy, 1942-49.

HSU, Kan

Govt. official, native of Szechwan, born in 1887; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1928-35; Minister of Food, 1941-47; comptroller-general, National Government, 1947-48; comptroller-general, Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, 1948; Minister of Finance, 1948 and 1949.

HSU, Mo

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; LL.M., George Washington Univ., 1922; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1932-41; Minister to Australia, with ambassadorial rank, 1941-44; Ambassador to Turkey, 1944; judge, International Court of Justice, the Hague, since 1945.

HSU, Pei-hung (prefers JU Peon)

Artist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1894; graduate, National Fine Arts School, Paris, 1919-23; dean, department of fine arts, National Central Univ., 1927-46; president, National Fine Arts College, Peiping, since 1946.

HSU, Pei-keng (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1897; graduate, Staff College, 1922; graduate, German Staff College, 1932; director, 2nd department, Military Operations Board, National Military Council, 1938-39; chief-of-staff, Chinese Military Mission to U.S.A., 1941; commandant, Staff College, since 1943.

HSU, Ping-chang

Historian, native of Honan, born in 1887; studied at Paris Univ.; director Institute of History, National Academy of Peiping, since 1932; author, *Legendary Period in Chinese History*.

HSU, Po-yuan

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1902; studied at Illinois, and California Univs.; secretary-general, Joint Administrative Office of Four Govt. Banks, since 1945; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1946-48; deputy governor, Central Bank of China, since 1949.

HSU, Shih-ying

Govt. official, native of Anhwei, born in 1872; Minister of Justice, 1912; civil governor of Anhwei, 1921; Premier, 1925-26; chairman, National Famine Relief Commission, 1928-35; Ambassador to Japan, 1936-38; acting chairman, National Relief Commission, 1938-44; chairman, same commission, 1944-47; chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1947-48.

HSU, Shu-hsi

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1892; Ph.D.; Columbia, 1925; professor and dean, college of public affairs, Yenching Univ., 1925-37; advisor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1942; director, western Asiatic affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1942-44; editor, *Chinese Yearbook*, 1942-44; alternate representative on Security Council, United Nations, since 1947.

HSU, Ssu-ping (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1898; graduate, Peking College of Surveying, Tokyo Military Academy, and Chinese Staff College; studied artillery in France; Vice-Minister of Conscription, 1944-45; director, Conscription Administration, Ministry of War, 1945-46; director, Bureau of Conscription, Ministry of National Defense, since 1946.

HSU, Tao-lin

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1906; LL.B., Berlin; charge d'affairs, Chinese Embassy, Rome, 1938-41; direc-

tor, Political Affairs Department, Executive Yuan, 1945-46; member and secretary-general, Kiangsu provincial government, 1948-49.

HSU, Ting-yao (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Anhwei, born in 1891; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; head, Chinese Military Inquiry Mission to Europe and America, 1934-35; former commandant, Mechanized Unit School; Commander-in-Chief, Armored Corps, since 1948.

HSU, Yuan-chuan (General)

Retired army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1885; graduate, Nanyang Military Academy; former army commander; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

HSU, Yung-chang (General)

Army officer, native of Shansi, born in 1889; graduate, Staff College, 1916; commander, 12th Route Army, 1927; governor of Suiyuan, 1928; governor of Hopei, 1929; Commander-in-Chief, Shansi-Suiyuan Garrison Forces, 1930; governor of Shansi, 1931-36; director, Executive Office, National Military Council, 1937; minister, Military Operation Board, 1938-45; president, Staff College, since 1946; Minister of National Defense, 1949; Minister without Portfolio, since 1949.

HSUAN, Tieh - wu (Lieutenant - General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1897; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy and Staff College; police commissioner of Shanghai, 1945-47; garrison commander of Shanghai-Woosung area, 1945-48.

HSUEH, Kuang-chien (prefers T. K. SIH)

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1909; Ph.D., Royal Univ., Rome, 1935; minister-counsellor, Chinese Embassy in Rome, since 1945; delegate to United Nations Sub-Commission on Balkans, since 1947.

HSUEH, Tu-pi

Govt. official, native of Shansi, born in 1890; graduate, Shansi Law College, 1913; mayor of Peking, 1925; governor of Kansu, 1925-27; Minister of Interior, 1928; Minister of Health, 1928-29; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; chairman, National Water Conservancy Commission, 1941-47; Minister of Water Conservancy, 1947-48.

HSUEH, Yueh (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; Commander-in-Chief, 9th War Area, and governor of Hunan, 1939-45; Pacification Commissioner, Hsuechow, 1945-47; personal chief-of-staff to President, National Government, 1947-48; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, 1948; governor of Kwangtung, since 1948.

HU, Chia-feng

Govt. official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1887; graduate, National College of Law, Peking; governor of Kiangsi, 1948-49.

HU, Chien-chung

Journalist, native of Chekiang, born in 1902; B.A., Fuh Tan Univ., 1924; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; publisher, *Central Daily News*, Chungking, 1943-45; publisher, *Southeast Daily News*, Shanghai and Hangchow, 1945-49.

HU, Hsi-yuan

Industrialist, native of Chekiang, born in 1900; graduate, Chekiang Provincial College of Technology; founder and general manager, Oppel Electric Manufacturing Co., Shanghai.

HU, Huan-yung

Geographer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; B.S., National Southeastern Univ., 1926; research student, Institut de Geographie, Paris, 1926-28; professor of geography, National Central Univ., since 1928; dean of faculty, same institution, 1943-44; director, research institute of geography, same institution, 1944-47.

HU, Lan-sheng (prefers L. S. WOO)

Red Cross worker, native of Anhwei, born in 1891; M.D., Harvard, 1921; director, Army Medical Administration, 1937-40; secretary-general, Chinese Red Cross Society, since 1942.

HU, Hsien-hsiu

Botanist, native of Kiangsi, born in 1894; B.A., California, 1916; D.Sc., Harvard, 1925; chancellor, National Chung-cheng Univ., 1940-43; director, Fan Memorial Institute of Biology, since 1928; member of academic council, Academia Sinica; fellow, Edinburgh Botanical Society; vice-president, International Faculty of Sciences; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

HU, Po-han (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1899; graduate, Paoting Military Acad-

emy, 1922; devised Chungking's "red ball" air raid alarm signal during war, used supplementarily with sirens; deputy commander-in-chief, Peiping garrison forces, 1946-48.

HU, Po-yueh

Jurist, native of Shansi, born in 1893; member, Control Yuan, 1933-48; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

HU, Shih

Philosopher, educator, native of Anhwei, born in 1891; B.A., Cornell, 1914; Ph.D., Columbia, 1917; holder of over 30 honorary degrees from American and European univs.; leading figure in "Literary Revolution," 1917, and advocate of use of spoken language in writing; professor of philosophy and later dean, department of English literature, National Peking Univ., 1917-27; president, China National Institute, 1928-30; dean, college of arts, National Peking Univ., 1930-37; Ambassador to U.S.A., 1938-42; lecturing in U.S.A., 1942-45; chancellor, National Peking Univ., since 1945; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1949, but did not assume office; author of many books on philosophy, literature, and history, including *A History of Chinese Philosophy*.

HU, Shih-tseh (prefers Victor Chitsai HOO)

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in Washington, D. C., 1894; docteur en droit, Paris, 1918; Minister to Switzerland, 1931-42; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1942-45; delegate to U.N. General Assembly, First Session, 1945; assistant secretary-general in charge of trusteeship, United Nations, since 1945.

HU, Shu-hua

Educator, native of Hunan, born in 1886; Dipl. Eng., Berlin Univ., 1920; former director, Shanghai Iron and Steel Works; director, Hanyang Arsenal; chancellor, National Tungchi Univ.; chancellor, Chungking Univ.; chancellor, National Northwest Univ.; chancellor, National Hunan Univ.; deputy secretary-general, *San Min Chu I* Youth Corps, 1943-45; chancellor, National Hunan Univ., 1945-47; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948-49; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

HU, Tien-shih

Library expert, native of Kiangsu, born in 1902; founder and director, Bibliothèque Sino-International, Geneva, since 1933.

HU, Tsung-nan (General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1902; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 8th War Area, 1937-44; Commander-in-Chief, 1st War Area, 1944-45; Pacification Commissioner for Shensi, 1946-49.

HU, Tzu-wei

Govt. official, native of Szechwan, born in 1902; LL.B., Meiji Univ., Tokyo, 1927; Vice-Minister of Interior, since 1946; author, *Introduction to Chinese Civil Code*.

HU, Wen-hu (prefers AW, Boon-haw)

Industrialist, native of Fukien, born in 1883; manufacturer of many medicines including the cure-all "Tiger Balm"; publisher of chain of newspapers in Hong-kong, Singapore, and Rangoon.

HUA, Lo-keng

Mathematician, native of Kiangsu, born in 1911; studied in National Tsing Hua and Cambridge Univ.; professor of mathematics, National Tsing Hua Univ. (Peiping), since 1937; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *Additive Prime Number Theory*, winner of 1st academic prize from Ministry of Education, 1942.

HUANG, Chao-chin

Banker, native of Taiwan, born in 1898; M.A., Illinois, 1926; chairman, Taiwan People's Political Council; and chairman, board of directors, The First Commercial Bank of Taiwan.

HUANG, Chen-chiu (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1898; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1919; commander-in-chief, Transport and Supply Service Forces, 1945-46; commander-in-chief, Combined Service Forces, 1946-47; deputy chief, General Staff, 1947; Vice-Minister of National Defense, 1947; deputy director, President's Hqs. in Canton, 1947-48; Deputy Pacification Commissioner at Canton, 1948-49.

HUANG, Chen-wu (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1902; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1925; commissioner of metropolitan police, Nanking, 1947-48; commander of gendarmerie in the South-east, 1949.

HUANG, Chi-ching (prefers T. K. HUANG)

Geologist, native of Szechwan, born in 1904; Ph.D., Neuthatel Univ., Switzerland; director, National Geological Survey, 1938-40; chief geologist, same institution, since 1936; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

HUANG, Chi-lu

Univ. chancellor, native of Szechwan, born in 1902; M.A., Columbia; chancellor, National Szechwan Univ., since 1942.

HUANG, Chieh (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1893; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, and Staff College; commander-in-chief, 11th Group Army, 1944-45; deputy commander, Garrison Forces of China-India Road, 1945; commandant, Central Training Institute, 1945-48; Deputy Pacification Commissioner at Changsha, 1948-49; governor of Hunan, 1949.

HUANG, Chien-chung

Professor, native of Hupeh, born in 1889; studied in England; former acting Vice-Minister of Education; professor and dean, college of education, National Central and Szechwan Univ.; member, People's Political Council, 1938-40; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

HUANG, Chun-pi

Artist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1901; graduate, Kwangtung College; professor of Chinese painting, National Central Univ., 1939-49; painter of many well-known pieces on landscape; professor of painting, Taiwan Normal College, since 1949.

HUANG, Jen-lin

Army welfare worker, native of Kiangsi, born in 1901; B.A., Vanderbilt; secretary-general, Officers' Moral Endeavor Association, since 1928; secretary-general New Life Movement Association, since 1935; director, War Area Service Corps, National Military Council, 1937-46; deputy commander-in-chief, Combined Service Forces, 1948-49.

HUANG, Kuang-jui (Air Major-General, prefers K. Y. WONG)

Air force officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1898; studied military aviation in U.S.A. and U.S.S.R.; deputy director, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, 1943-46.

HUANG, Lin-shu

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1893; graduate, Tokyo Central Univ.; president, Chuhai Univ., Canton, 1947-48; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948; member, Examination Yuan, since 1948.

HUANG, Ping-heng (Air Major-General)

Air force officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1901; studied aviation in U.S.A.; director, Aviation Administration, Ministry of War, 1931-32; commander, 1st Route Air Force, 1941; air attache, Chinese Embassy, Washington, D. C., 1941-42.

HUANG, Shao-hsiung (General)

Govt. official, native of Kwangsi, born in 1895; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1916; governor of Kwangsi, 1927-31; commander, 15th Army, 1932-34; Minister of Interior, 1934-35; governor of Chekiang, 1935; governor of Hupeh, 1936; governor of Chekiang, 1937-47; vice-president, Control Yuan, 1947; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948-49; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

HUANG, Shao-ku

Journalist, native of Hunan, born in 1901; graduate, Peiping Normal College; studied at London School of Econ. and Pol. Sc.; vice-minister, Political Training Board, National Military Council, 1945-46; managing director, *Ho Ping Jih Pao*, (Peace Daily), 1944-49; member Legislative Yuan, since 1948; acting minister, Kuomintang Ministry of Information, 1948-49; chief secretary, *Tsung-tsai's* Office of the Kuomintang, since 1949.

HUANG, T. K. (see HUANG, Chiching)**HUANG, Yen-peí**

Educator, native of Kiangsu, born in 1878; graduate, Nanyang College; Hon. LL.D., St. John's Univ.; twice appointed Minister of Education by former Peking Govt. but did not accept; executive director, National Association of Vocational Education, since 1917; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48.

HUANG, Yu-chang

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1885; LL.B., Japanese Law College, 1908; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-48; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

HUANG, Yuan-pin

Economist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ.; professor and dean, college of law, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1929-39; member, Supreme Economic Council, 1947-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; author, *The Nationalization of Silver*.

HUNG, Lan-yu

Govt. Official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; graduate, Aurora Univ., Shanghai; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; Vice-Minister of Social Affairs, 1940-47; secretary-general, National Assembly, since 1946; Minister of Interior, 1948; secretary-general, Kuomintang Supreme Council, since 1949.

HUNG, Lu-tung

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1895; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1937-49.

HUNG, Sheng

Playwright, native of Kiangsu, born in 1894; studied dramatic art at Harvard Univ.; for many years professor of literature and dramatic art at National Fudan Univ. and National Academy of Dramatic Art; author of many plays and books on dramatic art.

HUNG, Shih-lu

Physician, native of Chekiang, born in 1894; graduate, National Peking Medical College, 1917; M.D., Kiushiu Imperial Univ., Japan, 1929; now professor of medicine, National Kiangsu Medical College.

HUNG, Wen-lan

Jurist, native of Chekiang, born in 1890; former judge, Supreme Court, and professor of law, National Central Univ.; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

HUNG, William (see HUNG, Yeh)**HUNG, Yeh (prefers William HUNG)**

Historian, native of Fukien, born in 1893; M.A., Columbia; Hon. LL.D., Ohio Wesleyan; professor and dean, department of history, Yenching Univ., since 1927.

JAQ, Yu-tai

Physicist, native of Kiangsi, born in 1891; Ph.D., Princeton; now professor and dean, college of science, National Peking Univ.; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

JEN, Hung-chun (prefers **ZEN, Hung-chun**)

Educator, native of Szechwan, born in 1886; M.A., Columbia, 1917; trustee and executive director, China Foundation for the Promotion of Education and Culture, since 1929; chancellor, National Szechwan Univ., 1935-38; director-general, Chinese Association for the Advancement of Science (formerly Science Society of China) since 1914.

JEN, Lin-hsun (prefers **Richard JEN**)

Journalist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1907; A.B., Univ. of Washington, 1930; head, English department, Central News Agency, 1933-39; manager, Hongkong bureau, same agency, 1940-41; editor, *China Fortnightly*, 1939-40; manager, India bureau, Central News Agency, 1942-43; manager, London bureau, same agency, 1943-47; manager, San Francisco bureau, same agency, 1948-49; manager, Washington bureau, same agency, since 1949.

JEN, Richard (see **JEN, Lin-hsun**)**JU, Peon** (see **HSU, Pei-hung**)**KAN, Nai-kuang**

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1897; B.A., Lingnan Univ., 1922; holder of several hon. degrees; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1932-35; deputy secretary-general, Kuomintang C.E.C., 1938-42; deputy secretary-general, Supreme National Defense Council, 1942-44; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1945-47; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1947-48; Ambassador to Australia, since 1948.

KAO, Hsi-ping

Govt. official, native of Antung, born in 1895; B.T.E., Lowell Textile Institute, U.S.A.; member, People's Political Council, 1938-45; governor of Antung, 1945-47; member, Political Affairs Commission in Northeast, 1945-48.

KAO, Kang

Communist leader, native of Shensi, born in 1902; formerly member of Kuomintang, joined Chinese Communist Party in 1926; one of leaders of revolt in north Shensi which created a Soviet in that area long before main body of Red Army arrived; became chairman of "Northwest Bureau" after establishment of Communist base in Yen-an and held several posts in "Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Region Government;" elected to Central Committee of Chinese Communist Party, 1945; became chairman of "People's Government of the Northeast" in August,

1949 and one of the vice-presidents of the Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government" in Peiping in Oct. 1949.

KAO, Kwei-tze (**Lieutenant-General**)

Army officer, native of Shensi, born in 1892; graduate, Shensi Military Academy; Deputy Pacification Commissioner for Shensi, since 1946-49.

KIANG, Eugene Y. B. (see **CHIANG, I-ping**)**KING, P. Z.** (see **CHIN, Pao-shan**)**KING, Wunsz** (see **CHIN, Wen-ssu**)**KOH, Tsung-fei** (see **KU, Chun-fan**)**KOO, T. Z.** (see **KU, Tzu-jen**)**KOO, V. K. Wellington** (see **KU, Wei-chun**)**KOO, Yee-chun** (see **KU, Yi-chun**)**KU, Cheng-kang**

Govt. official, native of Kweichow, born in 1902; graduate, Berlin Univ.; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; Minister of Social Affairs, 1940-48; director, political and party affairs department, Kuomintang *Tsung-tsai's* Office, since 1949.

KU, Cheng-lun (**Lieutenant-General**)

Army officer, native of Kweichow, born in 1891; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy, 1916; commander of Gendarmerie, 1932-40, governor of Kansu, 1940-46; Minister of Food, 1947; governor of Kweichow, since 1948.

KU, Cheng-ting

Kuomintang official, native of Kweichow, born in 1903; graduate, Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ.; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; acting minister, Kuomintang Organization Board, since 1948.

KU, Chieh-kang

Historian, native of Kiangsu, born in 1893; B.A., National Peking Univ.; professor of history at National Central, National Sun Yat-sen, Yenching, National Fudan, and Cheeloo Univs., 1927-48; member, People's Political Council, 1941-48; professor, National Lanchow Univ., since 1948; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *Symposium on Ancient Chinese History* (5 vols.)

KU, Chu-tung (**General**)

Army officer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1893; graduate, Paoting Military

Academy; governor of Kiangsu, 1931-33; Military Affairs Commissioner for Kiangsi, 1934-35; Military Affairs Commissioner for Szechwan, 1936; director, Generalissimo's Hqs. in Sian, 1936-37; governor of Kiangsu, 1937-39; Commander-in-Chief, 3rd War Area, 1937-45; Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Army, 1946-48; Chief, General Staff, 1948-49.

KU, Chun-fan (prefers KOH Tsung-fei)

Economist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; graduate, St. Xaviers College, Shanghai; director, bureau of finance, Shanghai municipal govt., 1946-47; deputy director-general of posts, and director-general, Postal Remittances and Savings Bank, since 1947.

KU, Meng-yu

Govt. official, native of Hopei, born in 1888; graduate, Berlin Univ.; professor and dean, economics department, National Peking Univ., 1922-25; minister, Kuomintang Publicity Board, 1927; Minister of Railways, 1932-35; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1941-43; appointed vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1948, but did not assume office.

KU, Tzu-jen (prefers T. Z. KOO)

Christian worker, native of Shanghai, born in 1888; B.A., St. Johns; Hon.D. Litt., Colgate; special secretary, World Christian Student Federation, since 1930.

KU, Wei-chun (prefers V. K. Wellington KOO)

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1888; B.A., Yale; M.A. and Ph.D., Columbia; holder of a number of honorary degrees; Minister to U.S.A., 1916; delegate to Paris Peace Conference, 1919-20; Minister to Great Britain, 1920; Minister of Foreign Affairs and Acting Premier, 1922-24; Minister of Finance, 1926-27; Premier and Foreign Minister, 1927; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1932; Ambassador to France, 1935-41; Ambassador to Great Britain, 1941-47; Ambassador to U.S.A., since 1947; has been delegate to many international conferences.

KU, Yi-chun (prefers Yee-chun KOO)

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; M.B.A., New York; Acting Vice-Minister of Finance, 1941-44; general manager, Farmers' Bank of China, 1942-45; executive director, International Monetary Fund, since 1946.

KU, Yu-hsiu

Electrical engineer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; D.Sc., M.I.T., 1928; professor and dean, college of engineering, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1932-37; Vice-Minister of Education, 1938-44; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1944-45; director, Shanghai bureau of education, 1945-47; chancellor, National Cheng-chih Univ., since 1947.

KUNG, Eling Soong (see KUNG, Sung Ai-ling)

KUNG, Hsiang-hsi

Govt. official, native of Shansi, born in 1881; B.A., Oberlin, 1906; M.A. Yale, 1907; a lineal descendant of Confucius of 75th generation; Minister of Industry and Commerce, 1927-30; Minister of Industry, 1930-32; vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1933; Minister of Finance, 1933-44; special envoy to coronation of King George VI of Britain, 1937; president, Executive Yuan, 1938; vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1939-45; state councillor, National Govt., 1943-45; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; chief delegate to United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference, 1944; advisor to the President, since 1948.

KUNG, Hsueh-sui

Govt. official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1896; M.S. Tokyo Imperial Univ., 1924; Vice-Minister of Communications, 1944-45; mayor of Dairen, 1945-48; mayor of Tsingtao, 1948-49.

KUNG, Keng

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1873; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy, 1908; former army commander, member People's Political Council, 1938-48; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948.

KUNG, Madame H. H. (see KUNG, Sung Ai-ling)

KUNG, Sung Ai-ling (Madame H. H. KUNG, prefers Eling Soong KUNG)

Elder sister of Madames Sun Yat-sen and Chiang Kai-shek; born in Shanghai; B.A., Wesleyan; engaged in child welfare work.

KUNG, Teh-cheng

Lineal descendant of Confucius of the 77th generation, born in Shantung, 1920; appointed by National Government as Officer of Confucian Rites.

KUO, Chi-chiao (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Anhwei, born in 1902; graduate, Paoting Military Acad-

emy; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Chungking Defense Forces, 1942-44; Deputy Commander-in-Chief and chief of staff, 1st, 5th, 11th and 8th War Areas, successively, 1944-46; deputy director, Generalissimo's Hq. in Northwest, 1946; deputy chief, General Staff, 1946; governor of Kansu, 1946-49; Deputy Military and Political Director for the Northwest, 1948-49; Deputy Military and Political Affairs Director for the South-east, since 1949.

KUO, Jen-yuan (prefers Zing Yang KUO)

Psychologist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1898; Ph.D., California; chancellor, National Chekiang Univ., 1933-36; director, China Institute of Physiological Psychology, since 1940.

KUO, Mo-jo

Poet, archaeologist, native of Szechwan, born in 1891; M.B., Kiushiu Imperial Univ., Japan, 1922; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author of many volumes of poems, novels and plays and on archaeology, including *Studies in Ancient Chinese Society*; named chairman, "Cultural and Education Committee" of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government," Oct., 1949.

KUO, Ping-wen

Govt. official, native of Shanghai, born in 1880; Ph.D., Columbia, 1914; chancellor, National Southeast Univ., 1918-25; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1940-44; deputy director-general, UNRRA, 1944-45.

KUO, Tai-chi (prefers QUO, Tai-chi)

Diplomatic official, native of Hupeh, born in 1888; B.A., Pennsylvania, 1911; Hon.LL.D., Oxford; Minister to Great Britain, 1932-35; Ambassador to Great Britain, 1935-41; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1941-42; chairman, foreign affairs committee, Supreme National Defense Council, 1942-45; permanent representative on United Nations Security Council, 1946-47; Ambassador to Brazil, since 1947.

KUO, Teh-hua (prefers T. W. KWOK)

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1901; M.A., Harvard; foreign affairs commissioner for Kwangtung and Kwangsi, since 1943.

KUO, Tsan (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; deputy commander-in-chief and

chief of staff, 6th War Area, 1944-45; deputy director, President's Hq. in Wuhan, 1946; deputy chief, General Staff, 1946-47; Commander-in-Chief, Combined Service Forces, 1947-49; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1949, commander, Chusan Archipelago, since 1949.

KUO, Yu-shou

Educator, native of Szechwan, born in 1900; docteur en droit, Paris, 1927; member and education commissioner, Szechwan provincial govt., 1939-45; special advisor on Far Eastern affairs, UNESCO, since 1946.

KUO, Zing Yang (see KUO, Jen-yuan)

KWAN, Chi-yu

Govt. official, native of Liaoning, born in 1901; graduate, Berlin Univ., 1931; chairman, Land Tax Commission, 1942-45; governor of Sungkiang, 1945-47; acting chairman, Economic Commission, President's Headquarters in Northeast, 1947; Vice-Minister of Food, 1947-48; Minister of Food, 1948-49; chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1949; Minister of Finance and governor, Central Bank of China, since 1949.

KWAN, Lin-cheng (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Shensi, born in 1905; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924, and Staff College; commander-in-chief, 15th Group Army, 1939-40; commander-in-chief, 9th Group Army, 1940-45; commander, Northeast Garrison Forces, 1945; commander-in-chief, Yunnan Garrison Forces, 1945-46; commandant, Central Military Academy, 1946-47; president, Central Military Academy, since 1947; deputy commander-in-chief, Chinese Army, 1948-49; Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Army, since 1949.

KWEI, Chih-ting (prefers Paul C. T. KWEI)

Physicist, native of Hupeh, born in 1895; B.A., Yale, 1917; M.S., Cornell, 1920; Ph.D., Princeton, 1925; professor and dean, college of science, National Wuhan Univ. (Wuchang), since 1939.

KWEI, Chung-shu

Journalist, native of Szechwan, born in 1897; B.J., Wisconsin, managing editor, *China Critic*, Shanghai, 1927-41; now practising law in Shanghai; contributing editor, *China Daily Tribune*, Shanghai.

KWEI, Paul C. T. (see **KWEI, Chih-ting**)

KWEI, Yung-ching (Vice-Admiral)

Naval officer, native of Kiangsi, born in 1901; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, German Infantry School, and Chinese Staff College; commander, 27th Army 1938; head, Chinese Military Mission to Great Britain, 1940-46; head, Chinese Military Mission in Berlin, 1946; Acting Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Navy, 1946-48; Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Navy, since 1948.

KWOK, T. W. (see **KUO, Teh-hua**)

LAI, Lien

Govt. official, native of Fukien, born in 1900; M.E., Cornell; chancellor, National Northwest Univ., 1942-44; Vice-Minister of Education, 1944; vice-minister, Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs, since 1944.

LAO, Hsiang (see **WANG, Hsiang-chen**)

LAO, Sheh (see **SHU, Sheh-yu**)

LEE, Baen (see **LI, Pei-en**)

LEE, C. C. (see **LI, Chu-chen**)

LEE, Chung-un (see **LI, Tsung-en**)

LEE, John (see **LU, Chun**)

LEE, J. S. (see **LI, Ssu-kuang**)

LEE, Wei-kuo (see **LI, Wei-kuo**)

LEI, Chen

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1897; LL.B., Kuoto Imperial Univ., Japan; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1935; deputy secretary-general, People's Political Council, 1943-46; Minister without Portfolio, Executive Yuan, 1947-48.

LEI, Fa-chang (prefers **LEY, Fa-tsang**)

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1902; B.A. Huachung Univ., 1923; Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1942-44; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1944-46; member and secretary-general, Chekiang provincial gov't., 1946-48; secretary-general, Examination Yuan, since 1948.

LEI, Hai-tsung

Historian, native of Hopei, born in 1902; Ph.D., Chicago; professor of history, National Tsing Hua Univ. (Peiping), since 1932.

LEI, Pei-hung

Educator, native of Kwangsi, born in 1887; M.A., Harvard; chancellor, National Kwangsi Univ., 1940-41; member, People's Political Council, 1942-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; president, Sikiang College, Nanning (Kwangsi), since 1948.

LEUNG, S. C. (see **LIANG, Hsiao-chu**)

LEY, Fa-tsang (see **LEI, Fa-chang**)

LI, Chao-huan (prefers **J. Usang LY**)

Univ. president, native of Kwangtung, born in 1888; B.S., Haverford; M.A., Columbia; Vice-Minister of Railways, 1930; chancellor, National Chiaotung Univ., 1930-41 and 1948-49.

LI, Chi

Archaeologist, native of Hupeh, born in 1896; Ph.D., Harvard; director of archaeological research, Institute of History and Philology, Academia Sinica, since 1929; noted for his excavations at Anyang (Honan) revealing neolithic villages and towns in Shang or early Chou period.

LI, Chi-shen (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangsi, born in 1886; graduate, Staff College; commander, 4th Army, 1924; chief of staff, National Revolutionary Forces, 1928; Inspector-General of Military Training 1932-33; member, National Military Council, 1938-46; president, Military Advisory Council, 1944-45; expelled from the Kuomintang because of anti-govt. activities, 1947; became vice-chairman of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government" at Peiping, Oct. 1949.

LI, Chin-hsi

Linguist, native of Hunan, born in 1890; devotes whole life in promoting the national spoken language; former professor of National Peking and Normal Univs., former president, National Northwest Normal College; now editor-in-chief, *Encyclopaedia Sinica* (under compilation).

LI, Ching-chai

Govt. official, native of Honan, born in 1889; B.S., Michigan, 1912; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1945; Minister of Land, 1947-49.

LI, Ching-lin

Govt. official, native of Anhwei, born in 1896; Ph.D., Illinois; member, Legislative

Yuan, 1942-48; director, National Bureau of Agricultural Economic Research, since 1948.

LI, Chung-hsiang

Govt. official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1897; graduate, National Chiaotung Univ.; deputy director, Wartime Censorship Bureau, National Military Council, 1940-45; vice chairman, Committee for Sales of State-operated Enterprises, Executive Yuan, since 1946.

LI, Chung-shih

Govt. official, native of Shensi, born in 1892; graduate, Tokyo Keio Univ.; Vice-Minister of Audit, 1942-45; secretary-general, Control Yuan, since 1945.

LI, Fang-kwei

Linguist, native of Shansi, born in 1902, Ph.D., Chicago, 1928; research member, Academia Sinica, since 1929; visiting professor, Yale, 1937-39; elected member, Academia Sinica; 1948.

LI, Fei (Pen-name: Pa Chin)

Novelist, native of Szechwan, born in 1904; studied in France; author of many novels and short stories, including *Home*, *Spring*, *Autumn*, and *Fire*, all best sellers.

LI, Han-hun (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1895; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 35th Group Army, 1939-45; governor of Kwangtung, 1938-45; Minister of Interior, 1949.

LI, Huang

One of the Young China Party leaders, native of Szechwan, born in 1896; studied at Paris; member, People's Political Council, 1938-47; delegate to San Francisco Conference, 1945; appointed Minister of Economic Affairs, 1948, but did not accept; advisor to the President, since 1948.

LI, Kan (prefers Kan LEE)

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; Ph.D., Harvard; commercial counsellor, Chinese Embassy, Washington, D. C., 1941-45; deputy secretary-general, Supreme Economic Council, 1946; vice chairman, Export-Import Board, 1946-48; secretary-general, Chinese Technical Mission, Washington, D. C., 1948; advisor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1948.

LI, Keng-yuan

Govt. official, native of Yunnan, born in 1879; graduate, Tokyo Military Acad-

emy; Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, 1922; Control Yuan Commissioner in Yunnan-Kweichow, 1939-45.

LI, Kuo-chin

Merchant, mining engineer, native of Hunan, born in 1892; now general manager, Wah Chang Trading Corporation, New York.

LI, Kuo Teh-chieh (Madame LI, Tsung-jen)

Native of Kwangsi, born in 1907; graduate, Kweiping Girls' Normal School; founder and principal, Teh Chih Middle School, Kweilin, since 1939; delegate to National Assembly, 1948.

LI, Li-san

Communist leader, native of Hunan, born in 1900; studied in France; in 1929, when serving as secretary-general of Communist party, went to Moscow after conflict with Mao Tse-tung because of policy differences; returned to China; (Manchuria) with Soviet Army in September, 1945 and became advisor to Gen. Lin Piao; named member of "Central People's Government Council" and concurrently Minister of Labor of the Communist regime, Oct., 1949.

LI, Liang-yung (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Fukien, born in 1908; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924, and Staff College; commander, 9th Pacification Area, 1948; governor of Fukien, 1948; deputy pacification commissioner for Fukien, 1949.

LI, Ming

Banker, native of Chekiang, born in 1888; graduate, Yamaguchi College of Commerce, Japan; chairman, board of directors, and general manager, Chekiang Industrial Bank, Shanghai; chairman, Shanghai Bankers Guild; chairman, Gold Yuan Reserve Supervisory Commission, 1948-49.

LI, Pei-chi

Govt. official, native of Hopei, born in 1888; governor of Suiyuan, 1929-31; Minister of Personnel, 1939-42; governor of Honan, 1942-44.

LI, Pei-en (prefers Baen E. LEE)

University president, native of Chekiang, born in 1889; M.A., Chicago; president, Hangchow Christian College, since 1929.

LI, Pin-hsien (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangsi, born in 1893; graduate, Paoting Military

Academy, 1913; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 5th War Area, 1939-44; Commander-in-Chief, 10th War Area, 1944-46; governor of Anhwei, 1940-48; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Central China, 1948; pacification commissioner at Kweilin, 1948-49.

LI, Po-shen

Govt. official, native of Szechwan, born in 1885; LL.B., Meiji Univ. Tokyo, 1911; member and secretary-general, Szechwan provincial govt., 1940-47; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

LI, Shih-chen

Police officer, native of Chekiang; graduate, Japanese Police Academy, 1932; commandant, Central Police Academy, since 1947.

LI, Shih-tseng (see LI, Yu-ying)

LI, Shu-hua

Physicist, native of Hopei, born in 1889; docteur es sciences, Paris, 1922; Minister of Education, 1931; member, Legislative Yuan, 1931-32; secretary-general, Academia Sinica, 1944; president, Chinese Society of Physics, 1932-33; vice-president, National Academy of Peiping, since 1929; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

LI, Shu-ming

Banker, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; studied in Italy; former general manager, Chung Hwa Book Co.; general manager, Farmers' Bank of China, 1945-49.

LI, Shu-tien

Civil engineer, native of Hopei, born in 1900; D. Eng., Cornell, 1926; president, Tangshan Engineering College, 1930-32; president, Peiyang Engineering College, 1932-39; president, Sikang Polytechnic Institute, 1939-41; president, Kweichow College of Agriculture and Engineering, 1941-42; vice-chairman, Yellow River Conservancy Commission, 1943-47; professor and dean, college of engineering, National Peiyang Univ., since 1946.

LI, Shun-ching

Govt. official, native of Shantung, born in 1892; M.S., Yale; Ph.D., Chicago; president, Anhwei Univ., 1933-37; professor, National Central Univ., 1937-39; director, forestry department, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, 1940-48; director, Forestry Bureau, Taiwan, since 1949.

LI, Ssu-kuang (prefers J. S. LEE)

Geologist, native of Hupeh, born in 1887; D.Phil., Birmingham; director, Institute of Geology, Academia Sinica, since 1927; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *The Earth's Age*.

LI, Tang

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1884; graduate, Berlin Univ., 1913; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1944-48; deputy comptroller-general, Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, 1948-49.

LI, Ti-tsun

Diplomatic official, native of Hupeh, born in 1901; Ph.D., Wisconsin; Minister to Cuba, 1940-47; Ambassador to Turkey, since 1947.

LI, Tieh-tseng

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1905; LL.B., National Central Univ.; Ambassador to Iran, 1942-46; Ambassador to Siam, 1946-48; adviser, Chinese Delegation to U.N., since 1949.

LI, Tsu-tsung

Govt. official, native of Hopei, born in 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ.; Control Yuan commissioner in Hopei, 1945-48; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

LI, Tsung-en (prefers Chung-un LEE)

Physician, native of Kiangsu, born in 1894; M.B., Ch.B., Glasgow, 1920; D.T.M. and H., London, 1922; president, National Kweiyang Medical College, since 1947; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

LI, Tsung-huang

Govt. official, native of Yunnan, born in 1888; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1942; acting governor of Yunnan, 1945; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1924; secretary-general, Party and Political Work Evaluation Committee, 1946.

LI, Tsung-jen (General)

Vice-President of the Republic of China, native of Kwangsi, born in 1790; graduate, Kweilin Military Academy; commander, 7th Army, 1926; commander, 3rd Route Army, 1927; commander-in-chief, 4th Group Army, National Revolutionary Forces, 1928; chairman, Wuhan Division, Kuomintang Central Political Council, 1928; Military Affairs Commissioner in Kwangsi, 1929-37; Commander-

in-Chief, 5th War Area, 1937-45, responsible for the Taierhchwang Victory, 1938, and later defender of Central China; governor of Anhwei, 1938; member, National Military Council, 1932-46; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1926; director, President's Hqrs. at Hanchung, 1945; director, President's Hqrs. at Peiping, 1945-48; elected Vice-President of the Republic at the 1st constitutional National Assembly, 1948; Acting President of China, Jan. 21, 1949 to Feb. 28, 1950; vice-chairman, Kuomintang Supreme Council, since 1949.

LI, Tsung-jen, Madame (see **LI, Kuo Teh-chieh**)

LI, Tu

Army officer, native of Liaoning, born in 1880; one of the well known guerilla leaders in Northeastern Provinces during 1932-45; attached to Northeast Rebellion Suppression Forces Hqrs., 1948.

LI, Wei-kuo (prefers **LEE, Wei-kuo**)

Govt. official, native of Szechwan, born in 1903; Ph.D., Columbia; director, general affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1942-45; Vice-Minister of Information, 1945-47; minister, Kuomintang Ministry of Information, 1947-48, secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1948-49; representative on Far Eastern Commission in Washington, D. C., since 1949.

LI, Wen-fan

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1885; graduate, Tokyo Law College; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1929; vice-president, Judicial Yuan, 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

LI, Yu-ying (**LI, Shih-tseng**)

Govt. official, native of Hopei, born in 1882; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1924; president, National Academy of Peiping, since 1929; advisor to the President, since 1948.

LIANG, Chiu-shui

One of the Democratic Socialist Party leaders, native of Kwangtung, born in 1883; studied in Japan; recently split with Carsun Chang and participated in the party's Reform Committee.

LIANG, Han-chao

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1899; graduate, Kwangtung Normal College, 1922; secretary-general, Leg-

islative Yuan, 1933-38; vice-minister, Political Training Board, National Military Council, 1938-43; Minister of Information, 1943-44; deputy secretary-general, Supreme National Defense Council, 1944-47; chairman, Committee for Theoretical Research of the Kuomintang, since 1947.

LIANG, Lone (see **LIANG, Lung**)

LIANG, Shu-ming

Social worker, native of Kwangsi, born in 1894; former professor of philosophy, National Peking Univ., founder and director, Institute of Local Self-Government of Honan, 1929-30; founder and director, Shantung Institute of Rural Reconstruction, 1931-36; joined Democratic League in 1941 and later became secretary-general of the League; author, *Rural Reconstruction in China, Eastern and Western Culture and Philosophies*, etc.

LIANG, Ssu-cheng

Architect, native of Kwangtung, born in 1901; B. Arch., Pennsylvania, 1927; Hon. Litt. D., Princeton, 1947; research director, Institute for the Research in Chinese Architecture, since 1931; professor and dean, department of architecture, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1946; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

LIANG, Tsung-tai

Poet, native of Kwangtung, born in 1903; studied at Geneva, Paris and Berlin; author of several volumes of poems in modern style and books on poetry; professor of Western literature at National Peking, National Tsing Hua, National Nankai, and National Fudan Univs.

LIEU, O. S. (see **LIU, Hung-sheng**)

LIM, Robert Ke-sheng (see **LIN, Ke-sheng**)

LIN, Chi-yung

Chemical engineer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1897; C.E., Reusselaer Polytechnic Institute, U.S.A., 1924; chairman, Committee for the Removal of Factories from Shanghai to the Interior, 1937-38; general manager, Tien Shan Industrial Co., Shanghai, since 1947; general manager, National Agricultural Engineering Corporation, since 1947.

LIN, D. Y. (see **LING, Tao-yang**)

LIN, Henry H. (see **LING, Hsien-yang**)

LIN, Ke-sheng (prefers **Robert K. S. LIM**)

Surgeon, native of Fukien, born in Singapore, 1897; Ph.D., D.Sc., Edinburgh; professor of physiology, Peiping Union Medical College, 1924-37; director, Chinese Red Cross Medical Relief Corps, 1937-42; director, Emergency Medical Service Training School, 1938-42; Medical Inspector-General, Chinese Expeditionary Force in Burma, 1942-45; surgeon-general, Army Medical Administration, since 1945; director-general, National Defense Medical Center, since 1947; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

LIN, Piao

Communist army officer, member of Central Committee of Chinese Communist Party, native of Hupeh, born in 1908; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1925; joined Socialist Youth Party and the Kuomintang, 1924, and Chinese Communist Party, 1925; participated in Communist "Long March" in 1934; president, Anti-Japanese Military and Political College in Yen-an, 1936; commander, 115th regiment, 8th Route Army, 1937-45; became commander of "Northeast People's Liberation Army," 1945; became "mayor" of Peiping, Jan., 1949, after his troops captured the city; named member of Communist "People's Central Government Council" in Oct., 1949.

LIN, Pin

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1891; LL.B., National Peking Univ.; member, Legislative Yuan, and chairman, law codification committee, same Yuan, 1928-48; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

LIN, Po-chu (**LIN, Tsu-han**)

Communist leader, member of Central Committee, Chinese Communist Party, native of Hunan, born in 1885; attended Chuo (Central) Univ., Tokyo; met Dr. Sun Yat-sen in Japan and joined *Tung Men Hui*; elected to Central Committee of the Kuomintang in 1924 but had already secretly joined Chinese Communist Party two years earlier; during Kuomintang-Communist cooperation period he held several important posts; expelled from Kuomintang after Nanchang Uprising and fled to U.S.S.R. to study and later attended 6th Congress of the Comintern; returned to China, 1930; became chairman of "Shensi-Kansu-Ningsia Border Region Government," 1937; participated in negotiations with the National Government following 1936 Sian Incident; was one of Communist representatives on

People's Political Council in Chungking, 1939-41; named "secretary-general" of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government Council," Oct., 1949.

LIN, Tien-chi

Chemical engineer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1899; Ph.D., Cornell; general manager, China Match Raw Material Manufacturing Co., since 1942.

LIN, Tsu-han (see **LIN, Po-chu**)**LIN, Tung-chi**

Professor, native of Fukien, born in 1906; Ph.D., California, 1934; professor and dean, college of letters and law, National Yunnan Univ., 1937-42; professor of political science, National Fu-tan Univ. (Shanghai), since 1942.

LIN, Wei (**Lieutenant-General**)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1888; graduate, Staff College; former Vice-Minister of War; vice-minister, Military Operations Board; Vice-Minister of National Defense; deputy chief, General Staff, 1947-49; deputy military and political affairs director for the Southeast, since 1949.

LIN, Yi-chung

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1892; graduate, National Kwangtung Normal College; Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1940-42; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; speaker, Kwangtung provincial council, 1946-49.

LIN, Yu-tang

Author, native of Fukien, born in 1895; M.A., Harvard, 1921; D.Phil., Leipzig, 1923; professor and dean, department of English, National Peiping Normal College for Women, 1926; professor of English and dean of college of arts, National Amoy Univ., 1926-27; joined UNESCO Secretariat, 1948; author, *My Country and My People*, *The Importance of Living*, *Moment in Peking*, *Between Tears and Laughter*, *China Town Family*, etc.

LING, Hsien-yang (prefers **Henry H. LIN**)

Univ. president, native of Kwangtung, born in 1905; M.B.A., Southern California; Hon. Ph.D., Baylor and Wake Forest Univs.; general manager, Central Engraving and Printing Works, 1941-47; president, Univ. of Shanghai, since 1944; chairman, board of directors, Central Paper Mill, since 1946.

LING, Hung-hsun

Engineer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1894; B.S., Nanyang College, 1915; studied structural engineering at Columbia; chancellor, National Chaotung Univ., 1924-27; between 1929 and 1945 was at different periods director and chief engineer of Canton-Hankow, Hunan-Kwangsi, Paochi-Tienshui and other railways; Vice-Minister of Communications, 1946-49; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

LING, Tao-yang (prefers D. Y. LING)

Forestry expert, native of Kwangtung, born in 1888; M.F., Yale, 1914; director, Central Forestry Bureau, 1930-33; member, National Water Conservancy Commission, 1940-47.

LIU, Che

Govt. official, native of Kirin, born in 1880; graduate, National Peking Univ.; Minister of Education, 1927; president, Sino-Russian College of Engineering, 1928-31; member, Peiping Political Council, and later Hopei-Chahar Political Council 1932-37; member, People's Political Council, 1940-41; state councillor, National Govt., 1942-47; vice-president, Control Yuan, 1947-48; elected vice-president, Control Yuan, 1948.

LIU, Chen-tung

Economist, native of Shantung, born in 1901; B.A., Columbia Univ.; secretary-general, State Monopoly Planning Committee, Ministry of Finance, 1942-45; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; author, *China's Currency Problem*.

LIU, Chi-wen

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1890; studied at London and Cambridge Univs.; mayor of Nanking, 1927-30; superintendent of Shanghai Customs, 1930-31; Vice-Minister of Audit, 1937-48; Acting Auditor-General, Ministry of Audit, since 1948.

LIU, Chieh

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1905; studied at Oxford and Columbia; minister-counsellor, Chinese Embassy, Washington, D.C., 1942-45; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1945-47; Ambassador to Canada, since 1947; Chinese representative on United Nations Trusteeship Council, 1947-48.

LIU, Chien-hsu (General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1891; graduate, Paoting Military Acad-

emy; commander-in-chief, 10th Group Army, 1937-41; governor of Fukien, 1941-48; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

LIU, Fei (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1897; graduate, Japanese Staff College; vice-minister, Military Operations Board, National Military Council, 1940-46; deputy chief, General Staff, 1946-49; expelled from the Kuomintang because of anti-government activities, 1949.

LIU, Han-tung (Lieutenant-General)

Govt. official, native of Antung; graduate, Staff College; governor of Liaopei, 1945-47.

LIU, Hang-shen

Banker, native of Szechwan, born in 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ.; chairman, board of directors, Szechwan Salt Bank; former Vice-Minister of Food; Minister of Economic Affairs, 1949.

LIU, Hung-sheng (prefers O. S. LIEU)

Industrialist, native of Chekiang, born in 1888; Hon. LL.D., St. John's Univ.; general manager, Match Monopoly Co., Ministry of Finance, 1942-44; director, State Monopoly Administration, 1944; executive director, Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 1945-47; general manager, China Woolen and Worsted Ltd., since 1941; chairman, board of directors, China Merchants Steam Navigation Co., since 1945.

LIU, Ju-ming (General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1894; graduate, Staff College; governor of Chahar, 1936-37; commander, 68th Army, 1937-43; commander-in-chief, 2nd Group Army, 1943-46; commander, 4th Pacification Area, 1946-48; deputy commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Hsuechow Area, 1948.

LIU, Jui-heng (prefers J. Heng LIU)

Health expert, native of Hopei, born in 1890; M.D., Harvard, 1915; Vice-Minister and later Minister of Health, 1928-30; director, National Health Administration, 1930-38; member, Chinese Supply Mission to Washington, D.C., 1944-45; medical director, American Bureau of Medical Aid to China, since 1946.

LIU, Ke-shu

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1905; graduate, National Peking Univ., and London Univ.; member, Legislative

Yuan, since 1944; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1944.

LIU, Ke-tsun (prefers Keetsin LIU)

Jurist, professor, native of Kiangsi, born in 1894; LL.D., Munich, 1926; professor, National Central Div., 1934-37; and since 1946; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-48; and chairman, Law Codification Committee, same Yuan, 1946-48; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

LIU, Keetsin (see LIU, Ke-chun)

LIU, Kung-yun (prefers S. Y. LIU)

Banker, native of Fukien, born in 1900; Ph.D., London; secretary-general, Joint Administrative Office of the Four Govt. Banks, 1942-45; general manager, Central Trust, 1945-46; director, Enemy and Puppet Property Administration, Kiangsu, Chekiang and Anhwei, 1945-47; deputy governor, Central Bank of China, 1947-49; Minister of Finance, 1949.

LIU, Mou-en (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Honan, born in 1898; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; formerly army commander; governor of Honan, 1944-48; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

LIU, Po-cheng

Communist army officer, standing member of Central Committee, Chinese Communist Party, native of Szechwan, born in 1900; joined Chinese Communist Party in 1926; shortly after Kuomintang-Communist split in 1927 went to Moscow to attend Red Army Military Academy; returned to China four years later and became chief-of-staff to Chu Teh; chief-of-staff, Communist 8th Route Army; as commander of Communist Central China Forces, was first Communist general to cross Yellow river in August, 1947.

LIU, Shao-chi

Communist leader, member of Central Committee, Chinese Communist Party, native of Hunan; studied in Moscow; joined Communist Party, 1922; held several posts in "Kiangsi Soviet" and participated in 1934 "long march"; head of "National Labor Union" since 1937; concurrently deputy commissar and chief-of-staff of 5th division, Communist New 4th Army, 1945; became one of "deputy chairman" of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government" in Peiping, Oct., 1949.

LIU, Shen-ngo

Botanist, native of Shantung, born in 1898; D.Sc., Paris; director, Institute of Botany, National Academy of Peiping, since 1929.

LIU, Shih (General)

Army officer, native of Kiangsi, born in 1891; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1914; governor of Honan, 1930-35; deputy commander-in-chief, 1st War Area, 1937-38; commander-in-chief, 5th War Area, 1945; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1946; commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Hsuechow Area, 1948.

LIU, Shih-shun

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1900; M.A., Harvard, 1923; Ph.D., Columbia, 1925; Minister to Canada, 1942-44; Ambassador to Canada, 1944-47; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1947-48; Chinese representative on U.N. Trusteeship Council, since 1948.

LIU, Shih-yi (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kiangsi, born in 1880; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, Tokyo Artillery School, and Tokyo Imperial Univ.; vice-minister, Political Training Board, National Military Council, 1938-46; Vice-Minister of National Defense, 1946-48; personal chief of staff to the President, since 1949.

LIU, S. Y. (see LIU, Kung-yun)

LIU, Ta-chun (prefers D. K. LIEU)

Economist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1891; B.A., Michigan, 1915; founder and director, Institute of National Economy, National Military Council, during the war; commercial attache, Chinese Embassy, Washington, D.C., since 1945.

LIU, To-chuan (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Antung, born in 1896; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; governor of Jehol, 1942-47; deputy commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, North China, 1947-48.

LIU, Wei-chih

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1892; graduate, Hawaii Univ.; minister, Kuomintang Overseas Affairs Board, 1941-43; chairman, Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission, Executive Yuan, 1947-48; Minister of Economic Affairs, 1948-49.

LIU, Wei-tao

Chemist, native of Szechwan, born in 1900; D.Sc., Paris; director, Institute of Chemistry, National Academy of Peiping, since 1930.

LIU, Wen-hui (General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1895; graduate, Paoting Military

Academy, 1916; commander, 24th Army, 1927-46; governor of Szechwan, 1929-35; chairman, Committee for the Establishment of Sikang Province, 1935-38; governor of Sikang, since 1939-49; defected to the Communists, Dec., 1949.

LIU, Wen-tao

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1894; graduate, Paoting Military Academy and Paris Law College; mayor of Hankow, 1929-31; Minister to Germany and Austria, 1931-33; Minister to Italy, 1933-34; Ambassador to Italy, 1934-37; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

LIU, Yao-chang

Govt. official, native of Hopei, born in 1897; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1922; member, People's Political Council, 1941-46; speaker, Hopei provincial provisional council, 1947-48; mayor of Peiping, 1948-49.

LIU, Yi-cheng

Historian, native of Kiangsu, born in 1879; professor of history of several well-known univs.; director, Kiangsu Provincial Library of Classics (Nanking), since 1927; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *A History of Chinese Culture*.

LO, Chia-lun

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1896; graduate, National Peking Univ.; studied at Princeton, Columbia, London, Berlin and Paris Univs.; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1923-42; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; supervisory commissioner of Control Yuan in Sinkiang, 1924-45; Ambassador to India, 1947-49.

LO, Chia-lun, Mrs. (see CHANG, Wei-chen)

LO, Cho-ying (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, commander-in-chief, 19th Group Army, 1937-41; deputy commander-in-chief, 9th War Area, 1941-42; commander-in-chief, 1st Route Army, Expeditionary Force in Burma, 1942-43; inspector-general, Youth Army Organization and Training, 1944-45; governor of Kwangtung, 1945-47; deputy commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Northeast, 1948.

LO, Hsueh-lien (prefers Shelley LO)

Movie producer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1903; graduate, Yenching Univ., 1927; general manager, Central Motion Picture Corporation, Ltd. (Shanghai), since 1947.

LO, Lung-chi

Professor, native of Kiangsi, born in 1896; Ph.D., Columbia, 1928; former editor, Tientsin *Yi Shih Pao*; professor, National Southwest Associated Univ.; member, People's Political Council; one of the leaders of the Democratic League, and spokesman for the League, delegate to Communist-sponsored "Political Consultative Conference," Oct., 1949.

LO SANG, Chien Tsan

Govt. official, native of Tibet, born in 1888; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

LO, Shelley (see LO, Hsueh-lien)

LO, Tsung-lo (prefers Tsung-lo LOO)

Botanist, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; D.Agr.Sc., Hokkaido Imperial Univ., 1931; chancellor, National Taiwan Univ., 1945-46; director, Institute of Botany, Academia Sinica, since 1944; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

LO, Tun-wei

Economist, native of Hunan, born in 1897; LL.B., National Peking Univ.; managing director, Shanghai edition, *Ho Ping Jih Pao*, (Peace Daily) 1946-49; editor, *Chinese Economic Yearbook*, 1934-37.

LO, Wei-djen Djang (see CHANG, Wei-chen)

LOO, Tsung-lo (see LO, Tsung-lo)

LOU, Tsung-sun

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1885; LL.B., Paris; member and chairman, economic affairs committee, Legislative Yuan, 1941-48; acting secretary-general, same Yuan, 1947-48.

LU, Chao (General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1913; personal chief-of-staff to President, National Govt., 1931-45; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

LU, Chien

Poet, native of Nanking, born in 1905; graduate, National Southeastern Univ., 1926; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; editorial writer, *Central Daily News*, since 1946; professor, National Political Science Univ., since 1947; author of several volumes of poems.

LU, Chih-wei

Psychologist, native of Chekiang, born in 1894; Ph.D., Chicago, 1920; professor, Yenching Univ., since 1927; acting chancellor, same institution, 1934-41; and since 1945.

LU, Ching-shih

Labor expert, native of Kiangsu, born in 1908; graduate, Shanghai College of Law; deputy-director, Kuomintang Board of Farmers and Labor Movement, since 1947; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

LU, Chun (prefers John LEE)

Meteorologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1902; B.S., National Central Univ., 1928; studied in Germany, 1930-34; acting director, Institute of Meteorology, Academia Sinica, 1936-44; director, Central Weather Bureau, since 1943.

LU, Chung-lin (General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1884; graduate, Staff College; Minister of War, 1929; governor of Hopei, and commander-in-chief, Hopei-Chahar War Area, 1938; Minister of Conscription, 1944-45; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947.

LU, Kuang-mien

Govt. official, native of Liaoning, born in 1906; B.S., National Peking Univ.; 1927; studied at Aberdeen Univ., 1927-31; director, Northwest Hqs., Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, 1938-46; director, relief department, Chinese National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 1946-47; special advisor on Far Eastern affairs, International Refugee Organization (Geneva), since 1948.

LU, Han (General)

Army officer, native of Yunnan, born in 1908; graduate, Yunnan Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 1st Group Army, 1937-45; governor of Yunnan, and commander, Yunnan Garrison Forces, 1945-49.

LU, Tang-ping

Univ. president, native of Hunan, born in 1895; graduate, Peking Law College;

member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1935; president, Ming-kuo Univ.; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

LU, Tso-fu

Industrialist, native of Szechwan, born in 1894; founder and general manager, Ming Sung Industrial Co. (Chungking), since 1925; Vice-Minister of Communications, 1938-42; director, National Food Administration, 1940-41.

LUNG, Yun (General)

Army officer, native of Yunnan, born in 1888; graduate, Yunnan Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 13th Route Army, 1927; governor of Yunnan, 1927-45; president, Military Advisory Council, 1945-47; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, 1947-49; expelled from the Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

LY, J. Usang (see LI, Chao-huan)**MA, Chao-chun**

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1887; mayor of Nanking, 1935-37, 1945-47; vice-minister, Kuomintang Board of Social Affairs, 1938-40; vice-minister, Kuomintang Board of Organization, 1940-47; minister, Kuomintang Board of Farmers and Workers, since 1947.

MA, Hsin-yeh

Journalist, native of Chekiang, born in 1908; B.J., Missouri, 1934; professor and dean, department of journalism, National Chengchi Univ. (formerly Central Political Institute) since 1935; director, press department, Ministry of Information, 1942-46; publisher, *Central Daily News*, since 1945.

MA, Hung-huan

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1891; LL.B., Kyoto Imperial Univ., Japan, 1920; Vice-Minister of Personnel, since 1929.

MA, Hung-kwei (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kansu, born in 1892; graduate, Kansu Military Academy; commander, 64th Division, 1929-30; commander-in-chief, 15th Route Army, 1930-33; governor of Ningsia, since 1933; deputy commander-in-chief, 8th War Area, 1937-45; deputy director, President's Hqs. in Northwest, 1945-48; Deputy Military and Political Affairs Director for the Northwest, since 1948; governor of Kansu, since 1949.

MA, John (see **MA, Yueh-han**)

MA, Pu-ching (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kansu, commander, 5th Cavalry Army, and Reclamation Commissioner in Tsaidam Area, Chinghai.

MA, Pu-fang (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kansu, born in 1903; governor of Chinghai, since 1937; Military and Political Affairs Director for the Northwest, 1949.

MA, Yin-chu

Economist, native of Chekiang, born in 1882; B.A., Yale, 1910; Ph.D., Columbia, 1914; professor of economics at National Peking, National Central, National Chiao-tung, and National Chungking Univs., 1915-45; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-47; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *The Economic Reform of China*, *The New Financial Policy of China*, etc.

MA, Yueh-han (prefers John MA)

Physical director, native of Fukien, born in 1873; B.A., St. John's, 1911; M.P.E., Springfield, 1925; professor and physical director, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1914.

MAI, Ssu Wu Teh (MASUD)

Govt. official, native of Sinkiang, born in 1887; graduate, Constantinople Univ.; former member, Legislative Yuan; member, People's Political Council; state councillor, National Govt.; Control Yuan Commissioner in Sinkiang; governor of Sinkiang, 1947-48.

MAO, Ching-hsiang

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1899; graduate, National College of Agriculture, France; secretary to the President, since 1929; director, Code and Cipher Office, *Tsungtungfu* (Office of the President), 1948.

MAO, I-sheng (prefers Thomson Eason MAO)

Engineer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1896; M.C.E., Cornell, 1917; D.Eng., Carnegie, 1920; president, National Peiyang Univ., 1929-31; president, Tangshan Engineering College, 1938-41; member, standing committee, National Conservancy Commission, 1941-47; engineering director, Cheintang River Bridge, since 1934; chief engineer, Office of Bridge Engineers, Ministry of Communications, since 1941; president, China Bridge Co., Nanking, since 1943; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

MAO, Pang-chu (Air Major-General prefers P. T. MOW)

Air force officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1904; graduate, Whampao Military Academy, 1925; graduate, Soviet Union Military Flying School, 1937; deputy director, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, 1943-46; deputy commander-in-chief, Chinese Air Force, since 1946; delegate to United Nations Military Staff Committee, since 1945.

MAO, Thomson Eason (see MAO, I-sheng)

MAO, Tse-tung

Leader of Chinese Communist Party, native of Hunan, born in 1893; one of the founders of Chinese Communist Party in Shanghai, 1921; led Hunan Autumn Uprising, 1927; now chairman, Communist Central Committee, and Politburo; became chairman of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government" in Peiping, in Oct., 1949.

MAO, Tsu-chuan

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu; graduate, Tokyo Law College; president, Administrative Court, 1933-43; secretary-general, Judicial Yuan, 1943-48; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

MAO, Tun (see SHEN, Yen-ping)

MEI, Ching-chou (prefers K. C. MUI)

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1895; M.A., Chicago; consul-general in Honolulu, 1933-47; Minister to Cuba, since 1947.

MEI, Ju-ao

Govt. official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1904; J.D., Chicago, 1928; member, Legislative Yuan, 1935-48; judge, Tokyo International Military Tribunal, since 1946.

MEI, Kung-jen

Govt. official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1892; graduate, Shenyang Normal College; former vice-chairman, Kuomintang Central Party History Compilation and Editing Committee; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

MEI, Yi-chi

Univ. president, native of Hopei, born in 1889; B.S. (1914) and Hon.D.Eng. (1940), Worcester Polytechnic Institute; director, Chinese Educational Mission to

U.S.A., 1929-31; chancellor, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1931; chairman, Executive Council, National Southwest Associated Univ., 1938-46; appointed Minister of Education, 1949, but did not assume office.

MEI, Yi-pao

Professor, native of Hopei, born in 1900; Ph.D., Chicago, 1927; professor and dean, college of arts and letters, Yenching Univ., Peiping, 1936-38; director, Kansu Science Education Institute, 1938-40; head, secretariat, Chinese Industrial Cooperatives, 1940-41; acting chancellor, Yenching Univ., 1942-46; professor and dean, college of arts and letters, Yenching Univ., since 1946.

MIAO, Chia-ming

Banker, govt. official, native of Yunnan, born in 1882; M.E., Minnesota; former general manager, Kokiu Tin Company; general manager, Fu Tien Bank; non-partisan representative, Political Consultative Conference, 1946; Minister without Portfolio, Executive Yuan, 1947-48.

MIAO, Pei-cheng

Govt. official, native of Shansi, born in 1894; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; Control Yuan Commissioner in Hupeh-Hunan Area, 1943-48.

MIAO, Pei-nan (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1889; chief of staff, 4th War Area, 1938-45; Deputy Military Affairs Commissioner at Canton, 1946-49.

MO, Teh-hui

Govt. official, native of Liaoning, born in 1882; director-general, Chinese Eastern Railway, 1929; delegate to Sino-Soviet Conference, Moscow, 1930-33; member, presidium, People's Political Council, 1942-48; state councillor, National Govt., 1947-48; vice-presidential candidate, 1948; advisor to the President, since 1948; chairman, Supervisory Committee for the Enforcement of Constitutional Government, since 1948.

MOW, P. T. (see MAO, Pang-chu)

MUI, K. C. (see MEI, Ching-chou)

NIU, Yung-chien

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1873; studied in Japan and Germany; member, Kuomintang Supervisory Committee, since 1929; governor of Kiangsu, 1928-32; vice-president, Examination Yuan, 1932; state councillor, National

Government, 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948; acting president, Examination Yuan, since 1949.

NY, Tsi-ze (see YEN, Chi-tze)

OU, Tsuin-chen (see WU, Chun-sheng)

OU-YANG, Chu

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; mayor of Canton, 1946-49.

OU-YANG, Yu-chien

Actor and playwright, native of Hunan, born in 1897; graduate, Waseda Univ., Tokyo; was a famous female impersonator in Chinese opera in early years, but now engaged in promoting modern stage plays and in "reforming" opera and regional plays; author of many well-known plays.

PA Chin (see LI, Fei)

PAI, Chung-hsi (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangsi, born in 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; chief of staff, National Revolutionary Armies, 1926; field commander, 2nd Route Army, 1927; garrison commander, Shanghai Area, 1927-28; deputy military affairs commissioner for Kwangsi, 1929-37; deputy commander-in-chief, 5th Route Army, 1937; deputy chief-of-staff: National Military Council, 1937-46; minister, Military Training Board, N.M.C., 1938-46; Minister of National Defense, 1946-48; chairman, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, and commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Central China, 1948; Military and Political Affairs Director for Central China, since 1948.

PAI, Yun-ti

Mongolian leader, native of Mongolia, born in 1894; graduate, Peiping Mongolian and Tibetan College, 1913; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; vice-chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1947-48; chairman, same Commission, 1948-49.

PAN, Hsu-lun (prefers Shu-lun PAN)

Chartered accountant, native of Kiangsu, born in 1907; Ph.D., Columbia, 1924; pioneer in modern accounting in China; founder and director, Shu Lun Co., Chartered Accountants, Shanghai; Vice-Minister of Economic Affairs, 1946-47.

PAN, Kuang-tan (prefers **Quentin PAN**)

Sociologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1899; studied in America; leading eugenicist in China; professor and dean, sociology department, National Tsing Hua Univ.; author of several books on eugenics and family problems in China.

PAN, Kung-chan

Kuomintang official, native of Chekiang, born in 1895; graduate, St. John's Univ., 1918; director, Shanghai bureau of education, 1932-36; director, Shanghai bureau of social welfare, 1927-36; Vice-Minister of Information, 1939-42; member, Standing Committee, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1942; chairman, Committee for Censorship of Periodicals and Publications, 1941-45; speaker, Shanghai Municipal Council, 1946-49; director, Shanghai *Shun Pao*, 1946-49.

PAN, Kung-pi

Journalist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1895; graduate, Tokyo Law College; managing director, *China Times*, Shanghai, 1916-37; editor-in-chief, *Shun Pao*, Shanghai, 1938-41; secretary, Kuomintang Central Hqrs., 1942-45; director, *Central Daily News*, Changchun, 1945-47; managing director, *National Times*, Hongkong, 1947-49.

PAN, Quentin (see **PAN, Kuang-tan**)**PAN, Shu-lun** (see **PAN, Hsu-lun**)**PAN, Tien-shou**

Artist, native of Chekiang, born in 1897; president, National Academy of Fine Arts, 1944-47; professor of Chinese painting, National Academy of Fine Arts, Hangchow, since 1947; author, *History of Chinese Painting*.

PANG, Sung-chou

Govt. Official, native of Shanghai, born in 1888; graduate, National Nanking Normal Univ.; former Vice-Minister of Food; deputy comptroller-general, Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, 1948; comptroller-general, same Ministry, 1948.

PAO, Chun-chien (prefers **C. J. PAO**)

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1897; consul-general in Calcutta, 1941-44; Ambassador to Peru, since 1944.

PAO, C. J. (see **PAO, Chun-chien**)**PAO Erh Han** (**BURHAN**)

Govt. official, native of Sinkiang, studied in Germany; deputy governor of

Sinkiang, 1946-49; state councillor, National Government, 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948; governor of Sinkiang, 1949.

PAO, Hua-kuo

Govt. official, native of Szechwan, born in 1903; M.A., Stanford; former director, Social Affairs Bureau, Chungking, and Chinese gov't. representative to I.L.O.; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

PEI, Tsuyee (see **PEI, Tsu-yi**)**PEI, Tsu-yi** (prefers **Tsuyee PEI**)

Banker, native of Kiangsu, born in 1893; connected with Bank of China since 1914; general manager, Bank of China, 1942-48; chairman, board of directors, Bank of China, since 1948;; member, Currency Stabilization Board, 1941-44; head, Chinese Technical Mission to Washington, D.C., 1948.

PEI, Wen-chung

Geologist, palaeontologist, native of Hopei, born in 1898; graduate, National Peking Univ.; discoverer of "Peking Man" in the vicinity of Peiping, 1931; discoverer of palaeolithic implements in same area, 1933.

PENG, Chao-hsien

Govt. official, native of Shantung, born in 1899; graduate, Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ.; member and civil affairs commissioner, Shensi provincial gov't., 1944-47; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1947-48; Minister of Interior, 1948.

PENG, Teh-huai

Communist army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1900; graduate, Hunan Military Academy; joined Communist party, 1927; deputy commander-in-chief, 8th Route Army and later 18th Group Army, 1937-45; named one of deputy chairmen of "People's Revolutionary Army Committee" and member of "People's Central Government Council" in Oct., 1949.

PI, Tso-chiung

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1899; graduate, French National School of Forestry and Water Conservancy; technical superintendent, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, 1942-46; member and reconstruction commissioner, Chekiang provincial gov't., 1946-48; Vice-Minister of Personnel, since 1948.

PING, Chih

Zoologist, native of Honan, born in 1889; Ph.D., Cornell; director, biological laboratory, Science Society of China, since 1922; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *The Fossil Insects of China*.

PING, Hsin (see HSIEH, Wan-ying)**POE, Dison Hsueh-feng (see PU, Hsueh-feng)****PU, Hsueh-feng (prefers Dison Hsueh-feng POE)**

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; M.A., Harvard; Hon. LL.D., Hamline; deputy director-general, National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 1945-46; deputy secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1946-48; secretary-general, Taiwan provincial govt., since 1948.

PU, Tao-ming

Diplomatic official, born in Hunan, 1901; graduate, Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ.; director, western Asiatic affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since 1944.

QUO, Tai-chi (see KUO, Tai-chi)**SA, Chen-ping (Admiral)**

Retired naval officer, native of Fukien, born in 1856; graduate, Greenwich Naval College; commander-in-chief, Chinese Navy, 1916; Minister of Navy, 1919-20; governor of Fukien, 1922-26.

SA, Fu-chun (prefers F. K. SAH)

Engineer, native of Fukien, born in 1886; B.Eng., Purdue, 1910; technical supervisor, Ministry of Communications, since 1938; deputy director-general, Yunnan-Burma Railway, 1941-45; director, railway department, Ministry of Communications, since 1938.

SAH, F. K. (see SAH, Fu-chun)**SHANG, Chen (General)**

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1884; graduate, Staff College; governor of Hopei, 1929; governor of Shansi 1931; commander, 32nd Army, 1931-37; governor of Honan, 1935-37; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; director, Executive Office, National Military Council, and Foreign Affairs Bureau, N.M.C., 1942-44; head, Chinese Military Mission to U.S.A., 1944-46; personal chief of staff to President, National Govt., 1946-47; head, Chinese Mission in Japan, and Chinese representative, Allied Council for Japan, 1947-49.

SHAO, Li-tze

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1882; secretary-general, Generalissimo's Hqs., 1927-31; governor of Kansu, 1932; governor of Shensi, 1933-36; Minister of Information, 1937-38; Ambassador to U.S.S.R., 1939-42; secretary-general, People's Political Council, 1943-48; state councillor, National Govt., 1947-48; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1926; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, 1948; expelled from Kuomintang because of anti-government activities, 1949.

SHAO, Yu-lin

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1907; B.A., Kiushiu Imperial Univ., Japan; consul-general in Yokohama, 1937-38; secretary, Generalissimo's Personal Hqs., 1939-46; director, information department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1941-43; Chinese representative in Korea, 1946-47; Ambassador to Korea, since 1949.

SHAO, Yuan-chung, Mrs. (see CHANG, Mo-chun)**SHAW, Kinn-wei (see SHOU, Ching-wei)****SHAW, Miachen (see SHOU, Mien-cheng)****SHEN, Bazin D. Z. (see SHEN, Pai-hsien)****SHEN, Chang-huan**

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1913; M.A., Michigan, 1937; personal secretary to the President, 1945-48; director, protocol department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1948; director, Government Information Office, 1948-49.

SHEN, Chia-yi

Jurist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1882; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ.; former judge, Supreme Court, and president, Hopei High Court; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

SHEN, Chin-ting (prefers G. D. SHEN)

Diplomatic official, native of Fukien, born in 1894; graduate, Tokyo Imperial Univ.; former Minister to Panama; deputy director, Chinese Mission to Japan, since 1946.

SHEN, Chun-ju

Lawyer, native of Chekiang, born in 1875; graduate, Tokyo Law College; former member of Parliament, president

of Shanghai Law College, member of People's Political Council; one of the patriotic movement leaders in Shanghai before the war; now leader of the outlawed Democratic League.

SHEN, G. D. (see **SHEN, Chin-ting**)

SHEN, Hung-lieh (Admiral)

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1881; graduate, Japanese Naval Academy, 1911; commander, Northeastern Naval Squadron, 1923-31; mayor of Tsingtao, 1931-37; governor of Shantung, 1938-41; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1942-44; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; governor of Chekiang, 1946-48; Minister of Personnel, 1948-49.

SHEN, Ke-fei (prefers **James K. SHEN**)

Surgeon, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; M.D., Western Reserve Univ.; director, Central Hospital, 1936-40; deputy director, National Health Administration, 1940-47; superintendent, Chungshan Hospital, Shanghai, since 1947.

SHEN, Pai-hsien (prefers **Bazin D. Z. SHEN**)

Hydraulic engineer, native of Chekiang, born in 1896; M.S., Iowa; 1925; vice-chairman, Hwai River Conservancy Commission, 1942-47; Vice-Minister of Water Conservancy, 1947-49.

SHEN, Shih-hua

Diplomatic official, native of Chekiang, born in 1901; B.A., St. John's Univ.; studied at Berlin Univ.; Commissioner to India, 1942-45; secretary-general, Shanghai municipal govt., 1945-46; Minister to Austria, since 1947.

SHEN, Teh-hsieh (Air Major-General)

Air force officer, native of Fukien, born in 1895; studied aviation and navigation in U.S.A., and England; deputy director, National Aeronautical Affairs Commission, 1944-45; general manager, China National Aviation Corporation, 1945-47; and since 1949; vice-chairman, board of director, C.N.A.C., since 1947.

SHEN, Tsung-han

Agriculturist, native of Chekiang, born in 1895; Ph.D., Cornell, 1927; deputy director, National Agricultural Research Bureau, 1934-46; director, same bureau, since 1946; member, Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction, since 1948.

SHEN, Tsung-lien

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1899; M.A., Harvard; director, Lhasa

Office, Mongolia and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1944-46; Special Commissioner to Nepal, 1946; secretary-general, Shanghai municipal govt., 1947-49.

SHEN, Tsung-wen

Novelist, native of Hunan, born in 1905; professor of literature, National Southwest Associated Univ., 1936-45; professor, National Peking Univ., since 1946; author of more than 60 volumes of novels and short stories.

SHEN, Yen-ping (Pen-name: **MAO, Tun**)

Novelist, native of Chekiang, born in 1896; graduate, National Peking Univ.; editor, *Short Story Monthly*, 1921-24; editor, *The Literary Front*, 1937-38; author of many novels, including *Midnight*.

SHEN, Yi

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1901; D.Eng., Dresden Univ., 1925; general manager, Kansu Agricultural Development Corporation, 1941-45; Vice-Minister of Communications, 1945; appointed mayor of Dairen, 1945; mayor of Nanking, 1947-48; director, Flood Prevention Bureau in the Far East, since 1949.

SHEN, Yin-mo

Professor, native of Chekiang, born in 1882; B.A., Kyoto Imperial Univ.; former professor at National Peking and National Peiping Univs.; member, Control Yuan, 1939-48; noted for his calligraphy.

SHENG, Chen-wei

Jurist, native of Shanghai, born in 1891; LL.D., Northwestern Univ., U.S.A.; member, Legislative Yuan, 1932-47; president, Comparative Law College, Soochow Univ., since 1942.

SHENG, Shih-tsai (General)

Army officer, native of Liaoning, born in 1895; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; governor of Sinkiang, and commander-in-chief, Frontier Defense Forces, 1940-44; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1944.

SHIH, Chao-chi (prefers **Alfred Sao-ke SZE**)

Retired diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1877; M.A., Cornell, 1902; Ph.D., Toronto; Minister to Great Britain, 1914-21 and 1929-32; Minister to U.S.A., 1921-29 and 1933-35; Ambassador to U.S.A., 1935-36; delegate to Paris Peace Conference, 1919-20; chief delegate to Washington Conference, 1921-22;

member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; senior advisor, Chinese Delegation to San Francisco Conference, 1945.

SHIH, Chih-chuan

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1886; LL.B., Tokyo Imperial Univ.; Vice-Minister of Justice, 1932-34; former professor of law at National Peking and National Peiping Univs.; president, Chaoyang College, 1946-48; member, Central Executive Committee, Democratic Socialist Party; vice-president, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

SHIH, Shang-kwan

Govt. official, native of Anhwei, born in 1898; LL.B., Tokyo Imperial Univ.; secretary-general, Examination Yuan, 1942-48.

SHOU, Ching-wei (prefers Kinn-wei SHAW)

Merchant, native of Chekiang, born in 1892; Ph.D., Columbia; now manager, China Tea Co., Shanghai, and secretary-general, National Federation of Chambers of Commerce.

SHOU, Mien-cheng (prefers Miachen SHAW)

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1901; M.A., Univ. of Washington; director, Central Cooperative Administration, 1940-45; general manager, Central Cooperative Bank, since 1945.

SHU, Sheh-yu (Pen-name: Lao Sheh)

Novelist, native of Peiping, born in 1898; graduate, Peiping Normal School; author of 27 volumes of novels, plays, poems, etc., including *Richsha Boy* which has been translated into English and published in New York and London; former professor of Chinese literature and dean of college of arts, Cheeloo Univ.

SHUI, Hsiang-yun

Labor leader, born in Chekiang, 1906; graduate, China National Institute, 1935; president, Shanghai Labor Union, since 1945; secretary-general, National Federation of Labor Unions, since 1948.

SIE, K. S. (see HSIEH, Chia-sheng)

SIH, K. T. (see HSUEH, Kuang-chien)

SOONG, T. V. (see SUNG, Tzu-wen)

SUN, Chen (General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1892; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1914; deputy commander-in-

chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Hsuechow Area, 1948; deputy commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Central China, 1948; Pacification Commissioner for Szechwan-Hupeh Border Area, since 1948-49.

SUN, Fo (see SUN Ke)

SUN, Ke (prefers SUN Fo)

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1895; son of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, M.A., Columbia, 1917; Hon. LL.D., Fudan Univ., 1935; mayor of Canton, 1921-22, 1923-24 and 1926; Minister of Finance, 1927-28; Minister of Railways, 1928-31; president, Legislative Yuan, 1932-48; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1926; vice-presidential candidate, 1948; elected president, Legislative Yuan, at the first session of the first constitutional Legislative Yuan, May, 1948; president, Executive Yuan, 1948-49; author, *China Looks Forward*.

SUN, Li-jen (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Anhwei, born in 1900; B.S., Purdue; graduate, Virginia Military Institute; commander, New 1st Army, 1943-46; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Army, and Commander-in-Chief, Army Training Hqs., since 1947; commander, Taiwan Defense Hqs., since 1949; deputy director of Military and Political Affairs for the Southeast, since 1949.

SUN, Lien-chung (General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1893; governor of Chinghai and Kansu, 1928-29; commander-in-chief, 26th Route Army, 1930-37; commander-in-chief, 2nd Group Army, 1937-39; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 1st War Area, 1939-43; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 6th War Area, 1943; Commander-in-Chief, 6th War Area, 1943-45; Commander-in-Chief, 11th War Area, and governor of Hopei, 1945-47; Pacification Commissioner for Paoting, 1947; commander-in-chief, Nanking Defense Area, 1948; personal chief of staff to the President, 1948-49.

SUN, Pen-wen

Sociologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; Ph.D., New York, 1925; professor, National Central Univ., since 1929; author, *Principles of Sociology*, *Social Problems in Modern China*, etc.

SUN, Sung Ching-ling (Madame SUN Yat-sen)

Native of Kwangtung, born in Shanghai, 1891; B.A., Wesleyan; married Dr.

Sun Yat-sen in 1915; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities; became vice-chairman of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government" at Peiping, Oct., 1949.

SUN, Tu (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Yunnan, born in 1896; graduate, Yunnan Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 1st Group Army, 1945-47; deputy commander-in-chief, Northeast Rebellion Suppression Forces, 1947-48; governor of Jehol, 1948.

SUN, Wei-ju (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Shensi, born in 1895; graduate, Staff College; governor of Shensi, 1937-38; commander-in-chief, 4th Group Army, 1939-45; deputy commander-in-chief, 1st War Area, 1944-45; Commander-in-Chief, 6th War Area, 1945-46; deputy director, President's Hqs. in Wuhan, 1946-48; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

SUN Yat-sen, Madame (see SUN, Sung Ching-ling)

SUN, Yuan-liang (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1904; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, and Tokyo Military Academy; garrison commander of Chungking, 1947-48; deputy commander, Chengchow Hqs., Hsuehchow Area Rebellion Suppression Forces, 1948; commander, 16th Army Group, 1948.

SUN, Yueh-chi

Engineer, native of Chekiang, born in 1895; graduate, National Peiyang Univ.; studied at Stanford and Columbia; former general manager, Kansu Oil Administration, Tienfu Mining Co., and Ministry of Economic Affairs special commissioner to the Northeast, vice-chairman, National Resources Commission; chairman, same Commission, 1948-49.

SUNG, Han-chang

Banker, native of Chekiang, born in 1872; connected with Bank of China since 1912; general manager, Bank of China, 1948.

SUNG, Hsi-lien (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1907; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, Japanese Infantry School, and Staff College; commander-in-chief, Sinkiang Garrison Forces, 1946-48; deputy commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces, Central China, 1948; deputy director of Military and Political Affairs for Central China, since 1948.

SUNG, Tung

Hydraulic engineer, native of Honan, born in 1899; graduate, National Tungchi Univ.; director, engineering department, National Water Conservancy Commission, 1941-45; member, and reconstruction commissioner, Honan provincial govt., 1946-48.

SUNG, Tze-wen (prefers T. V. SOONG)

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in Shanghai, 1891; B.A., Harvard, 1915; Minister of Finance and vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1928-31; and 1932-33; acting president, Executive Yuan, 1932-33; governor, Central Bank of China, 1930-33; chief delegate to World Economic Conference, London, 1933; chairman, board of directors, Bank of China, 1935-43; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1942-45; acting president, Executive Yuan, 1944-45; president, Executive Yuan, 1945-47; governor of Kwangtung, 1947-48.

SZE, Alfred Sao-ke (see SHIH, Chao-chi)

TAI, An-kuo

Aeronautical engineer, native of Chekiang, born in 1913; graduate, Berlin Univ. and American Flying School; director, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Ministry of Communications, 1946-48; general manager, China National Aviation Corporation, since 1949.

TAI, Chi-tao (see TAI, Chuan-hsien)

TAI, David C. L. (see TAI, Tsui-lun)

TAI, Kwei-sheng

Govt. official, native of Fukien, born in 1889; former member, Control Yuan; vice-minister, Kuomintang Board of Overseas Affairs, since 1938.

TAI, Tsui-lun (prefers David C. L. TAI)

Musician, native of Kiangsu, born in 1912; graduate, New School of Music, Vienna; president, National Conservatory of Music, Shanghai, since 1945.

TAN, Ping-hsun

Civil engineer, native of Shantung, born in 1907; graduate, National Peiyang Univ., 1931; director, Stage Transportation Administration, Ministry of Communications, 1942-45; director, bureau of public works, Peiping, 1945-48.

TAN, Po-yu

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1900; graduate, Dresden College of

Engineering; Vice-Minister of Economic Affairs, 1941-46; Vice-Minister of Communications, 1946-48; member, Committee for Control of Productive Enterprises in Taiwan, since 1949.

TAN, Shao-hua

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1897; Ph.D., Chicago; minister-counselor, Chinese Embassy in Washington, D.C., since 1945.

TANG, Chi-ho (prefers Edgar C. TANG)

Univ. president, native of Kiangsu, born in 1902; B. J., Missouri; Ph.D., Harvard; president, Cheeloo Univ., 1943-45; chancellor, National Yingshih Univ., 1946-49.

TANG, Chi-yu

Agriculturist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1897; Ph.D., Cornell, 1924; deputy director, Land Reclamation Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, 1941-42; chief counsellor, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, 1942-49; author, *An Economic Study of Chinese Agriculture*.

TANG, En-po (General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1899; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 31st Group Army, 1939-42; deputy commander-in-chief, 1st War Area, 1942-44; garrison commander of Nanking Area, 1945; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Army, 1946-48; Military Affairs Commissioner for Chuchow (Chekiang) Area, 1948; commander-in-chief, Nanking-Shanghai Area, 1948-49; deputy director of military and political affairs for the Southeast, since 1949; pacification commissioner for Fukien, 1949.

TANG, Hui-sun

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1899; graduate, Berlin College of Agriculture, 1932; deputy director, National Land Administration, 1946-47; Vice-Minister of Land, 1947-49; technical member, Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction, since 1949.

TANG, Pei-sung

Agriculturist, native of Hupeh, born in 1903; Ph.D., Johns Hopkins, 1930; professor of agricultural chemistry, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1938; dean, college of agriculture, same institution, since 1946; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

TANG, Sheng-chih (General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1885; graduate, Paoting Military

Academy; commander 8th Army, 1926; president, Military Advisory Council, 1932-34; Inspector-General of Military Training, 1934; garrison commander of Nanking, 1937; member, National Military Council, 1938-46; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, 1948; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949.

TANG, Shih-tsun (General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1883; commander in chief, 23rd Group Army, 1937-38; Deputy Commander-in-Chief, 3rd War Area, 1938-45; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee; and deputy director, President's Hqs. in Wuhan, 1945-48; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

TANG, Teh-chen

Journalist, native of Kwangtung, born in Singapore, 1908; B.A., Yenching Univ., M.A., Missouri; head, English department, Central News Agency, 1935-43; manager, New York bureau, same agency, since 1943.

TANG, Tsung

Policy officer, native of Hunan, born in 1905; graduate, Central Military Academy and Staff College; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1945-46; director-general, Directorate-General of Police, Ministry of Interior, since 1946.

TANG, Yi

Police officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1902; graduate, Szechwan Law College; police commissioner of Chungking, 1940-43 and 1944-47; deputy commandant, Central Police Academy, 1943-44; deputy director, Directorate-General of Police, Ministry of Interior, since 1948.

TAO, Feng-shan

Electrical engineer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; graduate, National Chiao-tung Univ., 1919; studied tele-communications in U.S.A. and England; director, department of tele-communications, Ministry of Communications, 1942-43; counsellor, same Ministry, 1943-44; director, department of tele-communications, same Ministry, since 1945.

TAO, Hsi-sheng

Writer, govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1893; graduate, National Peking Univ., 1922; vice-minister, Kuomintang Ministry of Informations, since 1947; chief editorial writer, *Central Daily News*, since 1943; author, *An Analogy of Chinese Social History, A History of Chinese Political Thought*, etc.

TAO, L. K. (see **TAO, Meng-ho**)

TAO, Meng-ho (prefers **L. K. TAO**)

Sociologist, native of Tientsin, born in 1887; B.Sc., London, 1913; professor and later dean, National Peking Univ., 1914-26; director, Institute of Social Research, Peiping, 1926-34; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; director, Institute of Social Sciences, Academia Sinica, since 1934; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *Village and Town Life in China* (with Y. K. Leong), *Livelihood in Peiping*, etc.

TCHENG, Soumay (see **CHENG, Yushiu**)

TENG, Chia-yen

Govt. official, native of Kwangsi, born in 1888; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

TENG, Hsi-hou (General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1889; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; governor of Szechwan, 1924; commander-in-chief, 22nd Group Army, 1937 Pacification Commissioner for Szechwan and Sikang, 1938-47; governor of Szechwan, 1946-48; Pacification Commissioner for Szechwan-Shensi-Kansu Border Area, since 1948-49.

TENG, Wen-yi (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hunan, born in 1906; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy and Moscow Sun Yat-sen Univ.; director, Information and Civil Affairs Bureau, Ministry of National Defense, since 1946; spokesman for the Ministry of National Defense.

TI, Ying

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1896; studied in France; deputy secretary-general, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, 1942-45; secretary-general, Control Yuan, 1945; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

TIAO, Min-chien (prefers **M. T. Z. TYAU**)

Journalist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1888; LL.D., London; founder and editor, *Peking Leader*, 1917-20; director, information department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1929-31; editor, *China Press Weekly*, 1935-37.

TIAO, Tso-chien (prefers **Philip K. C. TYAU**)

Retired diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1880; M.A., Cam-

bridge; Minister to Cuba and Panama, 1921-26; managing director, *Peiping Leader*, 1928-33; consul-general at Singapore, 1933-35; Foreign Affairs Commissioner for Kwangtung, 1936-38.

TIEN, Chun-chin

Govt. official, native of Kansu, born in 1899; Ph.D., Illinois; member, Control Yuan, 1931-36; 1938-46; Control Yuan commissioner in Shansi-Shensi Area, 1946-48; Minister of Examination, 1948-49.

TIEN, Han

Playwright, native of Hunan, born in 1898; graduate, Tokyo Normal College; one of the few pioneers in promoting modern stage plays in China; author of many well-known plays; devoted much time during the war in writing and re-writing the so-called "reformed" regional plays as a means of social education.

TIEN, Keng-hsin (prefers **Thomas Cardinal TIEN**)

Catholic leader, native of Shantung, born in 1890; Hon. LL.D., Manhattan College, New York; made Cardinal by the Pope, 1946; Archbishop of Peiping, since 1945.

TIEN, Thomas Cardinal (see **TIEN, Keng-hsin**)

TIEN, Yu-shih

Govt. official, native of Kirin, born in 1906; graduate, National Peiping Univ. and Columbia; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948; Vice-Minister of Food, 1948-49; director, Food and Land Tax Administration, Ministry of Finance, since 1949.

TING, Hsieh-lin

Physicist, native of Hupeh, born in 1884; M.Sc., Birmingham; director, Institute of Physics, Academia Sinica, 1928-45; research fellow, Academia Sinica, since 1945.

TING, Kwei-tang

Govt. official, native of Liaoning, born in 1892; graduate, Customs College, 1916; Deputy Inspector-General of Customs, since 1943; director, Shanghai Conservancy Board, since 1945.

TING, Wei-fen

Kuomintang official, native of Shantung, born in 1876; graduate, Meiji Univ., Tokyo; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1924.

TONG, Hollington K. (see **TUNG, Hsien-kuang**)

TRAMMOH, Joseph K. (see **TUAN-MU, Kai**)

TSAI, Chiao

Physiologist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1897; Ph.D., Chicago, 1924; professor, National Central Univ., since 1937; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; known for his research in carbohydrate metabolism and anti-hemolytic action of cholesterol, lecithin and serum.

TSAI, Lo-sheng (prefers **Loh-seng TSAI**)

Psychologist, native of Kwangtung, born in 1901; Ph.D., Chicago; professor at several well known univs. including National Central, Nanking, and West China Union Univs.; author, *The Psychology of Chinese Characters*.

TSAI, Loh-seng (see **TSAI, Lo-sheng**)

TSIA, Vougi (see **TSAI, Wu-chi**)

TSIA, Wu-chi (prefers **Vougi TSAI**)

Veterinary surgeon, native of Chekiang, born in 1898; D.V.S., Ecole National Veterinaire D'Alfort, France; director, National Animal Husbandry Research Bureau, Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, 1941-45; director, Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities, Shanghai, 1945-49.

TSANG, Ke-chai

Poet, native of Shantung; B.A., National Tsingtao Univ.; author of many volumes of poems and prose.

TSAO, Hao-sen (**Lieutenant-General**)

Army officer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1887; graduate, Japanese Staff College, 1924; Vice-Minister of War, 1932-42; governor of Kiangsi, 1942-46; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

TSAO, Ku-ping

Journalist, native of Shanghai, born in 1895; B.A., Berlin Univ., 1927; manager, Tientsin edition, *Ta Kung Pao*, 1945-49.

TSAO, T. C. (see **CHAO, Tseng-chueh**)

TSENG, Chao-lun

Chemist, native of Hunan, born in 1899; Ph.D., M.I.T., professor and dean, department of chemistry, National Peking Univ.; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

TSENG, Chi

Chairman of Young China Party, native of Szechwan, born in 1892; studied

in Japan and France; professor at several univs.; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; state councillor, National Gov't., 1947-48; advisor to the President, since 1948.

TSENG, Hsu-pai

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1894; B.A., St. John's Univ., 1918; managing director, *Ta Wan Pao* (China Evening News), Shanghai, 1932-36; counsellor, National Military Council, 1935-37; director, international department, Ministry of Information, 1938-47; deputy director, Government Information Office, 1947-48.

TSENG, Kuang-ching

Kuomintang official, native of Szechwan, born in 1899; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; chairman, Szechwan Provincial Kuomintang Hqs., since 1948.

TSENG, Shih-ying

Geographer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1899; graduate, Soochow Technical College, 1918; studied at Syracuse Univ.; senior expert, National Geological Survey, 1929-46; consultant in map-making, U. S. War Department, 1943-44; now engaged in revising map of China; author, *The Atlas of China* (with V. K. Ting and Wong Wen-hao), published by the *Shun Pao*.

TSENG, Yang-pu

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1898; M.S., Pittsburgh, 1924; Hon.D.Sc., Pittsburgh, 1934; mayor of Canton, 1936-37; director-general, Yunnan-Burma Railway, 1941; Minister of Communications, 1942-44; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

TSENG, Yung-pu (prefers **T. K. TSENG**)

Govt. official, native of Fukien, born in 1882; studied at Peiyang and Cambridge Univs.; Minister to Norway and Sweden, 1926; Vice-Minister of Railways, 1935-38; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1938-41.

TSIANG, Tingfu, F. (see **CHIANG, Ting-fu**)

TSIEN, Tai (see **CHIEN, Tai**)

TSO, Shun-sheng

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1895; studied in France; one of the

Young China Party leaders; professor of history at several well-known univs.; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, 1947-49.

TSOU, Ling

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1890; graduate, National Peking Law College, 1914; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1932-40; member and finance commissioner, Kwangtung provincial govt., 1940-41; chairman, Foreign Trade Commission, 1942-46; member and secretary-general, Kwangtung provincial govt., 1947-48.

TSOU, Lu

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1884; graduate, Waseda Univ., Tokyo; member Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1926; chancellor, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1931-40; state councillor, National Govt., 1947-48; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

TSOU, Ping-wen

Agriculturist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1892; B.S., Cornell; former professor and dean, college of agriculture, National Central Univ.; vice-chairman, Foreign Trade Commission; now Chinese representative to United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization.

TSOU, Shu-wen (prefers Y. Hsuwen TSOU)

Agriculturist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1884; B.S.A., Cornell, 1912; M.S., Illinois, 1913; professor and dean, college of agriculture, National Central Univ., 1932-41; president, National Northwest College of Agriculture, 1944-45; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

TSOU, Tso-hua (General)

Army officer, native of Kirin, born in 1892; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; principal, Artillery School, 1934-39; commander of artillery, National Military Council, 1940; governor of Kirin, 1940-45; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

TSOU, Y. Hsuwen (see TSOU, Shu-wen)

TSU, Y. Y. (see CHU, Yu-yu)

TSUR, Y. T. (CHOU, Yi-chun)

TU, Chen-yuan

Railway director, native of Hupeh, born in 1888; graduate, Tangshan Engineering College, 1914; M.C.E., Cornell, 1922; di-

rector, Canton-Hankow Area Railway Administration (Hengyang), since 1943.

TU, Yueh-sheng (see TU, Yung)

TU, Yuen-ten (see TU, Yun-tan)

TU, Yun-tan (prefers TU, Tuen-ten)

Diplomatic official, native of Hupeh, born in 1897; Ph.D., Illinois; Minister of Panama, 1943-47; Ambassador to Burma, since 1948.

TU, Yung (TU, Yueh-sheng)

Banker, industrialist, native of Shanghai, born in 1888; chairman, board of directors, China Commercial Bank, and Shanghai Stock Exchange.

TUAN, Mou-lan

Diplomatic official, native of Anhwei, born in 1898; Ph.D., Columbia, 1927; counsellor, Chinese Legation in Australia, 1941-45; consul-general in Manila, 1945-47; minister-counsellor, Chinese Embassy, London, 1947-49; Charge d'Affairs, Chinese Embassy, Paris, 1949.

TUAN-MU, Kai (prefers Joseph K. TWAMMOH)

Govt. official, native of Anhwei, born in 1902; J.S.D., New York; secretary-general, National General Mobilization Council, 1944-45; member, People's Political Council, and legal practitioner in Shanghai and Nanking, 1945-47; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948; secretary-general, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

TUNG, Chao (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Shensi, born in 1901; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924 and Staff College; commander, 18th Pacification Area, 1946-48; governor of Shensi, 1948-49.

TUNG, Hsien-kuang (prefers Hollington K. TONG)

Govt. official, journalist, native of Chekiang, born in 1887; A.B., Missouri, 1912; post-graduate studies at Columbia, 1913; managing director, *China Press*, (Shanghai), 1931-35; managing director, *China Times*, *Ta Wan Pao*, and Shun Shih News Agency, 1935; director, Shanghai Office, National Military Council, 1936; acting minister, 5th Board, National Military Council, 1937; Vice-Minister of Information, 1938-45; director, Government Information Office, 1947-48; Minister without Portfolio, Executive Yuan, 1948; director, Information Department, Kuomintang *Tsungtsai's* Office, since 1949; author, *Chiang Kai-shek* and *Dateline: China* (New York).

TUNG, Kwan-hsien

Govt. official, native of Chahar, born in 1893; M.S., Columbia, 1923; studied at London and Berlin Univs., 1923-35; dean, National Central Univ., 1937-43; commissioner of Control Yuan in Shansi-Shensi, 1943-45; director, Hopei-Chahar Office, C.N.R.R.A., 1945-48; president, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

TUNG, Lin

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1907; Ph.D., Illinois; Ambassador to The Netherlands, 1945-46; advisor and director, American affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1947-48; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1948-49.

TUNG, Pi-wu

Communist leader, native of Hupeh, born in 1886; graduate, Tokyo Law College; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; delegate to San Francisco Conference, 1944; one of the Communist negotiators in Chungking and later in Nanking; became "deputy premier" of Communist-sponsored "People's Central Government" in Peiping, Oct., 1949.

TUNG, Shih-chin

Agriculturist, native of Szechwan, born in 1900; Ph.D., Cornell; president, Provincial College of Agriculture of Kiangsi, 1934-38; professor and dean, college of agriculture, National Szechwan Univ., 1938-39; director, Szechwan Agricultural Improvement Bureau, 1942-43; founder and president, Chinese Farmers' Association, since 1938.

TUNG, Tso-pin

Archaeologist, native of Honan, born in 1895; graduate, National Peking Univ.; research fellow, Institute of History and Philology, Academia Sinica, 1928-47; visiting professor, Univ. of Chicago, since 1947; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *The Yin Dynasty Calendar* (14 vols.).

TUNG, Yen-ping (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Liaoning, born in 1896; graduate, Japanese Staff College; governor of Antung, 1947-48.

TYAU, M. T. Z. (see TIAO, Min-chien)**TYAU, Philip K. C. (see TIAO, Tso-chien)****WAN, Fu-lin (General)**

Army officer, native of Kirin, born in 1880; former governor of Heilungkiang,

governor of Liaoning, army commander, member of National Military Council, chairman, Political Affairs, Commission, President's Hqs. in Northeast; deputy commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces in Northeast, 1948; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

WAN, Yao-huang (General)

Army officer, native of Hupeh, born in 1893; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1914; commander, 25th Army, 1935-38; deputy commander-in-chief, Wuhan Area, 1938-39; commandant, Staff College, 1939-41; commandant, Central Military Academy, 1941-45; governor of Hupeh, 1946-48; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, 1948; commandant, Central Training Corps, since 1948.

WANG, Cheng

Govt. official, native of Kirin, born in 1890; B.Sc., London; former Vice-Minister of Railways; Minister without Portfolio, Executive Yuan, 1948; chairman, Board of Trustees for Rehabilitation Affairs, 1948-49.

WANG, Cheng-ting (prefers Cheng-ting T. WANG)

Retired govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1882; B.A., Yale, 1910; Hon. LL.D., St. John's and Yenching Univs.; deputy speaker, Senate, 1913; general secretary, National Committee, Y.M.C.A., 1914; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1922-23; Acting Premier, 1923; Minister of Foreign Affairs and Minister of Finance, 1926; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1928-31; Ambassador to U.S.A., 1936-38; chairman, War Crimes Investigation Committee, Executive Yuan, 1944.

WANG, Chengting T. (see WANG, Cheng-ting)**WANG, Chia-chen**

Govt. official, native of Kirin, born in 1899; B.A., Keio Univ., Tokyo; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1930-32; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; member, standing committee, Political Affairs Commission in Northeast, 1948.

WANG, Chia-chi

Zoologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1898; Ph.D., Pennsylvania; research director, Biological Institute, Science Society of China, 1929-34; director, Institute of Zoology, Academia Sinica, since 1934; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

WANG, Chin

Physicist, native of Chekiang, born in 1888; M.S., Minnesota; professor and dean, college of science, National Central Univ., 1926-37; professor and dean, teacher's college, National Chekiang Univ., since 1937.

WANG, Ching-chun

Govt. official, native of Hopei, born in 1882; Ph.B., Yale, 1908; M.A. (1909) and Ph.D. (1911), Illinois; inventor of phonetic system for telegraphing Chinese characters; director-general, Chinese Eastern Railway, 1928-30; director, Chinese Government Purchasing Mission in London, 1931-49.

WANG, Ching-hsi (prefers Ging-hsi WANG)

Psychologist, native of Shantung, born in 1897; Ph.D., Johns Hopkins, 1923; director, Institute of Psychology, Academia Sinica, since 1934; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

WANG, Chung-hui

Jurist, govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1882; D.L.C., Yale, 1904; called to Bar, Inner Temple, London, 1907; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1912; Minister of Justice, 1912; chief justice, Supreme Court, 1920; Premier, 1922 and 1924; judge, Permanent Court of International Justice, 1923-24; 1930-35; Minister of Education, 1926; Minister of Justice, 1927-28; president, Judicial Yuan, 1928-31; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1937-41; vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1937-38; secretary-general, Supreme National Defense Council, 1942-47; member, presidium, People's Political Council, 1943-48; state councillor, National Govt., 1947-48; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; president, Judicial Yuan, since 1948; translated *German Civil Code* into English.

WANG, Fu-chou

Govt. official, native of Honan, born in 1900; M.A., Ohio, 1925; director, Direct Tax Administration, Ministry of Finance, 1946-48; director, currency department, same ministry, 1948; director, Salt Administration, same Ministry, since 1948.

WANG, Ging-hsi (see WANG, Ching-hsi)**WANG, Hsiang-chen (Pen-name: Lao Hsiang)**

Writer, native of Hopei, engaged in re-writing popular folk-songs and regional plays as a mean of mass education; member, Control Yuan, since 1948.

WANG, Hsiao-lai

Merchant, native of Chekiang, born in 1886; former high advisor, Ministry of Finance; member, National Relief Commission; chairman, Shanghai Chamber of Commerce; speaker, Shanghai Municipal Council; now general manager, China Accident Insurance Co.; and chairman, National Federation of Chambers of Commerce.

WANG, Hsin-Kung (prefers WANG, Sing-kung)

Educator, native of Anhwei, born in 1888; Associate of Royal College of Science and Diploma of Imperial College, London, 1909; chancellor, National Wuhan Univ., 1930-45; chancellor, National Sun Yat-sen Univ., 1945-48.

WANG, Hua-cheng

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1903; Ph.D., Chicago, 1927; director, treaty department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1942-47; Minister to Portugal, since 1947.

WANG, Huai-ming

Educator, native of Shansi, born in 1892; LL.M., Northwestern Univ., U.S.A., 1922; chancellor, National Shansi Univ., 1943-46; speaker, Shansi provincial council, 1946-49.

WANG, Hung-shao (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Hopei, born in 1899; graduate, Paoting Military Academy and Staff College; chief of staff, 5th War Area, 1938-45; chief of staff, President's Hq. in Peiping, 1946-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

WANG, Lucy C. (see WANG, Shih-chin)**WANG, Mao-kung**

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1891; graduate, Soviet Staff College; former garrison commander of Canton, chief of staff, National Revolutionary Army; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1931; governor of Kiangsu, 1945-48.

WANG, Mrs. Vera Chang (see CHANG, Ai-chen)**WANG, Shih-chieh**

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1891; B.S., London, 1917; docteur en droit, Paris, 1920; chancellor, National Wuhan Univ., 1929-33; Minister of Education, 1933-38; secretary-general, People's Political Council, 1938-43; member,

presidium, P.P.C., 1943-46; secretary-general, Central Planning Board, 1941-43; Minister of Information, 1939-42 and 1944-45; leader, Chinese Mission to Great Britain, 1944; Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1945-48; state councillor, National Govt., 1947-48; member of academic council, Academia Sinica; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *Comparative Constitutional Laws*.

WANG, Shih-chin (Miss, prefers **Lucy C. WANG**)

College president, native of Fukien, born in 1899; M.A., Michigan; president, Huanan College for Women, since 1930.

WANG, Shih-ying

Co-operative worker, native of Fukien, born in 1900; graduate, Futan Univ., 1923; member, People's Political Council, 1938-47; director, Central Co-operative Administration, Ministry of Social Affairs, since 1947.

WANG, Shu-han

Govt. official, native of Liaoning, born in 1879; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1935; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

WANG, Shu-ming (Air Major-General)

Air force officer, native of Shantung, born in 1905; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy, 1924; graduate, Central Aviation Academy and Soviet Military Flying School; deputy commander-in-chief, and chief of staff, Chinese Air Force, since 1946.

WANG, Sing-kung (see **Wang, Hsin-kung**)

WANG, Tieh-han (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Liaoning, born in 1905; graduate, Staff College, garrison commander of Mukden, 1948; governor of Liaoning, 1948.

WANG, Tsan-hsu (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1886; commander-in-chief, 29th Group Army, 1938; governor of Szechwan, 1939-42; deputy commander-in-chief, 6th War Area, 1942-43; garrison commander of Chungking, since 1945; Deputy Military Affairs Commissioner for Chungking Area, 1948-49.

WANG, Tzu-kan

Physician, native of Kiangsi, born in 1882; M.D., St. Louis; former president, Yale-in-China Medical College; now

president, National Chungcheng Medical College, Kiangsi.

WANG, Tung-yuan (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Anhwei, born in 1899; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; commandant, Central Training Corps, 1940-44; vice-minister, Political Training Board, National Military Council, 1940; governor of Hupeh, 1944-46; deputy commander-in-chief, 6th War Area, 1944; governor of Hunan, 1946-48; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1948; director, military affairs department, Kuomintang *Tsung-tsaï's* Office, since 1949.

WANG, Yun-sheng

Journalist, native of Hopei, born in 1901; editor-in-chief, *Ta Kung Pao*, since 1941; author, *Sixty Years of Sino-Japanese Relations*.

WANG, Yun-wu

Publisher, govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1888; managing director and editor, Commercial Press, 1928-45; member, People's Political Council, 1938-45; member, Chinese Mission to Great Britain, 1944; Minister of Economic Affairs, 1946-47; vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1947-48; Minister of Finance, 1948; editor, *Wan Yu Wen Ku* (*The Complete Library*), consisting of 4,000 volumes of standard works in all branches of knowledge; inventor of a system of Chinese lexicography known as the "four-corner numeral system."

WEI, Cho-min (prefers **Francis Cho-min WEI**)

College president, native of Kwangtung, born in 1889; B.A., Boone College, 1911; M.A., Harvard, 1919; Ph.D., London, 1929; president, Hua Chung college, since 1929.

WEI, Francis Cho-min (see **WEI, Cho-min**)

WEI, Huai

Govt. official, native of Fukien, born in 1882; graduate, Mawei Naval Academy and Paris Polytechnic Institute; secretary-general, National Govt., 1932-45; state councillor, National Govt., 1945-47; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

WEI, Li-huang (General)

Army officer, native of Anhwei, born in 1897; graduate, Staff College; Commander-in-Chief, 1st War Area, 1938-42; Commander-in-Chief, Expeditionary Force, National Military Council, 1942-46; director, President's Hqs. in Northeast, 1948;

commander-in-chief, Rebellion Suppression Forces in Northeast, 1948.

WEI, Tao-ming

Govt. official, native of Kiangsi, born in 1900; LL.D., Paris; Minister of Justice, 1928-29; mayor of Nanking, 1930-31; Ambassador to U.S.A., 1942-46; vice-president, Legislative Yuan, 1946; governor of Taiwan, 1947-48.

WEI, Tao-ming, Mrs. (see CHENG, Yu-hsiu)

WEI, Ting-sheng

Economist, native of Hupeh, born in 1891; member, Legislative Yuan, 1928-48; professor of economics at National Central and National Fudan Univs. since 1920.

WEN, Yi-yu

Chartered accountant, native of Hupeh, born in 1900; graduate, Wuchang Commercial College; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1935; director, Bureau of Accounts. Comptroller - General's Office, National Govt., 1933-48.

WEN, Yuan-ning

Diplomatic official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1900; M.A., LL.B.; studied at London and Cambridge Univs.; editor-in-chief, *T'ien Hsia Monthly* (English), 1935-41; member, Legislative Yuan, 1936-37; member, Chinese Mission to Great Britain, 1944; Ambassador to Greece, since 1947.

WONG, K. Y. (see HUANG, Kuang-jui)

WONG, Wen-hao

Govt. official, geologist, native of Chekiang, born in 1889; D.Sc., Louvain, 1913; holder of several honorary degrees; director, National Geological Survey, 1922-38; acting chancellor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1931; secretary-general, Executive Yuan, 1935-36; minister, 3rd Board, National Military Council, 1937; Minister of Economic Affairs, and chairman, National Resources Commission, 1938-45; director, War Production Board, 1944-45; vice-president, Executive Yuan, 1945-46; chairman, National Resources Commission, 1947-48; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; president, Executive Yuan, 1948; author, *Mineral Resources of China*, *Mountain Ranges of China*, etc.

WOO, K. S. (prefers WU, Kai-hsien)

WOO, L. S. (see HU, Lan-sheng)

WOO, Pao-feng (see WU, Pao-feng)

WOO, P. N. (see WU, Yun-chu)

WU, Chaucer H. (see WU, Tseh-hsiang)

WU, Chi-yuan

Economist, native of Kwangtung; Ph.D., London; professor, National Southwest Associated Univ., 1938-45; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1945-47; special consultant, United Nations, 1947-49; chief, Far Eastern Unit, Stability and Development Div., Dept. of Economic Affairs, U.N., since March, 1949; author of several books on economic problems in China.

WU, Chih-hui (see WU, Ching-heng)

WU, Ching-chao

Sociologist, native of Anhwei, born in 1901; Ph.D., Chicago, 1928; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1931-35; senior secretary, Executive Yuan, 1936-37; senior secretary, Ministry of Economic Affairs, 1938-44; chief secretary, War, Production Board, 1945; advisor, National Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 1946; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1947.

WU, Ching-heng (WU, Chih-hui)

Kuomintang leader, writer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1864; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since 1924; chairman, Kuomintang Revolutionary Achievements Committee; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; advisor to the President, since 1948.

WU, Ching-hsiung (prefers John C. H. WU)

Jurist, diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1899; Ph.D., Michigan, 1921; president, Comparative Law College, Soochow Univ., 1927-38; member and chairman, foreign affairs committee, Legislative Yuan, 1932-47; Minister to The Vatican, 1947-49.

WU, Chun-sheng (prefers OU, Tsuin-chen)

Professor, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; D.Litt., Paris, 1931; director, department of higher education, Ministry of Education, 1938-45; professor of education, National Central Univ., since 1946; editor-in-chief, Cheng Chung Book Co., since 1947; Vice-Minister of Education, since 1949.

WU, Chung-hsin

Govt. official, native of Anhwei, born in 1884; graduate, Kiangnan Military Academy; governor of Anhwei, 1929; governor of Kweichow, 1935-37; chairman, Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs Commission, 1937-44; governor of Sinkiang, 1944-

45; state councillor, National Government, 1947-48; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1929; advisor to the President, since 1948.

WU, Hsien-tze

One of the Democratic Socialist Party leaders, native of Kwangtung, born in 1881; was vice-chairman of Democratic Socialist Party in 1947 when he split with Carsun Chang and formed the Reform Committee; appointed State Councillor, National Government, 1947.

WU, John C. H. (see WU, Ching-hsiung)

WU, Kai-hsien (prefers K. S. WOO)

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; graduate, Univ. of Shanghai; former vice-minister, Kuomintang Organization Board; director, Social Affairs Bureau, Shanghai municipal govt., 1945-49.

WU, Kuo-chen

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1903; Ph.D., Princeton, 1926; mayor of Hankow, 1932-38; mayor of Chungking, 1939-42; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1943-45; Minister of Information, 1945-46; mayor of Shanghai, 1946-49; governor of Taiwan province, since Dec. 1949.

WU, Lien-teh

Health expert, native of Kwangtung, born in Singapore, 1880; B.A. and M.D., Cambridge; holder of several honorary degrees; director, North Manchurian Plague Prevention Service, 1912-30; director, National Quarantine Service, 1930.

WU, Nan-hsuan

Univ. president, native of Kiangsu, born in 1895; Ph.D., California; chancellor, National Fudan Univ., 1942-43; chancellor, National Yingshih Univ., 1943; member, Control Yuan, 1943-48.

WU, Nan-ju

Diplomatic official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1898; graduate, Peiyang, Univ.; Minister of Switzerland, since 1946.

WU, Shang-ying

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1892; B.S., Oregon State College, 1916; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1931-32; Vice-Minister of Interior, 1932; secretary-general, Legislative Yuan, 1939-48; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948; Minister of Land, 1948-49.

WU, Ta-chun

Govt. official, native of Fukien, born in 1903; M.B.A., Pennsylvania; director, Bureau of Statistics, National Govern-

ment, 1932-47; comptroller, Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, 1948-49.

WU, Te-chen (see WU, Tieh-cheng)

WU, Tieh-cheng (General, prefers WU, Te-chen)

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1888; studied in Japan; commander, Kwangtung Defense Forces, 1923-37; member, Legislative Yuan, 1929-32; mayor of Shanghai, 1932-37; governor of Kwangtung, 1937-39; minister, Kuomintang Overseas Affairs Board, 1939-40; secretary - general, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1941; vice-president, Legislative Yuan, 1947-48; member, Legislative Yuan, 1948; vice-president, Executive Yuan, and Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1948-49; Minister without Portfolio, since 1949.

WU, Ting-chang

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1884; graduate, Japanese Commercial College, 1909; chairman, Banking Syndicate of Yen Yeh, Kincheng, Continental, and China and the South Banks, 1922-35; Minister of Industry, 1935-37; governor of Kweichow, 1937-44; secretary-general, National Govt., 1945-48; secretary-general, *Tsungtungfu* (Office of the President), 1948.

WU, Tseh-hsiang (prefers Chaucer H. WU)

Diplomatic official, native of Szechwan, born in 1898; graduate, National Tsing Hua Univ.; Minister and later Ambassador to Chile, since 1945.

WU, Wen-tsao

Anthropologist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1901; Ph.D., Columbia, 1928; professor and dean, sociology department, Yenching Univ., 1929-38; founder and dean, sociology department, National Yun-nan Univ., 1938-40; counsellor, Supreme National Defense Council, 1941-46; advisor to Member for China, Allied Council for Japan, since 1946.

WU, Wen-tsao, Mrs. (see HSIEH, Wan-ying)

WU, Yi-fang (Miss)

College president, native of Chekiang, born in Hupeh, 1893; B.A., Ginling; Ph.D., Michigan; holder of several honorary degrees; president, Ginling College for Women, since 1928; chairman, National Christian Council, 1935-46; chairman, National Committee, Y.W.C.A., 1940-41; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; member, presidium, P.P.C., 1940-47; delegate to many international conferences including United Nations' San Francisco

Conference, 1945; chairman, China Christian Education Association, since 1947; president, Chinese Association of Univ. Women, since 1947.

WU, Yu-hsun

Physicist, native of Chekiang, born in 1900; D.Sc., Chicago; professor and dean, physics department, National Tsing Hua Univ., 1928-45; chancellor, National Central Univ., 1948-49; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

WU, Yun-chu (prefers P. N. WOO)

Industrialist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1891; general manager, Tien Chu Seasoning Powder Factory, and Tien Yuan Chemical Factory; president, National Federation of Industries.

YANG, Ai-yuan (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Shansi, born in 1890; graduate, Paoting Military Academy; former governor of Chahar; deputy commander-in-chief, 2nd War Area, 1942-45; Deputy Military Affairs Commissioner at Taiyuan, 1945-49.

YANG, Chu (see YANG, Tuan-lu)

YANG, Cho-an

Govt. official, native of Fukien, born in 1898; graduate, Peking French College; mayor of Harbin, 1945-48; director, Emergency Food Purchasing and Warehousing Commission, Ministry of Food, 1948-49.

YANG, Chung-chien

Palaeontologist, native of Shensi, born in 1897; Ph.D., Munich, 1927; senior expert, National Geological Survey of China, since 1928; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; chancellor, National Northwest Univ., since 1948; author, *A Complete Osteology of Lufengisaurus Hueneiyoung*, the study of a new specimen discovered by the author at Lufeng, Yunnan.

YANG, Hsuan-cheng (Vice-Admiral)

Naval officer, native of Hunan, born in 1889; graduate, Tokyo Naval Gunnery Academy; director, 2nd department, Military Operations Board, National Military Council, 1939-44; director, Foreign Affairs Bureau, N.M.C., 1944-45; secretary-general, Peiping Municipal Govt., 1945-46; Chairman, Taiwan Agricultural and Forestry Enterprise Co., since 1947.

YANG, Hu (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Anhwei, born in 1898; graduate, Nanking Officers' School; garrison commander, Shanghai-Woosung Area, 1932-37; member, Kuomintang Central Supervisory Committee, since

1931; president, Seamen's Union; expelled from Kuomintang, 1949, because of anti-government activities.

YANG, Ju-mei

Govt. official, native of Hupeh, born in 1887; graduate, Tokyo Commercial College; director, Bureau of Budgets, National Govt., 1931-48; comptroller, Ministry of Budgets, Accounts and Statistics, 1948-49.

YANG, Liang-kung

Govt. official, native of Anhwei, born in 1896; Ph.D., New York Univ.; member, Control Yuan, 1933-38; Control Yuan Commissioner in Anhwei-Kiangsi, 1938-44; Control Yuan Commissioner in Taiwan-Fukien, 1938-48; chancellor, National Anhwei Univ., 1948-49.

YANG, Shen (General)

Army officer, native of Szechwan, born in 1889; graduate, Szechwan Military Academy; commander-in-chief, 27th Group Army, 1938-39; deputy commander-in-chief, 6th War Area, 1939-40; deputy commander-in-chief, 9th War Area, 1940-45; governor of Kweichow, 1945-48; mayor of Chungking, 1948-49; Deputy Military and Political Affairs Director for Southwest, 1948-49.

YANG, Shu-ta

Professor, native of Hunan, born in 1885; studied in Japan; professor of Chinese at National Tsing Hua and National Peiping Normal Univs., 1923-37; professor, National Hunan Univ., since 1937; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author, *Advanced Chinese Grammar*.

YANG, Tuan-lu (prefers Chu YANG)

Professor, native of Hunan, born in 1885; studied in Japan; director, Institute of Social Sciences, Academia Sinica, 1928-29; professor of economics, National Wuhan Univ., since 1930; member, People's Political Council, 1938-48.

YANG, Yin-pu

Economist, native of Kiangsu, born in 1898; assistant general manager, Shanghai Stock Exchange, since 1946; professor and dean, college of commerce, Kuang-hua Univ., Shanghai, since 1947; publisher, *Financial Daily*, Shanghai, 1947-49; author, *The Financial Organization of Shanghai*, *The Chinese Stock Exchange*, etc.

YANG, Yu-chun

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1901; graduate, Fuh Tan Univ., 1925; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1934;

author, *History of Chinese Legislation, The New Tendencies of Constitutional Government*, etc.

YANG, Yun-chu

Diplomatic official, native of Hopei, born in 1900; LL.B., Tokyo Imperial Univ.; Charge d'Affairs, Chinese Embassy in Tokyo, 1938; director, Asiatic affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1938-40; director, east Asiatic affairs department, same ministry, 1940-45; counsellor with ministerial rank, Chinese Delegation to Far Eastern Commission, Washington, D. C., since 1946.

YANG, Yung-ching

Univ. president, native of Chekiang, born in 1891; M.A., George Washington; Hon. LL.D., Southern Univ. and Bowdoin College, U.S.A.; president, Soochow Univ., since 1927; Chinese representative on Social Commission, United Nations Economic and Social Council, since 1947-49.

YANG, Yung-nien

Physician, native of Hopei, born in 1901; M.D., Keio Medical College, Tokyo, 1931; director, Northwest Epidemic Prevention Bureau, and Northwest Institute of Health, 1944-45; director, National Institute for Biological and Chemical Production, Ministry of Health, since 1946; member, Permanent Central Opium Board, United Nations, Geneva.

YAO, Tsung (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1890; graduate, Staff College; acting director, Executive Office, National Military Council, 1937; deputy director, same office, 1938-46; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

YEH, Chi-sun

Physicist, native of Shanghai, born in 1898; Ph.D., Harvard; professor, National Tsing Hua Univ., since 1925; former director-general, Academia Sinica; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

YEH, George Kung-chao (see YEH, Kung-chao)

YEH, Kung-chao (prefers George Kung-chao YEH)

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1904; M.A., Harvard; research student, Cambridge; director, United Kingdom Office, Ministry of Information, 1942-46; counsellor and director, European affairs department, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1946-47; Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1947-49; Vice-Minister in charge of Ministerial Affairs, same Ministry, 1949; Minister of Foreign Affairs, since Oct. 1949.

YEH, Kung-cho

Retired govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1880; Minister of Communications, 1920, 1922, and 1924; Minister of Railways, 1932; member, National Economic Council, 1932-33.

YEH, Sho-chung

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1902; B.S., National Peking Univ.; deputy director, National Compilation and Translation Bureau, 1944; member, Legislative Yuan, since 1948.

YEN, Chi-tze (prefers NY Tsi-ze)

Physicist, native of Chekiang, born in 1900; D.Sc., Paris, 1927; director, Institute of Physics, National Academy of Peiping, since 1930; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

YEN, Chia-kan

Govt. official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1905; B.S., St. Johns Univ. (Shanghai); member, and finance commissioner, Fukien provincial govt., 1939-44; member and finance commissioner, Taiwan provincial govt., 1945-48; member, Council for United States Aid, Executive Yuan 1948; member and finance commissioner, Taiwan provincial govt., since 1948.

YEN, Fu-ching

Health expert, native of Kiangsu, born in 1882; M.D., Yale; D.T.M., Liverpool; D.P.H., Harvard; president, Shanghai College of Medicine, 1928-38; superintendent, Red Cross Hospital, Shanghai, 1928-38; director, National Health Administration, 1938-41.

YEN, Hsi-shan (General)

Army officer, govt. official, native of Shansi, born in 1883; graduate, Tokyo Military Academy; governor of Shansi, 1912-27; commander-in-chief, 3rd Group Army, National Revolutionary Forces, 1928; Military Affairs Commissioner for Shansi and Suiyuan, 1932-37; Commander-in-Chief, 2nd War Area, 1937-45; vice-chairman, National Military Council, 1936-38; member, National Military Council, 1938-46; governor of Shansi, since 1943; Military Affairs Commissioner at Taiyuan, 1945-49; president, Executive Yuan, and Minister of National Defense, since 1949.

YEN, Hui-ching (prefers W. W. YEN)

Retired govt. official and diplomat, native of Shanghai, born in 1877; B.S., Virginia, 1900; holder of several honorary degrees; at different periods in 1912-27 held posts of Premier (twice), Minister of Foreign Affairs (four times),

Minister of Interior, Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Minister to Germany, Denmark, and Great Britain; Minister to U.S.A., 1931-32; Ambassador to U.S.S.R., 1933-36; chief delegate to many international conferences, including the League of Nations Council and Convention; member, People's Political Council, 1938-42; state councillor, National Govt., 1947-48.

YEN, James, Y.C. (see **YEN, Yang-chu**)

YEN, Shu-tang

Jurist, native of Hopei, born in 1891; D.C.L., Yale; former professor of law, National Peking, Tsing Hua and Wuhan Univs.; Grand Justice, Judicial Yuan, since 1948.

YEN, W. W. (see **YEN, Hui-ching**)

YEN, Yang-chu (prefers **James Y.C. YEN**)

Educator, social worker, native of Szechwan, born in 1893; B.A., Yale, 1918; M.A., Princeton, 1920; holder of many honorary degrees; started mass education work in Chinese Labor Corps in France during World War I and later at Tingshien, Hopei; president, Hopei Provincial Institute of Political and Social Reconstruction, 1934; director, Hunan Provincial School of Public Administration, 1938; now general director, National Association of Mass Education Movement; president, College of Rural Reconstruction, Chungking; member and director-general, Joint Commission on Rural Reconstruction, since 1948; author, *The Tingshien Movement in Rural Reconstruction*.

YEN, Yao-chiu

Industrialist, native of Chekiang, born in 1896; graduate, National Tungchi Univ.; former president, Association of Factories Moved to Szechwan; now general manager, Shanghai Machine Works.

YING, Yun-wei

Stage director, native of Kiangsu; professor, National Academy of Dramatic Art; director of many well-known modern plays; devoted life to the new dramatic movement.

YU, Chi-shih (Lieutenant-General)

Army officer, native of Chekiang, born in 1904; graduate, Whampoa Military Academy and Staff College; commander, 7th Army, 1937; commander, 36th Army Corps, 1938; commander, Generalissimo's Guards, 1942-45; commander-in-chief, 36th Group Army, 1945; director, Military Affairs Bureau, National Govt., 1945-

48; director, 3rd Bureau, *Tsungtungfu* (Office of the President), 1948-49; director, general affairs department, Kuomintang *Tsungtsai's* Office, since 1949.

YU, Chia-chu

One of the leaders of Young China Party, native of Hupeh, born in 1896; graduate, Chunghua Univ., Wuchang; studied in London; state councillor, National Govt., 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

YU, Chia-hsi

Scholar, native of Hunan, born in 1884; professor and dean, department of Chinese, Catholic Fu Jen Univ. (Peiping), since 1932; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948; author of many books on Chinese literature, history and culture, including *Symposium on the Compendium of Sze Ku Chuan Shu*, 12 volumes, (*Sze Ku Chuan Shu*, "Complete Library in Four Branches of Literature," is a collection of 168,000 volumes of Chinese classics compiled in Ching dynasty).

YU, Ching-sung

Astronomist, native of Fukien, born in 1897; Ph.D., California; director, Institute of Astronomy, Academia Sinica, 1929-41; research fellow, Academia Sinica, since 1941.

YU, Ching-tang

Party official, native of Kiangsu, born in 1897; M.A., Iowa; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1935; Vice-Minister of Education, 1938-44; vice-minister, Kuomintang Organization Board, 1944-48.

YU, Fei-peng

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1884; graduate, Quarter-masters School, Peiping, 1913; Minister of Communications, 1935-38; minister, Transport and Supply Board, National Military Council, 1937-45; Minister of Communications, 1945-47; Minister of Food, 1947-48; member, National Policy Advisory Committee, since 1948.

YU, Han-mou (General)

Army officer, native of Kwangtung, born in 1896; graduate, Paoting Military Academy, 1919; Military Affairs Commissioner for Kwangtung, and commander-in-chief, 4th Route Army, 1936-38; deputy commander-in-chief, 4th War Area, 1938-40; commander-in-chief, 7th War Area, 1940-45; Military Affairs Commissioner for Chuchow, 1946-48; Commander-in-Chief, Chinese Army, 1948; Military and Political Affairs Director for South China, since 1949.

YU, Hsueh-chung (General)

Army officer, native of Shantung, born in 1889; commander, 51st Army and governor of Hopei, 1932-35; governor of Kansu, 1935-36; Military Affairs Commissioner for Kiangsu, 1937-38; commander-in-chief, Shantung-Kiangsu War Area, 1939-44; president, Military Advisory Council, 1944-45; member, Military Strategy Advisory Committee, since 1947.

YU, Hung-chun (prefers O. K. YUI)

Govt. official, native of Kwangtung, born in 1898; graduate, St. John's Univ.; secretary-general, Shanghai Municipal Govt., 1930-37; mayor of Shanghai, 1937; deputy director, Central Trust, 1938-41; Vice-Minister of Finance, 1941-44; Minister of Finance, 1944-48; governor, Central Bank of China, 1948-49.

YU, James (see YU, Tsun-chi)**YU, Pin (prefers Paul YUPIN)**

Catholic leader, native of Heilungkiang, born in 1901; Ph.D., St. Thomas Academy, Rome, 1928; D.D., Univ. of Propaganda, 1929; holder of several honorary degrees; Vicar Apostolic of Nanking, 1938; Administrator Apostolic of Kiating, Szechwan, 1944; Archbishop of Nanking, since 1946; chairman, board of directors, *Yi Shih Pao* (Catholic Daily); member, People's Political Council, 1938-48; delegate to National Assembly.

YU, Shang-yuan (prefers YUI Shang-yuen)

Playwright, native of Hupeh, born in 1897; B.A., National Peking Univ., 1921; studied dramatic art at Carnegie Institute of Technology and Columbia, 1923-25; president, National Academy of Dramatic Art, since 1935.

YU, Ta-wei

Govt. official, native of Hunan, born in 1899; Ph.D., Harvard, 1922; director, Army Ordnance Administration, 1933-45; Vice-Minister of War, 1944-45; Minister of Communications, 1946-48; chairman, Committee for Control of Productive Enterprises in Taiwan, since 1949.

YU, Tsun-chi (prefers James YU)

Diplomatic official, native of Hopei, born in 1899; Ph.D., Columbia; consul-general in New York, 1935-46; Ambassador to Italy, since 1946.

YU, Yu-jen

Govt. official, native of Shensi, born in 1878; editor, *National Herald*, *Min Hu Pao*, *Min Yu Pao* and *Min Li Pao* successively in Shanghai to propagate revolutionary sentiment; Vice-Minister of Communications, 1911; Minister of Audit,

1928-30; president, Control Yuan, since 1930; member, Kuomintang Central Executive Committee, since 1924; vice-presidential candidate, 1948.

YUAN, I. C. (see YUAN, Yi-ching)**YUAN, Thomas L. (see YUAN, Tun-li)****YUAN, Tun-li (prefers Thomas L. YUAN)**

College president, native of Hopei, born in 1895; M.A., Columbia, 1927; president, National Normal College, Peiping, since 1945.

YUAN, Tung-li

Library expert, native of Hopei, born in 1895; B.L.S., New York State Library School; director, National Library of Peiping, since 1927.

YUAN, Yi-cheng

Govt. official, native of Chekiang, born in 1905; LL.B., Paris; professor and dean, law department, Central Political Institute, 1934-37; member and civil affairs commissioner, Chekiang provincial govt., 1938-48.

YUAN, Yi-ching (prefers I. C. YUAN)

Health expert, native of Hupeh, born in 1899; M.D., Peiping Union Medical College, 1927; D.P.H. (1930) and D.Sc. (1931), Johns Hopkins; director, Institute of Epidemic Prevention, National Institute of Health, since 1942; Vice-Minister of Health, 1948; elected member, Academia Sinica, 1948.

YUI, O. K. (see YU, Hung-chun)**YUI, Shang-yuen (YU, Shang-yuan)****YUN, Chen**

Electric engineer, native of Kiangsu, born in 1900; E.E., Wisconsin, 1922; general manager, Central Electrical Manufacturing Works, since 1937.

YUNG, Chi-yung (prefers Winston Wing YUNG)

Health expert, native of Kwangtung, born in 1906; M.D., Peiping Union Medical College, 1931; M.P.H., Johns Hopkins, 1937; director, department of epidemic prevention, Ministry of Health (formerly National Health Administration), since 1940.

YUNG, Winston Wing (see YUNG, Chi-yung)**YUPIN, Paul (see YU, Pin)****ZEN, Hung-chun (see JEN, Hung-chun)**

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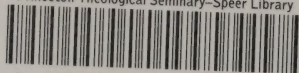
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